

**RETENTION OF LECTURERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA,**

**1990 TO 2016**

**BY**

**ROSEMARY MUMA MULENGA**

A Thesis submitted to the University of Zambia in fulfilment of the Requirement for  
the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Management and  
Administration

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

**LUSAKA**

**2020**

## **COPYRIGHT**

No part of this study may be reproduced in any form or by any means, electronic, photocopying or otherwise, without prior permission from the author.

©Rosemary Muma Mulenga, 2020

## **DECLARATION**

I, Rosemary Muma Mulenga, declare that this thesis represents my own work and that it has not been previously submitted for award of a degree at this university or any other university and that it does not incorporate any published work or materials from another thesis without acknowledgement.

Signed:.....

Date:.....

## APPROVAL

This thesis by Rosemary Muma Mulenga has been approved as fulfilling the requirement for the award of a degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Management and Administration by the University of Zambia.

External Examiner

Name: ..... Signature: ..... Date:.....

Internal Examiner 1

Name: ..... Signature: ..... Date:.....

Internal Examiner 2

Name: ..... Signature: ..... Date:.....

Supervisor

Name: ..... Signature: ..... Date:.....

Co-Supervisor

Name: ..... Signature: ..... Date:.....

Chairperson

Name: ..... Signature: ..... Date:.....

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

My gratitude is extended to the following people who have helped in this study: My Supervisor, Professor Charles Namafe and the Co-Supervisor, Mr Henry Msango, for taking an unmistakable fascination in this work, providing relevant material, with helpful remarks and coordinating it. I sincerely value their invigorating and testing discussions, criticisms, suggestions and insights that have helped me develop my ideas into this study.

I genuinely express gratitude towards Kwame Nkrumah University for the moral and monetary support for my studies. I also thank all my friends who encouraged me not to give up on my study. In this regard, I am especially deeply indebted to my friend, Fr. Henry Mobela, for the encouragement and support he gave me in my studies.

I also wish to extend my appreciation to my family. They were patient with me during the course of my study. They were an inspiration. I also extend my heartfelt gratitude to all the academic staff at the University of Zambia who provided the required material for this thesis. Much gratitude also goes to the librarians at UNZA who were very helpful with the retrieval of the much-needed material.

## **DEDICATION**

This study is dedicated to my late parents, Mr and Mrs Michael and Angela Mulenga, who were very passionate about my education, and to my late brother and sister, Cosmas and Foster Mulenga, who were also very enthusiastic about school and whose commitment to the family I will never forget.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>COPYRIGHT .....</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>DECLARATION .....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>APPROVAL .....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>DEDICATION .....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES.....</b>	<b>ix</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES.....</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>LIST OF APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>xii</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS .....</b>	<b>xiii</b>
<b>ABSTRACT .....</b>	<b>xiv</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1. Overview .....	1
1.2. Background to the Study .....	1
1.3. Statement of the Problem .....	8
1.4. Purpose of the Study.....	8
1.5. Objectives of the Study .....	8
1.6. Research Questions .....	9
1.7. Significance of the Study.....	9
1.8. Theoretical Framework.....	9
1.9. Conceptual Framework.....	17
1.10. Limitations of the Study .....	21
1.11. Operational Definitions of Terms.....	22
1.12. Outline of the Thesis .....	24
1.13. Chapter Summary .....	24
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW .....</b>	<b>26</b>

2.1. Overview .....	26
2.2. Factors Contributing to People Leaving the Work Place .....	26
2.3. Consequences of Employee Turnover .....	38
2.4. Strategies for Retaining Employees .....	50
2.5. Literature Gaps .....	61
2.6. Chapter Summary .....	61
<b>CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>63</b>
3.1. Overview .....	63
3.2. Research Design .....	63
3.3. Philosophical Orientation of the Study .....	64
3.4. The Research Approaches .....	67
3.5. Research Strategy .....	68
3.6. The Research Choice .....	69
3.7. Time horizon .....	71
3.8. Research Procedures and Techniques.....	71
3.9. Quality of Research Instruments .....	74
3.10. Data Collection Procedures .....	76
3.11. Data Analysis.....	76
3.12. Pilot Testing.....	78
3.13. Ethical Considerations .....	79
3.14. Chapter Summary .....	81

<b>CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATIONS OF FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>83</b>
4.1. Overview .....	83
4.2. What factors caused Lecturers to Leave UNZA for alternative employment? .....	83
4.3. What were the consequences of lecturers’ turnover at UNZA? .....	113
4.4. What strategies did UNZA use in the retention of lecturers? .....	125
4.6. Chapter Summary .....	136
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>138</b>
5.1. Overview .....	138
5.2. Interpretation and discussion of findings.....	138
5.3. Objective I: Factors that caused lecturers to leave UNZA .....	139
5.4. Objective ii: Consequences of lecturer turnover at UNZA .....	153
5.5. Objective iii: Strategies to retain academic staff .....	160
5.6. Chapter Summary .....	173
<b>CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS..</b>	<b>175</b>
6.1. Overview .....	175
6.2. Summary.....	175
6.3. Conclusion.....	181
6.4. Recommendations .....	184
6.5. Recommendation for further research .....	186
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>APPENDICES.....</b>	<b>206</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table 4.1:</i> Responses from participants on low salaries and other financial benefits .....	84
<i>Table 4.2:</i> Views of Respondents on lack of housing .....	87
<i>Table 4.3:</i> Views of respondents on lack of professional development opportunities .....	88
<i>Table 4.4:</i> Views of respondents on retirement as cause of leaving UNZA .....	90
<i>Table 4.5:</i> Opinions of participants on benefits of turnover .....	91
<i>Table 4.6:</i> Challenges lecturers experienced as a result of working in UNZA.....	93
<i>Table 4.7</i> Responses on the process of recruitment .....	97
<i>Table 4.8:</i> Number of Lecturers who had left .....	98
<i>Table 4.9</i> Courses mostly offered by Expatriate Lecturers .....	99
<i>Table 4.10:</i> Causes of lecturer migration .....	101
<i>Table 4.11:</i> Responses of Participants on the Lecturers who left the university .....	104
<i>Table 4.12:</i> Courses mostly offered by expatriates .....	105
<i>Table 4.13:</i> Responses by administrators why lecturer left UNZA .....	107
<i>Table 4.14:</i> Impact and management of lecturer turnover .....	114
<i>Table 4.15:</i> Opinions on expatriates who came to UNZA .....	116
<i>Table 4.16:</i> Impact and management of lecturer migration .....	118

<i>Table 4.17: Responses of administrators on expatriates and their impact .....</i>	120
<i>Table 4.18: Responses of participants on expatriate lecturers .....</i>	122
<i>Table 4.19: Strategies used by UNZA in retaining its academic staff .....</i>	126
<i>Table 4.20: Ways in which UNZA could use to improve retention of Lecturers.....</i>	127
<i>Table 4.21: Possible ways to enhance retention of lecturers at UNZA .....</i>	128
<i>Table 4.22: Responses of participants on how UNZA retains its lecturers .....</i>	139
<i>Table 4.23: Possible ways UNZA could use to improve management of lecturers.....</i>	130
<i>Table 4.24: Opinions of administrators on coping strategies UNZA used in the absence of lecturers.....</i>	131
<i>Table 4.25: Responses from administrator participants on how UNZA could retain its staff .....</i>	132

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs.....	10
Figure 1.2: Conceptual framework .....	17
Figure 3.3: The research onion .....	65
Figure 4.4: Poor economic conditions source: (field work, 2018) .....	85
Figure 4.5: Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources.....	86
Figure 4.6: Opinions of participants on political appointments.....	89
Figure 4.7: Contacts with other universities outside Zambia.....	95
Figure 4.8: Recruitment process at UNZA .....	96
Figure 4.9: Lecturers who have left UNZA .....	100
Figure 4.10: Responses of the administrators on lecturers who have left UNZA.....	106

## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter from UNZA Ethics Committee .....	207
Appendix II: Letter from Ministry of Health .....	208
Appendix III: Consent Letter .....	209
Appendix IV: Administrators' Questionnaire .....	210
Appendix V: Lecturers Questionnaire .....	218
Appendix VI: Questions for the UNZALARU President .....	225
Appendix VII: Questions for lecturers who have been at UNZA from the 1990s to date .....	226
Appendix VIII: Questions for lecturers who once served UNZA in the 1990s and are in other institutions .....	227

## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

<b>ADMIN</b>	Administrator
<b>DVC</b>	Deputy Vice-chancellor
<b>HEIs</b>	Higher Education Institutions
<b>HOD</b>	Head of Department
<b>HR</b>	Human Resource
<b>HRM</b>	Human Resource Management
<b>IMF</b>	International Monetary Fund
<b>LECT</b>	Lecturer
<b>MoE</b>	The Ministry of Education
<b>NAPSA</b>	National Pension Scheme Authority
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
<b>SAQs</b>	Self-Administered Questionnaires
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
<b>UCRN</b>	University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland
<b>UNZA</b>	The University of Zambia
<b>UNESCO</b>	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
<b>VC</b>	Vice-chancellor

## ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate the Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia (UNZA) during the period 1990 to 2016. In order to do so, the following specific objectives were framed: (a) to identify factors that caused lecturers to leave UNZA (b) to determine consequences of lecturers' turnover at UNZA, and (c) to establish strategies that UNZA used in the retention of lecturers. Considering that motivation is critical to academic staff, the study was guided by Maslow's and Herzberg's theories of motivation. The study employed mixed research methods, involving quantitative and qualitative methods. The research philosophy was portrayed in the research onion and it showed epistemology, ontology and axiology. There were 113 respondents who were purposively sampled using probability and non-probability sampling procedures. Administrators and lecturers were sampled in order to provide quantitative data through questionnaires. Qualitative data was generated through the use of structured and semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Themes generated from the objectives were used to analyse data. Key findings of the study revealed that conditions of service at UNZA during the period 1990 to 2016 were not favourable for staff retention. Some institutional programmes were disrupted. Lecturers were demoralised. Top administrators revealed that lack of finances for a range of activities and amenities contributed to lecturers leaving the university. The study recommends that UNZA needs to improve on fundraising ventures to minimise dependence on the government for its salaries. This could reduce staff dissatisfaction caused by delays in remuneration or benefits. Staff development programmes should also be well designed in order to meet the professional needs of lecturers. Promotion procedures should be aimed at motivating lecturers to work hard and produce outcomes.

**Keywords:** *Retention, job satisfaction, turnover.*

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Overview

This chapter provides background information on Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia (UNZA) between 1990 and 2016, stating the specific problem under investigation, purpose, study objectives, and particular research questions. The chapter also presents the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for which the study was undertaken. This is followed by the significance, limitation of the study and operational definitions. It concludes with a brief layout of the chapter.

### 1.2. Background to the Study

To understand the aim for this study, it is cardinal to know the brief history of the term “employee retention.” According to Wakabi (2016:412),

*Retention began with regularity on the business scene in the 1970s and early 1980s. During the early and mid-1900s, the essence of the relationship between employer and employee had been (by and large) a statement of the status quo: ‘You come, work for me, do a good job, and, so long as economic conditions allow, I will continue to employ you.’*

In the 1950s and 1960s, employees did not change jobs frequently. employees remained with one employer for the rest of their working time. Therefore, those who changed jobs often were seen to be abnormal.

The most valuable asset available to an organisation is its people or human resource, whose retention in the organisation is essential. However, there is a paradigm shift from human resource to human capital, which consists of the knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees in an organisation which is indicative of their value (Eydi *et al.*, 2014). If employees leave their jobs, it is often a sign that something was going wrong. Eckhart *et al.* (2014) contends that poor job retention practices lead to many costs associated with

employee turnover, which includes additional burden on the remaining staff, recruitment and training costs, lost productivity, loss of clients and intellectual capital. Another more insidious cost of turnover is the sharing of a company's methods, technology, and clients with competitors who may have hired the employees. Samuel and Chipunza (2013) adds that undesirable employee turnover is costly and stressful, and drains resources and can cause inefficiency.

This notwithstanding, Watkins (2013) states that the social, economic, and political developments coupled with the processes of globalisation and developments in information and communication technologies have contributed towards the flow of highly skilled individuals from one end of the world to the other. Consequently, staff retention has become a challenging phenomenon for both public and private organisations. As the labour market has changed, open competition for other companies' staff, once a rarity in business, is nowadays an accepted fact, and strategic poaching of key employees has become common practice. According to Ariss *et al.* (2014), in the modern world of work, the psychological agreement between the employer and employee has changed basically and long-term commitment to an organisation is no longer expected by either party. Pienaar and Bester (2008); Selesho and Naile (2014) add that universities were no exception to the challenge of staff retention particularly of the core employees - the academic staff - and it was expected that these institutions would be increasingly obliged to make retention of academics their strategic priority. Indeed, the problem of academic staff retention is global and affects both developing and industrialised countries. Uy, *et al.* (2015) conducted a survey of full-time faculty members in some universities in America and it showed that more than 40 percent of them had contemplated changing careers. Yousaf (2010) carried out another study in Australian higher education institutions where 68 percent of the academic personnel indicated that they wished to

leave higher education. In South African higher education institutions, the problem of staff retention was evident, as available data indicated that a substantial number (between 5 percent and 18 percent) of academics left higher education institutions (Mapolisa, 2014).

In the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, Zambia was no exception to the phenomenon of staff retention, which was manifested more in form of brain drain. The deteriorating economic conditions in Zambia in the early 1990s made the country lose some academic staff to other institutions within the region and abroad. Some lecturers left for these institutions because their conditions of service were better than UNZA's. Gberevbie (2009); Osibanjo *et al.* (2014) observed that there was poverty in the countries of origin of employees who migrated and therefore they looked to other countries which did not have enough qualified personnel but offered attractive salaries. On the other hand, qualified staff at UNZA did moonlighting activities in order to survive. Many times, lecturers negotiated with the management to improve their salaries but they were not given due consideration, and they then resorted to strikes, work stoppage or exit to other institutions or countries. Osabiya (2015) adds that it had led to many academic staff leaving the profession or the country to take up jobs that were more motivating. Those who worked in the university experienced too much dissatisfaction and a low morale to continue working.

The Ministry of Education (2011), nevertheless, pointed out that the remunerations were relatively higher than those paid in other areas of the Zambian economy. They were low in comparison with what the academic staffs were paid elsewhere in Southern Africa. Therefore, it meant that the Zambian higher learning institutions were supposed to compete with universities in other countries in terms of incentives if they were to retain their personnel. The government needed to treasure its human resources and give them

more enticement in order to keep them in its institutions. The Government of Zambia needed to have competitive advantage over other countries in the region in order to retain lecturers in its institutions. This is in line with Torrington's (2014) thought who says that good pay reduces staff turnover and that employers who offer the most attractive reward package have lower attrition rates than those who pay poorly.

If salaries were well formulated to appreciate the work of lecturers, the staff was going to remain in the university longer. It was, therefore, imperative for the administrators to develop a good plan of paying benefits and incentives that would have raised the morale of lecturers and prolonged their stay in the university (Ministry of Education, 1992). The Ministry of Education (1996) stated that terms and conditions of service crucially affected the morale and commitment of teachers and the ministry was striving hard to have these improved. The ministry was responsible for the retention of lecturers and that was done through grants to the University for Payment of salaries and pension benefits.

Kelly (2006) observed that in the 1990s, Zambia experienced an important decline in the level of investment in the education sector because of financial problems arising from economic recession, structural adjustment programmes and worldwide economic restructuring, (Kelly, 2006). For many African countries, Zambia in particular, the pressure to keep up with external debt payments forced the government to reduce funding to the university. Lungu (2006), Nyirenda and Shikwe (2015) state that a wage freeze was introduced by the government on all its workers and institutions that benefitted from government grants. Hence, moves to cut wages had concerns on the public purse (IMF, 2014). Social, health and education expenditures were reduced, affecting mostly working people. Inadequate funding led to demoralisation of lecturers. The wage freeze contributed to turnover because institutions could not sustain their employees as they

failed to attract and retain them sufficiently. This assertion was supported by the Vice-Chancellor (2005), who in his speech in 2003 pointed out that,

*Those critical constraints on the funding of the university threatened to undermine the progress made in 2003 with enhancement of staff salaries and slowed down the rate of liquidation of the institution's debt accumulated over the preceding decade.*

The working-class bore almost all costs of these International Monetary Fund (IMF) reforms (Phiri and Kabubi, 2017). The policies of the IMF contributed to the brain drain in the country.

The education system in Zambia went through some changes which had roots in the pre-colonial era. The possibility of setting up a university in Lusaka was considered by the Carr Saunders Commission as early as 1952, but the idea was abandoned because of pressure from Southern Rhodesia. This was due to the dissatisfaction with the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (UCRN, Salisbury). According to Mwanakatwe (2013), at Tananarive Conference which was sponsored by UNESCO in 1962, delegates from Northern Rhodesia solicited for support for the building of a university in Lusaka. From this time, the Northern Rhodesia Government in March 1963 decided to investigate the possibility of establishing its own university. Mwanakatwe (2013:172) pointed out:

*Early in March 1963, the new Government appointed a high-powered commission, led by the late Sir John Lockwood, a former Vice-Chancellor of London University which investigated the feasibility of a university for Northern Rhodesia. The report was submitted to the Government at the end of 1963.*

The document was accepted in January 1964 by the new nationalist government. By then the country had no university. Those who had university education got it from outside the country. Masaiti (2018) confirmed that at independence, Zambia had only 138 university graduates who were all educated outside the country, especially at Makerere University

in Uganda. In 1966, Ridgeway Campus was established and later 1968, the Great East Road Campus. The Ministry of Education (MoE, 1977:2):

*Urged the Government to pay special attention to schools because education plays an important role in human capital formation, particularly in developing the types of knowledge, skills, values and competencies necessary for economic development and social welfare.*

The Ministry of Education was aware of the importance of education and the role it played. The mission statement of the MoE (1996) was to provide education for all Zambians so that they would be able to produce knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness. Besides this, the MoE saw places of learning as strong agents of social change in the communities. In 1996, the Zambian Government re-emphasised the significance and roles schools were to play in the lives of individuals, especially the learners and society as a whole. According to the policy document, *Educating Our Future* (1996), the all-embracing task of formal, informal and non-formal education were to encourage the full and accomplished development of physical and intellectual qualities of individuals and communities. Therefore, the emphasis was that learners were to be fully educated so that they could co-exist with others in society without major problems or conflicts. If conflicts arose, they could resolve them peacefully.

UNZA is the leading national university; and it is located in Lusaka and has currently twelve (12) schools, which offer undergraduate and postgraduate degrees in various fields. The university reformed its School of Medicine to increase competency and create more training space for health professionals. The Vice-chancellor (2016), in his speech pointed out,

*In July 2016, UNZA divided the School of Medicine into four stand-alone schools to operate on pilot mode until December 2016*

*when they would be run as independent schools each managed by a Dean.*

The schools that were established were: School of Medicine, School of Nursing, School of Health Sciences and School of Public Health. The establishment of new schools brought the number of UNZA schools to 12. According to Masaiti (2018), UNZA had a student populace of more than 24,676.

The State is in charge of all the public universities; and making decisions for the dispensation of money in the university is the responsibility of the central administration. Additionally, a grant from the State was not big enough to sustain lecturers at UNZA. This expansion of UNZA made the administration fail to give attractive salaries to its employees. Owing to frustrations over pay and other factors, some of the academic staff left UNZA for other well-paying institutions. The Ministry of Education (2011) reported that in the period 1984 to 1994, UNZA lost over 230 of its lecturers. More than half, 161, were PhD holders with a considerable degree of seniority. This mass exodus was frightening and a big loss to the country.

The remaining lecturers, who attended to large student numbers, were overworked and became frustrated. The primary responsibility of a university is teaching, doing research and providing community service but the University of Zambia was made only to concentrate on teaching because of shortage of staff. The MoE (1996) documented that staff losses and shortages made the academic staff to pay attention to meeting the immediate needs of the student body. It is against this background that this study sought to investigate the Retention of Lecturers at UNZA from 1990 to 2016.

### **1.3. Statement of the Problem**

Academic staff retention had been a thorny, pertinent issue at UNZA. The Bobby Bwalya Commission appointed in 1997 to investigate the operations of the university warned that: “Without significant attention being paid to the retention, motivation and commitment of critical staff in the university, quality in the core functions of the university would be in jeopardy” (IOTA Consultancy Services 2001: 5).

The university lost lecturers with higher qualifications to alternative employers within and outside the country, especially between 1990 and 2016. This caused much discomfort to the members who endured at UNZA. A substantial number of known studies focused on establishing and explaining why some lecturers left UNZA, and what made others to continue working up to 2016 but they were not very detailed like the current study. There have been no known detailed studies undertaken in finding out why some academic staff members chose to stay and continue working for UNZA under unfavourable conditions of service.

### **1.4. Purpose of the Study**

The study sought to investigate the retention of lecturers at UNZA during the period 1990 to 2016.

### **1.5. Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study were:

- i) To identify factors that caused lecturers to leave UNZA for alternative employment.
- ii) To determine the consequences of lecturers’ turnover at UNZA.
- iii) To establish strategies that UNZA used in the retention of lecturers.

## **1.6. Research Questions**

The research questions were:

- i) What factors caused lecturers to leave UNZA for alternative employment?
- ii) What were the consequences of lecturers' turnover at UNZA?
- iii) What strategies did UNZA use in the retention of lecturers?

## **1.7. Significance of the Study**

The findings of this study are important to the main stakeholder, the Ministry of Higher Education, which is responsible for education provision in the country. The findings of this study might also be used to improve policies on retention of lecturers at UNZA and other public universities. This could improve the country's human capital; and might, in turn have a positive impact on education standards.

It is also hoped that this study will help managements to formulate professional structures that would improve lecturers' morale and working conditions. Improved conditions of service for lecturers may have significant impact on their commitment to work. The findings of this study may provide the Ministry of Higher Education and other stakeholders with more information on the issues that motivate lecturers in their work environment. This might certainly contribute to the body of knowledge on worker retention.

## **1.8. Theoretical Framework**

This presents a detailed outline of the theoretical elements that guided this research. The study was based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory and Herzberg's theory. Scholars like Maslow and Herzberg have shed some light on why employees quit their jobs and why they retain them (Robyn and du Preez, 2013; Theron *et al.*, 2014).

### 1.8.1. Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow is credited with the motivation theory of hierarchy of needs. He argued that individuals were motivated to satisfy a number of needs, some of which were more pressing than others. This became the foundation of the content theories of motivation. Maslow's theory of 1954 postulates that until the more pressing needs are satisfied, other needs are of little effect or importance to an individual.. According to Maslow, individuals satisfy the most pressing needs first and then progress to the less pressing ones. According to Maslow, as one need is satisfied, and therefore becomes less important, other needs loom up and become motivators of man's behaviour. He presented this pre-potency of needs as a hierarchy. The most pre-potent needs were shown at the bottom of the ladder with pre-potency decreasing as one progressed upwards. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is shown in Figure 1.1.

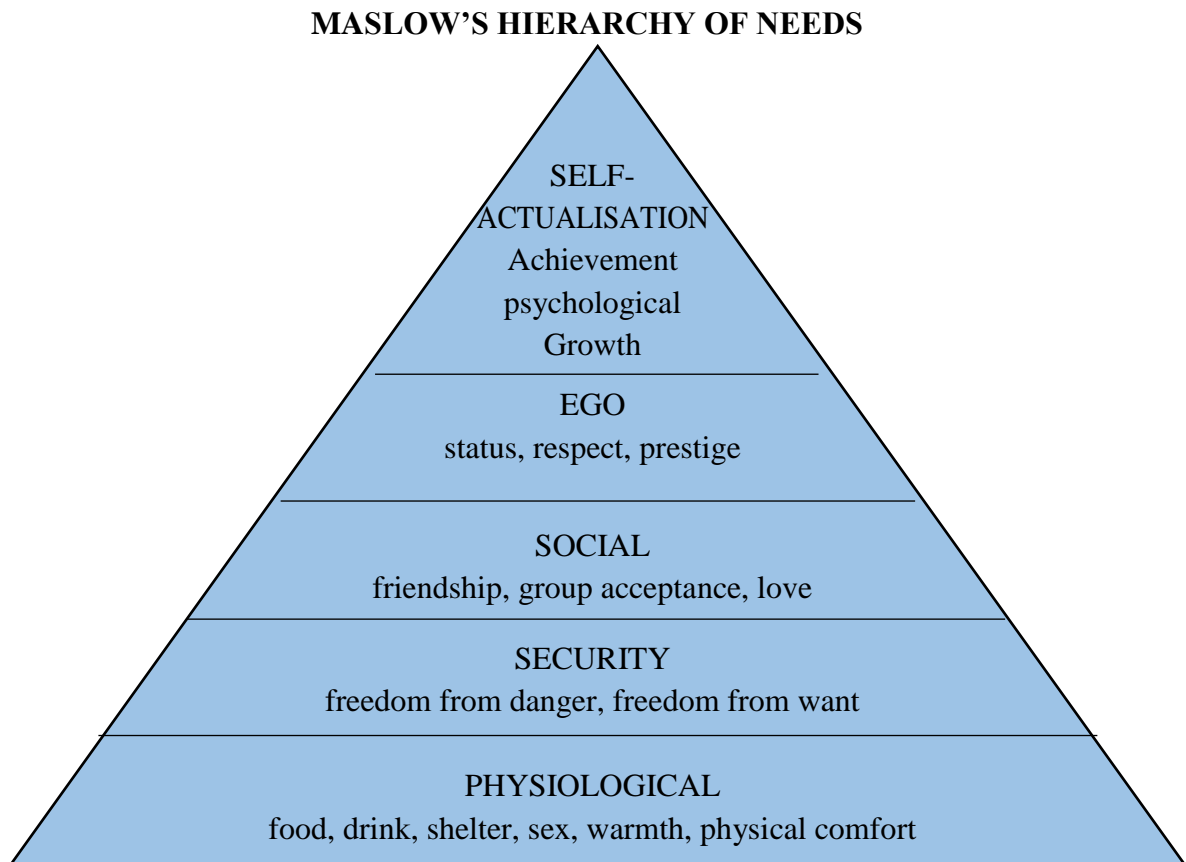


Figure 1.1. Motivation and Personality (Source: Maslow, 1970)

The first needs that one must satisfy are the physiological needs. Maslow observed that physiological needs are the most basic of all needs. They are also called survival needs. What this means is that if the human being is missing everything in life in an extreme fashion, it is most likely that the major motivation would be the physiological needs rather than any other. Cole and Kelly (2015) postulate that a person who lacks food, security, love and esteem would probably hunger for food more strongly than anything else. A person cannot go to the other levels without first attending to basic needs.

Once the first level needs are satisfied, the next level of requirements emerges. Individuals become concerned with the need for safety and security. This relates to the need for shelter, clothing, and protection from all potentially dangerous or uncomfortable things like weather, vehicles, fire, and flood. To this needs scenario, Dessler (2017) adds that psychological safety factors such as pension, health insurance and unemployment are important and would make one feel secured or safe in life.

After the above needs have been satisfied, the individual becomes concerned with belonging or social needs. This consists of a sense of membership to a group. A person feels keen to socialise with friends, family or members of the department. There is a hunger for friendly relationships with people one is working with or one seeks for a place in the group (Cole and Kelly, 2015).

When there is a feeling that the individual belongs somewhere, then the next thing that happens is motivation by a desire to be held in high esteem. Robbins and Coulter (2018) adds that people want to be promoted, want to be in power, certain reputable position, recognised and to be seen important at the place of work. People need to be thought of as valuable by others, to be recognised as people with some value. They also have a strong need to see themselves as worthwhile people. Without this type of self-concept, one sees

oneself as drifting, cut off, pointless. Much of dissatisfaction with certain types of jobs centres on the fact that they seem undignified and therefore harmful to their self-concept. When all of these needs have been satisfied to some extent, people are motivated by a desire for self-actualisation.

The need for self-actualisation refers to the desire for self-fulfilment of their full human potential. This trend might be paraphrased as the desire to become more and more what one is capable of becoming. Explained in other words, to one person it may mean helping others while to another it may involve achievement in an artistic or creative field (Van *et al.*, 2016).

People spend all their time and energy on the things they most love to do in life. The physiological, security and social needs are partially met by a person's situation under rational and bureaucratic models of administration. These needs can also be met by socialisation and family life outside of work. However, the self-actualisation needs are neglected by rationalists and bureaucrats. The loss of meaning in work was not attributed to neglect of a person's social needs as much as a person's inability to use their talent entirely. Intrinsic factors which are related to work are internal and they bring about job satisfaction. These relate to achievement, recognition, work itself and responsibility and advancement. Factors that were associated with the environment at the work place were company policy, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions.

Hollensbe *et al.* (2014) concluded that lower order needs were not to be deprived of but man's capacity for growth and challenge received the greatest attention by human resource theorists.

These needs would vary from one person to another. In one individual, it may be expressed as a desire to become an ideal teacher, athlete, and mother, among others. Maslow's model of motivation does not mean that individuals experience one type of need at a time. In fact, man probably experiences all levels of needs all the time, only at varying degrees. For instance, hunger in many parts of the world, especially Africa, is a genuine reality but all have experienced the phenomenon of not being able to concentrate on a job because of a rumbling stomach. After eating, food is not uppermost in people's minds but perhaps rest is. Maslow's five needs are not uniformly motivating. People have different kinds of needs at a given time and they need to be motivated differently.

### **1.8.2. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory**

Herzberg's two-factor theory modified Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Eren, 2003; Kocel, 2014). The model explains what satisfies or dissatisfies employees and hence, serves as an important framework for employee retention. According to this theory, some job factors result in satisfaction while others prevent dissatisfaction.

#### **1.8.2.1. Hygiene Factors**

Hygiene factors are those job factors that are essential for the existence of motivation at a workplace. These do not lead to positive satisfaction for long-term. But if these factors are absent or non-existent at the workplace, their unavailability leads to dissatisfaction in employees. In other words, hygiene factors are those factors that when adequate in a job, pacify the employees and do not make them dissatisfied (Herzberg, 1959; Dobrre, 2013; Robbins and Coulter, 2018). These factors are extrinsic to work. Hygiene factors are also called maintenance factors, as they are required to avoid dissatisfaction. These factors describe the job environment scenario. The hygiene factors symbolise the physiological needs which the individuals want and expect to be fulfilled.

Pay is the first and foremost hygiene factor in the developing world. Pay structure should be appropriate and reasonable. It must be equal and competitive to those in the same institution in the same domain. Pension and fringe benefits should be paid on time to the employees. The institutional policies should not be too rigid. They should be fair and clear (Torrington *et al.*, 2014). They should include flexible working hours, dress code, breaks, vacation and so on. The employees should be offered such things as health care plans, benefits for the family members and employee help programmes. The physical working conditions should be safe, clean and hygienic. The work equipment should be updated and well maintained. The employees' status within the organisation should be familiar and retained. The relationship of the employee with his/her peers, superiors and subordinates should be appropriate and acceptable. There should be no conflict or humiliation element present. The organisation must provide job security to the employees.

Chiboiwa *et al.* (2010) adds that retention, therefore, helps an organisation to stop experienced employees from leaving as this could have unfavourable effects on productivity and service delivery. Hiring knowledgeable people for a job is essential for an employer, but retention is even more important. The objective of retention policies is to identify and retain committed workers for as long as is mutually profitable to the organisation and the employee. Experienced lecturers are important in a university because they orient new lecturers to the working culture of the university and they act as consultants to the community, hence contribute to national development.

Employee retention is recognised as an important subject of inquiry by researchers. Botha (2013) states that retention is a deliberate move by an institution to create an environment which employs the academic staff for a long term. An organisation that has good policies will attract and motivate employees to stay longer.

George (2015) emphasised that retaining a strong team of committed and inspired employees is necessary to uphold organisational planned advantage. Hence, organisations must design appropriate strategies to retain quality employees. Lussier and Adams (2016) adds that Herzberg and his associates found that things such as organisation rule, administration and supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, remuneration, rank, job security and personal life were found to be dis-satisfiers and not motivators. These are called content factors and they are used to identify and understand employees' needs. In Zambia, these content factors are important in retaining employees. Salaries at one time made lecturers leave for countries or institutions which had more attractive working conditions. Without getting attractive salaries to meet basic needs, lecturers would be demoralised and this may cause them to leave their positions for other jobs outside the institutions.

#### **1.8.2.2. Motivation Factors**

According to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), the hygiene factors cannot be regarded as motivators. The motivational factors yield positive satisfaction. These factors are inherent in work. They motivate the employees for a superior performance and are called satisfiers. The significance of intrinsic factors such as better working conditions and growth opportunities is that they contribute positively to one's job satisfaction and prolonged tenure. These are factors involved in performing the job. Employees find these factors intrinsically rewarding. The motivators relate to psychological needs that are perceived as an additional benefit. Motivational factors include recognition, that is, the employees should be praised and recognised for their accomplishments by the managers. In addition to that, the employees must have a sense of achievement. This depends on the job. There must be a fruit of some sort in the job. There must be growth and advancement opportunities in an organisation to motivate the employees to perform well. The

employees must hold themselves responsible for the work. The managers should give them a sense of ownership of the work. They should minimise control but retain accountability. The work itself should be meaningful, exciting and challenging for the employee to perform and to get motivated. Chodhury (2017) further states that understanding the different dimensions of a job may increase satisfaction or, at least, reduce dissatisfaction and this would be the very first step towards designing a strategy for retention of quality staff. On the other hand, Robyn (2012) and Theron *et al.* (2014) question the significance of the motivation theories to the academic setting but they however, assert that factors such as research funding opportunities could be considered as some of the motivational factors for academics.

Borges (2013) used Herzberg's two-factor theory for comparing job satisfaction amongst employees of public and private sectors. John and Zerihun (2014) linked extrinsic rewards, for instance, pay and profile-raising opportunities, to changes in job satisfaction. Those in the private sectors were more satisfied than those who were in the public sector. The academic staff of the private sector received more remuneration than those who were in the public sector. The academic staff of UNZA needed attractive salaries like those that were given in the private sector at that time in order to be retained. The motivators are good for employees in the developed world but the hygiene factors are what the developing world need most because employees have some needs to attend to. Based on the above argument, this study proposed that retention of academic staff at UNZA should be influenced by the terms of service vis-à-vis the type of employment contract, remuneration, motivation, satisfaction of needs and job security. The terms of service determine the nature of the work environment, which affects the degree of retention of the lecturers. With this theory in mind, the researcher wanted to establish the extent to which the terms of service for lecturers at the university affected their retention.

## 1.9. Conceptual Framework

Attention to retention, a concept, in any organisation is critical for sustained achievement of good results. When the academic members of staff stay longer in an institution, they get experienced in their subject areas, produce good results and contribute actively to the goals of the university. For lecturers to stay longer in an organisation, there should be a good institutional and administrative culture, attractive remuneration and incentives that create a good environment. These are displayed in a conceptual framework (Figure 1.2).

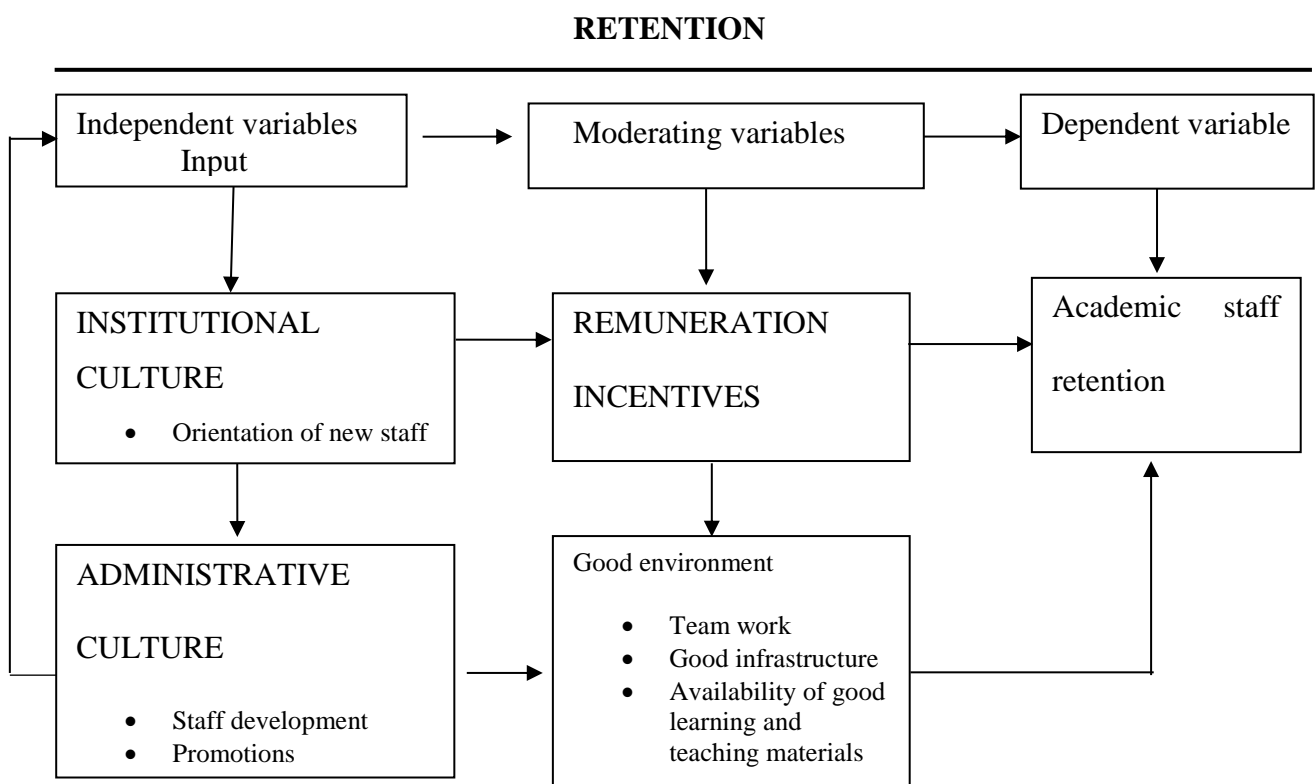


Figure 1.2. Conceptual Framework: (Source: Fieldwork, 2018)

At UNZA, a number of lecturers joined the academic staff through a staff development fellowship policy; some through advertisements that led to interviews and selection, and others through identification of their work from their schools or companies. That process was essential, as people needed to be oriented to the culture of UNZA. The university, as an institution, has a culture. This is defined by Campbell and Hourigan (2008) as the deeply embedded patterns of organisational behaviour and the shared values,

assumptions, beliefs or ideologies that members develop about their organisation or work ethic. Ravasi and Schultz (2006) and Wahlow *et al.* (2015) defined an institutional culture as a set of shared assumptions that guide what happens in organisations by defining appropriate behaviour for various situations. The process selects the best culture that suits the organisation's objectives and that can be accepted by a wider community. It is a pattern of such collective behaviours and assumptions that are taught to new lecturers when they join the university. Organisational culture is essential for obtaining organisational success because it promotes commitment among the academic staff. It is a guide of collective behaviours and ideas that are taught to new members in the way they see, feel, and think about things. Such institutional culture affects the way people and groups interact with each other, with clients and with stakeholders. The interactive organisational cultural traits have an effect on how much employees identify themselves with their organisation.

There are unique cultures that are found in different organisations such as primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. For instance, a university has cultural characteristics depending on the type of university one is working for; and can be changed depending on the management of the day. The cultural experience can be internal or external within the institution. Lecturers have ways of performing their duties. They also benefit from the studies, relationships with their colleagues, supervisors and management where they learn a lot concerning their work through workshops and seminars. This is a culture that promotes efficient job performance. Externally, the staff works with the community as consultants. They also attend many social functions outside of work. These social times help them to relax or mingle with their workmates. When external and internal cultures infuse, they promote a happy environment to work in and consequently retention takes place.

Schein (2010) puts forward four co-existing cultures: organisation, collegial, developmental and negotiating cultures. Every organisation culture has customs, rituals and values, which are shared by its members that have to be accepted by new members of the faculty. Collegial culture emphasises discipline among the academic staff and their values towards their work in the university and the shared management. There is also developmental culture, which looks at the personal and professional growth of all members of the institution. Negotiating culture norms, in the establishment of equitable and egalitarian policies and procedures, are responsible for evaluating confrontations, interest groups, mediation and power.

The elements of institutional culture help some members of the academic staff to stabilise and feel they are part of the university. The lecturers become disciplined in the way they relate to students and their peers. Members of staff try to upgrade their qualifications through research, workshops and studies so that they become effective in their duties.

Eventually, an institutional culture develops slowly and what employees feel and think and believe is reflected in the manner in which work is done. Their habits change when management is constantly reminding them of the need to produce good results. Katzenbachek *et al.* (2016) add that if you cannot simply replace the entire machine, the best solution is to work on aligning some of the most useful cogs. The culture of an institution is a system that shows how things are done at a particular time. It is how things are done in a university that is referred to as culture. The work culture of academic staff is reflected in the corporative commitment in their lectures, research and community service.

The mediating variable controls the institutions by making the academic staff happy after working hard. Remuneration is what one gets after performing one's work. These are

monthly salaries for academic staff. They need to be paid satisfactorily and on time if production is to be seen. Salaries for lecturers should be competitive in the region if lecturers are to remain longer at the university. The academic staff needs to be motivated by giving them incentives. Pension and other fringe benefits need to be paid on time in order for the staff members to be motivated.

The idea of financial incentives was born from the Scientific Management Theory of Frederick Taylor between 1890 and 1930. This theory has influenced the British management system with many incentive schemes still embracing principles of the scientific methodology and philosophy. Incentives are given to members of academic staff for their inputs in an institution. They cushion their pay through incentives. They motivate academic staff members to stay and continue working hard. There could, also, be monetary or material incentives such as loans, housing schemes, health insurance schemes, education, excess teaching load allowances, term system, and co-ordination allowance, among others. Torrington *et al.* (2014) affirms that incentives bring about hard work and performance with which the organisation wishes to motivate enhanced achievement and productivity. At UNZA, remunerations were not paid on time and they were not competitive in the region. Remuneration and incentives still needed to be paid promptly in order to motivate and retain the academic members of staff.

The second independent variable in the conceptual framework is managerial culture. This variable leads to managements accomplishing goals of the institution. It is about how management runs the institution. The culture of administration can lead to job satisfaction and employee retention. UNZA has the central administration where the vice-chancellor, the registrar, and human resource officers operate. The university council makes policies for the running of the institution. They retain lecturers through improving their conditions of service. Terms of service should be realistic and not deceptive. Unrealistic

expectations develop within employees resulting in unfulfilled dreams, low job satisfaction and low job retention. When employees are not satisfied with their terms of service, they become less committed and eventually leave their jobs. Lecturers are fully represented by the chairperson of the union who sits and presents their concerns on the UNZA Council. This body tries to resolve issues of the institution and especially motivating the academic staff. It is the board that makes policies for the university. In the schools, deans supervise lecturers and see to it that lecturing, publishing and community service go on smoothly. They are the immediate supervisors of the academic staff and they are assisted by heads of department. The deans and heads of department are part of management. They promote retention by making sure lecturers work in a healthy environment and that their rewards are efficiently given. If there are problems in schools, they discuss with the lecturers concerned or committees involved and solve these problems. The administration ensures that finances are set aside for lecturers' seminars and workshops to help them deliver effectively. They also send some lecturers for further studies so that they deliver competitively. The administration guarantees that staff members are appraised and promoted. These factors will come forth when there are moderating variables such as a good working environment, teamwork, availability of infrastructure, and teaching and learning materials in an organisation that will in the end bring forth dependable variables which in this case is retention.

#### **1.10. Limitations of the Study**

The respondents were largely male; very few females participated. The findings of the study could have mainly reflected the work attitude of men and how this brings about retention in the organisation.

The use of interviews to get primary information from some respondents who may have worked at UNZA from 1990 to 2016 was preferred. This may have proved difficult because part of the target population could have left Zambia or retired. It was neither easy nor cheap to make contacts through email or phone calls to some of those who have moved to other places. The study was focused on the retention of lecturers at UNZA. The findings of the study may not be generalised to all lecturers in state run higher institutions of learning in Zambia. The results of this study may only be a representation of the sampled group.

Salaries and allowances of the respondents could not be disclosed for this study. It could have been unethical to show them against the wishes of the respondents. The researcher therefore decided to keep them confidential. Disparity between the two different methods which were used in this study could have resulted in the unsatisfactory evidence within the study, which could have been a disadvantage when interpreting the results. There were methodological limitations such as the merging of both qualitative and quantitative data. This was found to have been time consuming

### **1.11. Operational Definitions of Terms**

The terms that have been used in the study are defined below in order to understand and clarify certain concepts used. In this study, the key concepts comprised the following:

**Administrator:** one who administers, especially one who works as a manager in a university or school.

**Dean:** the person with significant authority over a specific academic unit. The term is much more commonly used in higher education. Although the usage differs from one institution to another, a dean is usually the head of a significant collection of departments

with responsibilities for approving faculty hiring, setting academic policies, overseeing the budget, fundraising, and other administrative duties.

**Faculty:** a partition or component within a university comprising one subject area, or a number of related subject areas.

**Department:** a division of a university or school faculty devoted to a particular academic discipline. It is a division of a larger institution into parts with specific responsibilities to perform.

**Employee retention:** the ability of an organisation to retain its employees. Employee retention can be represented by a simple statistic. However, many consider employee retention as relating to the efforts by which employers attempt to retain employees in their workforce. In this sense, retention becomes the strategies rather than the outcome.

**Brain Drain:** a situation in which many educated or professional people leave a particular place or profession and move to another one that gives them better pay or living conditions.

**Human Resource (HR):** is the set of professional individuals who make up the workforce of an organisation.

**Independent variable:** is a stimulus that provokes the dependent variable to react.

**Lecturer:** a person who teaches guides or oversees research groups in a university.

**Senior Lecturer:** academics without tenure who teach full or part-time but have few or no research responsibilities within the institution where they teach. Senior Lecturers have substantial experience and accomplishments in their field and may possess a doctoral degree.

**Paid deferred retirement:** This is a situation where the academic staff members are allowed to retire at UNZA while getting a salary from the same university. This is because the university does not pay their terminal benefits on time.

**Turnover:** the act of replacing an employee with a new employee. Partings between organisations and employees may consist of termination, retirement, death, interagency transfers, and resignations.

### **1.12. Outline of the Thesis**

The thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter one presents the introduction and background information to the study. It also includes the statement of the problem, purpose and objectives of the study, research questions and significance of the study were established. While Chapter two presents the review of relevant literature to the study, Chapter three presents an in-depth look at the research methodology used in the study. The research design and the philosophical orientations of research are described. The study population, sample and sampling technique and specific data collection tools that were used have also been described. The chapter concludes with information on data analysis and the ethical considerations. Chapter four presents findings of the study, and the data is presented in both quantitative and qualitative forms. Chapter five presents the discussions of the study findings. This was done in relation to the objectives of the study. Chapter six contains the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The conclusion consists of responses from the results of this study and the recommendations based on the major findings of the study, as well as future research implications.

### **1.13. Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the background to retention was discussed. The statement, purpose, research objectives and questions as well as significance of the study have been outlined:

UNZA lost some lecturers to alternative employers due to poor conditions of service while others remained serving the institution faithfully. Retention of lecturers should be paid attention to so that there is continuity of work in the university.

The theoretical framework employing Maslow and Herzberg's theories are discussed in relation to retention. Maslow's theory emphasises the basic needs that an employee needs to get in order to be satisfied. He states that as long as an employee does not achieve one need of a particular level, he cannot move to the next level. On the other hand, Herzberg's theory highlights the Hygiene and Motivator factors that employees get as they carry out their duties. In the developed world, the employees would prefer to get motivators rather than hygiene factors which people in the developing world anticipate to have. The conceptual framework of the study discusses how independent variables of institutional and administrative culture contribute to retention of lecturers in the university. The moderating variables of remuneration, incentives and good working environment add to satisfaction of the academic staff. This later leads to the lecturers' intention to stay in the organisation, which is taken as a dependant variable.

Having outlined the summary of chapter one, the next chapter analyses the literature that supports this study.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. Overview**

The previous chapter presented the introduction and background information to the study. It presented the statement, purpose, objectives, and conceptual and theoretical frameworks of the study. In order to have a clear understanding of the present study, Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia between 1990 and 2016, reviewing literature of similar work is cardinal. Literature review was done in line with the research objectives. Therefore, the review of empirical studies was also organised according to the research objectives that guided the research topic under study.

This chapter, therefore, presents a review of literature related to the stated objectives and answers the research questions together with literature related to the variables and objectives of the study. The review covers the research on employment practices as they relate to employee retention, turnover, job satisfaction, motivation and commitment.

### **2.2. Factors Contributing to People Leaving the Work Place**

#### **2.2.1. Lack of Job Satisfaction**

Ongori (2008), and Khan and Ahmed (2013) described job satisfaction as the positive attitude and emotion towards one's job and work environment. It revealed their value judgment about their expectations and perceptions of the effort they put in and the outcomes that they receive. One of the reasons that caused a high employee turnover was attributed to the low job satisfaction offered by an organisation. Job satisfaction included the payroll and financial rewards, work environment, co-workers, supervision, scope of work, amount of work, career future, company identity, and physical working conditions (Dessler, 2017). In order to ensure an employee's satisfaction, an organisation needed to reward fairly for the work done by making sure rewards were for genuine contribution to

the organisation and consistent with reward policies. The reward also includes a variety of benefits other than monetary gains. However, many organisations fail to realise that policy.

Furthermore, Zhang (2016) affirmed that unsatisfactory performance appraisal is one of the reasons for employees leaving a company. A lack of appreciation, teamwork and the perception that business owners don't care about their employees are consistently the highest-rated reasons for low job satisfaction. Many employees chose to leave because they believed their work was not appreciated by the organisation. When employees are committed to their organisations, they accept the corporate goals and values, and will put in extra effort to achieve organisational effectiveness. Nonetheless, many also leave their jobs because they do not believe their institutions valued their contribution.

### **2.2.2. Dissatisfaction with institutional policies**

There were various factors that cause people to leave their place of work for greener pastures. Bharat (2018) identified age, gender, marriage, education levels and years of working in an organisation as some of the factors that made people to leave their places of work. In a study of Nigerian higher education institutions, Herminia (2014) found that the second most influential factor of voluntary turnover was the opportunity for promotion. It is not merely the lack of promotions itself which was seen as problematic by academics, but also the criteria on which it was based. Nolan (2015) noted that other than the inconsistent promotion criteria, another challenge in public universities that made members of staff to leave was how to delink promotion from establishments and the availability of funds given by the exchequer that ends up denying deserving persons their rightful mobility. This argument clearly agreed with Terera and Ngirande (2014) who argued that there was a relationship between promotion and promotional

opportunities. Hence, when these incentives are lacking among employees, they feel frustrated and leave the institution.

Many experts have tried to answer the question as to what determines people's intention to quit by investigating the possible causes. According to McGinnis and Ng (2016), employees possibly exit an organisation due to economic reasons. This has been well justified in the economic model to predict labour turnover in the market. Some socio-economic factors such as economic development level, condition of labour market, employment structure, job opportunities, property enterprise, transport and communication, accommodation, education and medical facilities, cost of living, quality of life and many others impact employee turnover. Additionally, Namasaka *et al.* (2013) posited that high turnover was caused by unhappiness with the work, inadequate compensation, unsafe and unhealthy conditions, unrealistic expectations, inappropriate processes or tools and poor candidate screening. Other causes were lack of career opportunities and challenges, dissatisfaction with the job scope or conflict with management. Therefore, there were several reasons why people quit one organisation to join another or why they simply leave an organisation.

### **2.2.3. Lack of Motivation**

Motivation is a critical part of employee engagement without which it is very difficult to remain engaged to a job. Badubi (2017) states that the motivation theory explains what an organisation could do in order to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities in ways that would further the achievement of the organisation's goals. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory suggests that motivation was created in a hierarchical order so that the basic needs have to be satisfied first before the next level of motivation can be reached. These levels include physiological needs, safety needs, social needs or belongingness,

esteem, and self-actualisation. According to Griffin and Moorhead (2011), the three needs from the bottom -physiological needs, security and belongingness - are called deficiency needs since they needed to be fulfilled for the person to be fundamentally comfortable. The two needs on the top which are self-actualisation and self-esteem are called growth needs because they focus on personal growth and development. Therefore, if the needs of employees are not satisfied in any organisation, there is a higher possibility that these people are likely to quit their jobs and look for new opportunities elsewhere. According to Cole and Kelly (2015), variety of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators influence staff members while they are considering a future job. It might be suggested that motivational factors such as salary, prospects of promotion and opportunities for professional development and so on would influence their thinking. These factors are also influenced by individual characteristics; the individual's perceptions of their own organisation and possible alternative job opportunities. Furthermore, environmental contributors to turnover can be directly traced to management practices. Turnover tends to be higher in environments where employees feel they are taken advantage of, where they feel undervalued or ignored, and where they feel helpless or unimportant. Clearly, if managers are personal, arbitrary, and demanding, there is greater risk of alienation and turnover. Management policies could also affect the environment in ways such as whether employee benefits and incentives appear generous or stingy, or whether the company is responsive to employees' needs and wants. Management's handling of major corporate events such as mergers or layoffs also has an influence on the work environment afterwards.

Experts have opined that the overall corporate culture of an organisation affects employee turnover. However, the most important issue here is the trust in and respect for the management team. If organisations appreciated employees, treated them with respect and

provided compensation, benefits and perks that demonstrate respect and caring, they would stay in the organisation. In other words, employees appreciate a work place in which communication is transparent, management is accessible, executives are approachable and respected and direction is clear and understood (Mandhanya, 2015). In addition, a lack of recognition is one of the significant factors that may contribute to employees leaving the organisation. Consequently, organisations must provide a lot of genuine appreciation and recognition as icing on the cake for employee retention. Otherwise, there is a probability for employees to leave.

A certain amount of labour turnover such as through illness, accidents, aging, death and a variety of personal reasons is inevitable. Too much of labour turnover, however, could severely reduce productivity, as workers become perpetual learners, as they are new to the organisation all the time. Demoralised incumbents, on the other hand damage an organisation's public image thereby adversely affecting its corporate existence. It implies, therefore, that management should be concerned about the level of labour turnover in their organisation, determine the degree of it that was healthy or unhealthy for it. High labour turnover is dangerous as it affects the growth and productivity of an establishment. Scholars believe that a core of experienced workers is necessary for the success of an organisation. Hall (2014) postulates that given the poor state of the Nigerian universities, low morale, poor attitude to work, brain drain, dampened linkage, coupled with the implications of good university education for the country's future growth and development, there is need for a study to examine how university teachers could be motivated in order to prevent high labour turnover in the universities. He holds that high labour turnover is a dangerous instability that threatens the realisation of the objectives of research and development, innovation for efficiency, survival, high performance, good will and credibility of an organisation, universities inclusive.

According to Hong *et al.* (2012), there is currently no conventional model to understand the route of turnover as a whole. A variety of factoring was applied to evaluate the causes of employee turnover. It contained personal factoring, job content factors, working environment and conditions and external factoring. Therefore, avoidable turnover has been described as the one an organisation could prevent through recruiting, assessing and motivating employees more efficiently and effectively. Therefore, any business organisation requires verifying whether voluntary turnover has been dealt with properly. Lewin (2017) asserted that this is because the phenomenon of turnover is psychosomatic, managerial and expensive. Unavoidable turnover in the organisation results from life decisions that are beyond an employer's control such as a decision to move to a new area or a job transfer for a spouse. However, almost 80 percent of turnover is due to recruiting mistakes, which could be avoided. Organisations need to take certain measures while selecting and evaluating potential employees. These arguments boarder well with Price and Muller (2015) who affirmed that the main causes of high labour turnover in an organisation were poor personal policies, poor recruitment policies, poor supervisory practices, poor grievance procedures or lack of motivation.

#### **2.2.4. Remittance**

The lecturers in the Diaspora have sometimes remitted money back home. Shinn (2008) stated that the Diaspora were a significant source of financial remittance back to their home countries. Kenya was another good example of an African country that gained from huge foreign transfer of funds to the country by immigrants who were resident outside the country. In Somalia, the transmittal has helped the government to finance terrorism, civil wars and liberation struggles in collapsed or failed states. People who worked outside the country also sent money back home either to their nuclear or extended families.

According to Han *et al.* (2016), salary scale was also known for the most common cause of high employee turnover rate. Employees were in search of jobs, which pay well. The prospect of getting higher pay elsewhere was one of the most obvious contributors to turnover. This practice could be regularly observed at all levels of the economic ladder, from executives and generously paid professionals in high-stress positions to entry-level workers in relatively undemanding jobs. Employees always flocked to companies that offered more benefits.

Society relies on universities to conserve, create and disseminate knowledge in realisation of sustainable development. Kavenuke (2013) observes that family reasons such as maternity and marriage contributes highly to attrition. In addition, highly skilled lecturers are more likely to quit than their less skilled colleagues. In other words, the more specialised knowledge and experience employees have, the greater the probability of them moving or changing jobs. In addition to the factors listed above, there are also factors specific to individuals that could influence turnover rates.

Elaine (2018) added that males may leave their current jobs for a more attractive job if their expectations are not met. They were the breadwinners of their families and they have greater achievement orientation than females.

Mkulu (2018) carried out a study on academic staff retention in private universities in Southern highland zone of Tanzania, as a strategy of attaining sustainable development. The findings of the study revealed that academic staff-employer relationship has undergone fundamental changes. He found that lecturer attrition rates vary widely between developed and developing countries including Tanzania. Statistics from the International Task Force report on Teachers for All (2010) demonstrated that in New Zealand, academic staff attrition in private universities alone rose to 10.4 percent per year,

9 percent in England and 13.6 percent in USA. This was similar to a report from the annual education statistics in Bhutan, Perden (2013), which showed that from 2008 to 2013 alone, 750 lecturers voluntarily resigned, 207 after contract's expiration. The findings indicated that lecturers left the teaching profession due to low pay. In African countries, the turnover was 15 percent per year in Malawi, and 14 percent in Zambia. In South Africa, lecturers quit due to the leadership style and low remuneration (Muteswa, 2012). In Kenya, out of one million Kenyans who moved to developed countries, about 40 percent were lecturers from private universities as explained by (Owuor, 2010). This clearly shows that there is a challenge in as far as keeping of academic staff in institutions of higher learning is concerned. However, the study by Mkulu (2018) did not look at the retention of lecturers in public universities, which is the focus of this study.

The employee turnover is the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment and retaining employees remains a primary concern for many organisations during days of intellectual property (CHE, 2014).

One way to understand turnover is by explaining the difference between Push and Pull factors. 'Push' factors cause individuals to look for another job, for example, dissatisfaction with working conditions. 'Pull' factors drew employees towards another organisation (for example, higher salary or better benefits). In 2006 People in Aid researched on why people stay in an organisation and why staff leaves. It was found that for each individual there may be a number of inter connected push and pull factors for leaving or staying. The factors include presence or absence of a good team, excessive workload, poor systems, better pay, terms and conditions as well as poor leadership. The lack of career opportunity and growth, burnout, disillusionment and frustration greatly contribute to staff turnover.

### **2.2.5. Stress**

Kusi *et al.* (2014) asserted that according to studies, lecturers experienced higher-level of stress compared to readers and professors. There exists a definite relationship between stress- related factors and faculty members' intentions to leave academia. The most frequent reasons for early retirement of university academic staff was dissatisfaction with changes in the universities and financial inducement. According to Haque and Aston (2016), the female academicians in the UK experienced more stress at work but lower level of job burnout than their male counterparts. It was also found that women academicians experience more pressure on the job, but lower levels of burnout than male academicians.

Furthermore, the high rate at which university teachers quit their job in Nigeria was one of the problems facing university management in that country. Available evidence indicates that lecturers quit their jobs usually as a result of unsatisfactory situations such as low motivation and poor conditions of service. Oladapo (2014) identified poor facilities, increased enrolment, underfunding and poor staffing as problems of Nigerian universities. If lecturers are not given an enabling work environment, they can feel frustrated and consequently quit their jobs.

### **2.2.6. Career Growth**

According to Dessler (2017), career minded employees consider career growth and development as a crucial deciding factor in their decision to remain or leave the organisation. Where growth is not guaranteed, employees tend to leave for alternative employment. Career growth in terms of promotion helps employees to plan for the future and to be better equipped with the right skills in order to remain competitive. As vacancies occur for higher positions within the organisation, employees must be given

equal opportunity and necessary encouragement to apply alongside external candidates. Kipkebut (2010), and Cole and Kelly (2015) asserted that if employees have the opportunity to be promoted, they tend to build their career lives around the organisation and can therefore make informed decisions either to remain or leave the organisation. At the same time, managers should also focus on helping employees especially the young and inexperienced ones progress in their careers who if unable to get on with their jobs were likely to leave the organisation for another which they considered offered better job prospects.

They added that promotion of academic staff was dependent on teaching, research and publications. However, because of financial constraints, non-prioritisation of research by government and inadequate publishing facilities, publishing of referred articles has become a monumental challenge for Kenya and other African academics. Additionally, Tettey (2006), Musah and Nkuah (2013) observed that the promotional procedures in African universities were long, stressful and cumbersome while the requirements were unreasonable and indicated that academics were frustrated by the inconsistencies and rigidity in the application of promotion criteria. Higher education institutions need to adopt targeted retention policies in order to motivate employees. Therefore, an institution which does not apply the principle of equity in its way of managing affairs of its employees has high chances of having employees with intentions of leaving such an institution. It has been recognised that higher education plays a significant role in economic development of both developed and developing countries (Mubarak *et al.*, 2012; Selesho and Naile, 2014). Its task should actually be paramount and be more aligned to social-economic development.

### **2.2.7. Poor Leadership policies**

Poor leadership practices can bring dissatisfaction to the employees. Jackson (2014) states that the policies of managers that interfere with employees' autonomy lead to turnover. According to the scholar, the leaders of an organisation should actively make efforts to create a corporate culture of engagement and self-discipline, but he also pointed out the fact that there are individual differences in the capability of people to engage. No matter the amount of effort, the activities may not bring out the desired outcome. This should be taken into consideration when thinking about the outcomes of the actions taken for engaging employees. Elegbe (2016); Bush *et al.* (2010) further add that employee commitment is based on a certain viewpoint. They can only give their greatest effort if their own desires are met in the organisation. Due to this fact, employers should always bear in mind that there are needs to be satisfied such as an enabling and social work environment; competitive total rewards and rapid career development if employees are to remain in an organisation.

If supervisors don't motivate their subordinates to work hard, production would be low. Figueroa (2015) conducted a study on the influences impacting staff turnover in higher education institutions. The study identified some of the challenges experienced by administrators and departments in order to present opportunities for leadership to embed strategic organisational change. Their positions were influential and added to the continuity of educational services within higher education. It was true indeed that administrative challenges faced by institutions were many and there was an urgent need to prevent further disruption of the organisational milieu. The experiences identified for administrators were; low engagement, low organisational commitment, poor sense of value, little growth opportunities, a void of staff development and low compensation (Devos and Tuytens, 2014). For the departments, research showed slightly different

outcomes because the institutional engagement was more scholarly based. The identified challenges for departments were; disparities in income between genders, work conflicts, time constraints, heavy workload and poor communications with the institution's administration. Women and minority faculty members also reported unique challenges with opportunities for career advancement. These concerns were valid and worthy of continued inquiry in order to further identify opportunities to embed some organisational changes.

### **2.2.8. Clear Recruitment Policies**

Mokoditsoa (2011) argued that an organisational recruitment policy must be clear. For example, affirmative action, promotion from within or employment of the handicapped, and that all the stakeholders within the organisation must participate in determining the policy. Besides, the non-promotion and the recruitment of outsiders in an institution create low morale, depression and was de-motivation to existing staff members. Positions should be viewed as very urgent issues for competency, potential and long-term development. An organisation should search for candidates to bring a range of skills and versatility. Policies and practices of every organisation have an effect on the recruitment of staff. Some believe in promotion only from within, many practice nepotism, whilst others perpetuate their community or clan. Cervai *et al.* (2014) emphasise that the main requirement, however, is that, whatever the declared or undeclared policy or practice is, it must significantly demarcate recruitment processes and procedures. Higher learning institutions should have clear cut policies for recruiting lecturers.

## **2.3. Consequences of Employee Turnover**

### **2.3.1. Brain Drain**

Globally, the demand for academic staff in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) is increasing, and is expected to continue to increase. According to Higher Education South Africa (HESA), and from the literature, it is evident that HEIs are currently facing significant challenges in retaining key and talented academic staff (Robyn, 2012). According to Pienaar and Bester (2008), retention problems and intention to leave are exacerbating the problem; and the so-called academic 'retirement swell' is also evident, leaving HEIs with no option but to seriously investigate retention of academic staff. One of the goals of sustainable development is to ensure quality education and promote lifelong learning. Provision of quality education would not be realised if lecturers are quitting every day, hence retention is highly needed in all universities so as to provide quality education which is a pre-requisite requirement to sustainable development of any nation. A study conducted by Owuor (2010) examined academic mobility and brain drain in East Africa with Kenya as the case study. The study deliberately focused on the mobility of academic staff within and across the East African countries. The findings indicated there was high movement of lecturers from African universities to overseas due to inadequate pay, poor policies, and bad working conditions. Hence, these factors were inevitable when it came to issues dealing with turnover in institutions of higher learning.

Muhammad (2011) asserted that the high turnover of staff was unhealthy for the smooth running of institutions since it affected the growth, profitability and customer satisfaction whenever it occurred in the workplace. However, some employers have seen the process of staff leaving and being replaced as a natural and inevitable feature of the industry. In today's highly dynamic commercial work, it is becoming a challenge for jobseekers to find jobs that best fit their personality, and for employers to hire the right people who can

do the job and also integrate well into the company culture. Failure to overcome that issue could result in high turnover of employees. Employee turnover was a part of normal business activity whereby employees come and go as their life situations change. Most employers realise that and, indeed, large firms typically have entire departments devoted to the management of human resources in order to make the transition as easy as possible for both management and employees to minimise the associated hiring and training costs (Agwu and Olele, 2014).

### **2.3.2. High Turnover Rates**

Selesho (2014) established that retention of employees in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) was a serious concern because a high employee turnover has grave implications for the quality, consistency, and stability of academic enterprises. Moreover, Powell (2010) found that turnover can have detrimental effects on students and remaining academic staff members, who struggled to give and receive quality services, when positions are vacated and then filled by inexperienced personnel. According to Horwitz (2014), high turnover rates could reinforce clients' mistrust in the system and could discourage staff from remaining in, or even entering, the field. In the higher education sector, when academic staff left, it could also impact on the student: staff ratio (Strebler, 2006). The number of academic staff that remained attending to students was very low for them to manage giving quality service.

### **2.3.3. Increase Workload**

One of the key effects of retention problems was an increase in the workload on the existing staff, which eventually affected the quality of education offered in the institution of learning. According to Torrington (2014), human resource is one of the most valuable assets of any organisation, more so for the educational institutes. It was therefore

penultimate to retain this educated, committed and experienced staff in order to be able to maintain the knowledge inventory and decrease the costs of re-recruitment, selection, orientation, training and development on new staff. Being able to retain the staff would also ensure knowledge continuity, committed decision making and smooth and coordinated work flow. Indeed, there was a paradigm shift from human resource to human capital which consists of the knowledge, skills and abilities of the people employed in organisation which is indicative of their value. The increasing trend of lecturers leaving or giving up causes brain drain and leaves the university incapacitated. There was need to move fast and ensure retention of good lecturers and provision of quality education (Turyakira, 2013). Therefore, the need to mitigate voluntary turnover behaviour displayed by lecturers cannot be overemphasized. This was especially so because lecturers were leaving the universities at a time when most of them had not even filled their staff establishment.

#### **2.3.4. Diminishing Teaching Quality and Student Achievement**

Terera and Ngirande (2014) pointed out that the most serious consequence, of course, was that high turnover diminishes teaching quality and student achievement. Inexperienced teachers, especially those with less than two to three years of experience, were often found to be less effective than more senior teachers. New lecturers thrown into universities amidst high turnover and limited opportunities for mentoring by accomplished lecturers often felt helpless and lost. Staff turnover creates gaps in an organisation's establishment. When one staff left the organisation, all their work was either shared or transferred to the remaining staff. In most cases, where the organisation has a lean staff, the work usually became overburdening to the remaining staff.

According to Grisson *et al* (2016), high teacher turnover rates lead to decreased performance and decreased consistency across a variety of indicators, including student achievement. Disruption of a programme's continuity and planning, decreased student learning as measured by standardised tests, and increased costs to institutes related to recruiting and hiring teachers. Student achievement also decreases when there is a shortage of qualified teachers to fill vacant positions, a problem caused at least in part by teacher turnover. High levels of turnover could also signal larger, systemic problems in the institute's community. High turnover diminished the sense of community, continuity, and coherence that is the hallmark of strong institutes. Additionally, when long-time employees leave, they often take valuable institutional knowledge or intellectual assets with them, which could cost employers a lot of time and money to replace. The remaining employees never wanted to see one of their colleagues leave. The atmosphere in the office takes on a different complexion and the remaining employees question their own career decision. These scenarios slow down the organisation's productivity and they also cost money. The current employees get increased workloads to offset, which cause burnout, inefficiencies, which could be costly to the institution.

### **2.3.5. Direct and Indirect Costs**

For Yuki (2010), there are more negative impacts to an organisation due to employee turnover than positive impacts. However, despite substantial evidence regarding turnover's negative consequences for firms, several studies including many of those cited above have noted offsetting positive effects. For example, the economic perspective on turnover suggests that turnover reflected the beneficial aspects of worker mobility, such as the improvement of matches between employees and firms over time. Institutions should take a deep interest in stemming employee turnover because it is costly part of doing business. When a company must replace a worker, it incurs direct and indirect

expenses. These expenses include the cost of advertising, headhunting fees, human resources cost, loss of productivity, new hire training, and customer retention. Turnover can also adversely affect operational efficiency, especially for complex processes that require close teamwork and high amounts of assumed knowledge. Where there is continuing instability in the workforce, consequences could include increased stress and tension amongst those remaining employees who have to fill the gaps left by their departing colleagues, declining employee morale, and decreased productivity due to loss of work group synergy.

### **2.3.6. Decline in Quality of Academic Service Provision**

Geasi and Nijkamp (2017) argued that brain drain has significant impacts on both the employee and the employer. This was due to the fact that the process of recruitment was done through the migration system in the West which was highly selective. Western countries were literally selecting out the best and brightest Africa had to offer in terms of educational and socio-economical background. Western countries benefited enormously from African brain drain, especially those countries with an increasing aging population. Countries like the USA and Canada enjoyed the benefits of filling labour shortages without having to pay the cost of educating them. Documented effects of brain drain range from the decline in the quality of service as a result of the absence of skilled individuals in the home country to the economic benefits derived from remittances. For instance, in the education sector, the emigration of qualified teachers and academics has led to the decline in the quality of education received. This has made stagnation in the process of knowledge production. The quality of education has been compromised at all levels and the teacher-student ratio has limited the amount of time and attention devoted to each student.

### **2.3.7. Limitation in the Programme Options**

As stated above, El-Khawas (2012) added that at tertiary level, the mass exodus of academics limits the programme options for students because academics that were specialised in certain disciplines were not available to teach certain courses. Consequently, it was likely that educators with average competencies may replace the emigrant faculty members. The danger with this type of replacement in course tutors is that students are deprived of the best educational experience possible and in some cases, leads to the production of “half baked” graduates who are unequipped with the necessary skills and knowledge to enter the labour market.

### **2.3.8. Loss of Educational Investments**

Another identified major consequence of academic staff turnover apart from brain drain is the loss of educational investments (Odhiambo, 2013). Most African countries including Zambia had faced this financial loss because of the highly skilled individuals. What African countries had managed to educate, at high cost, have been absorbed by Western countries, at little or no cost. For example, according to the 2001 report of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in Kenya, it cost about \$10,000 to \$15,000 to train a student for four years and approximately \$40,000 to train a physician. Therefore, upon migration to the host country, this investment was lost.

### **2.3.9. Loss of Productivity, Institutional Knowledge and Skills**

According to Schmitt *et al.* (2012), productivity is a very important issue for an institution or organisation. There are several factors on which productivity of an organisation mostly depend upon. Employee turnover is one of the factors considered challenging in various institutions nowadays. The impact of turnover has received considerable attention by senior management, human resources professionals and

industrial psychologists. It has proven to be one of the costliest and seemingly intractable human resource challenges confronting several organisations globally. Furthermore, staff turnover can have a negative effect on an organisation. It could lead to a loss of productivity, profitability, corporate knowledge, and skills and competencies (Evans *et al.*, 2014). In addition, staff turnover is not just an issue for the organisation experiencing staff turnover; it could also cause headaches for external organisations communicating with them. It would be hard to maintain a relationship with an organisation with high staff turnover, and it can be difficult to know how to effectively communicate with them through this period. Often, the correspondence between organisations relies on staff to staff communication, and the loss of one of these members affects the way the organisations interact.

There are a number of factors that make employees leave an institution. Among them included the issue of staying as contract workers for too long. “I have been teaching at this institution for almost 30 years and like other Contract Academic Faculty have never been recognized for my years of service at the Annual Service Recognition Award”(Foster and Bauer, 2018). Part-time employees could not be recognised for their work and therefore omitted for any motivations that were given by the administration.

Retention and employee turnover were two terms that were closely linked to each other. When the turnover rate was high, it created financial problems for the organisation. When an employee who has been carefully recruited and fully trained for a job decides to leave the institution, it actually creates monetary loss to the organisation. The institution now has to use the same amount of resources to recruit and train a new person for the job without necessarily getting any benefit from the employee who decides to leave. In their research, Ologbo and Saudah (2012) indicated that employee commitment is a major key factor in organisational performance and success because it has a major possibility to

affect employ retention, their trustworthiness and efficiency. It has a link to customer satisfaction, organisational status and the overall stakeholder significance. When employees leave the organisation, they create a shortfall in staffing levels. This means that a few workers who remain would have a lot of tasks to carry out. This would cause members of staff to have less time to attend to their clients, leading to poor results. This is due to the fact that when clients are too numerous for the employees, they failed to handle them. Sutherland (2014) observed that the only solution is to hire part-time lecturers so that the work overload for full-time employees could be uplifted.

### **2.3.10. Lack of Continuity**

According to Rankin (2006), it is expensive to employ part-time personnel or hire them because they have to be oriented and trained to do the work. Since they are not permanent, they can leave the institution at any time hence, creating more gaps and work is hence put on hold until replacements are made. The process of employing part-time staff is long and expensive and the newly hired workers lack efficiency, including the interaction and institutional knowledge. Furthermore, the rate of turnover varies from company to company as well as from region to region. The highest rates are found where unemployment rate is lower and where it is easy for people to get alternative employment. Sometimes employee turnover benefits organisations positively. This might happen when a poor performer is replaced by a more skilled employee and when a retired employee is replaced by a younger one. Employee turnover may be also costly. When there is a vacancy, training cost for the new employee becomes a burden to the organisation.

Employee turnover can be extremely devastating for any organisation. It makes the employers difficult to maintain a steady and successful operation. According to Brandt *et*

*al.* (2016), losing an employee can reduce an institution's success and consequently stakeholders' confidence in the organisation.

Many academic scholars pointed out turnover a correlation between job dissatisfaction and decreased organisational commitment. The stronger the feeling of discontent in one's job, the more likely one is to begin a search for an alternative job. This perspective on turnover high lights the role of emotions and attitudes as antecedents of behaviour. When an employee leaves an organisation, it can have a variety of effects that not only impact on the organisation but also the individual employee and the society (Dessler, 2017). Therefore, in education circles, high teacher turnover rates lead to decreased performance and decreased consistency across a variety of indicators, including student achievement.

#### **2.3.11. Loss of Production**

According to Drucker (2012), turnover basically arises from an individual being unhappy with their job or place of work. However, being unhappy in a job is not the only reason why people leave one company for another. If the skills that they possess are on demand, they may be lured away by higher pay, better benefits or better job growth prospects. Therefore, turnover occurs for many different reasons. Sometimes new jobs attract employees and pull them to leave the old one. Turnover is deeply related with the productivity of an organisation. Employee turnover can hamper the overall productivity of an organisation and is often a symptom of other difficulties. The newly replaced worker may not be efficient like the previous one. The new one takes time to be at ease with the new system, the other co-workers as well as the new environment. Consequently, turnover hugely contributes to the damage of productivity of any organisation or service sectors. This implies that there is a need to ensure that high rate of

turnover was reduced if an organisation is to attain its full potential in regard to productivity.

Sirola (2015) affirmed that when turnover is high in an organisation, efficiency becomes difficult to attain. This is due to the shortage of employees in an institution. Those workers who remain are stressed because they did not take leave due to work overloads. They became very unproductive, ineffective and irrelevant to the institution and there is low self-esteem among the workers. Therefore, absenteeism would be high and employees would always prefer to do other works than what they were employed to do. Consequently, lack of commitment in an organisation's workforce may lead to counterproductive behaviour such as an increase in intent to leave, laissez faire attitudes set in leading to poor performance which affects organisational efficiency. Organisational commitment has a negative correlation with the intention to quit. Once this happens, there are drastic changes in the institution or organisation in terms of its performance and general standing and ranking in society. These realities erode the capability of academic institutions to build the human capacity needed for socio-economic and political development in other areas of society. While individuals who move to other organisations may contribute to the specific activities of those organisations, their departure from their institutions meant that the synergies that come with a group of academics working together is diminished and the impact and scope of knowledge production and dissemination is lessened.

Jones (2018) asserted that globally, the environment of higher education is facing relentless and rapid change. These circumstances underscored the crucial role of leadership and management in maintaining morale, enhancing productivity and helping staff as all institutional levels cope with momentous and rapid change. One of the significant effects of turnover is the increased cost on the institution due to recruiting and

training of new employees. It costs businesses money to call for an interview and hire candidates. Besides, it is a costly process that skilled workers rarely spend time to contribute to income generating activities because they provide training to new workers. In other words, experienced workers are responsible for training new employees such that they are less able to concentrate on their normal duties. In addition, the combined effect of the negatives could be a result of high turnover, leading a firm to generate less profit. Anything that leads to increased costs or reduce productivity and income tend to reduce profit.

The shortage of academic staff and the failure of universities to retain quality academic staff continue to be crucial to the changing prospects and potentials of knowledge formation and learning. Retention of employees in higher education institutions is a serious concern; the high turnover rate of academic staff poses major challenges to these institutions. Powell (2010) warned that high employee turnover has grave implications for the quality, consistency, and stability of academic enterprises. Turnover can have detrimental effects on students and remaining academic staff members, who struggle to give and receive quality services, when positions are vacated and then filled by inexperienced personnel. High turnover rates could reinforce clients' mistrust of the system and could discourage workers from remaining in, or even entering, the field.

### **2.3.12. Turn over Costs**

Parker and Wright (2014) affirm that high turnover rate could do a lot of damage to an organisation apart from overworking the remaining employees. One of which is the attendant turnover cost. When you lose an employee, the institution needs to fill the vacancy. Apart from the costs incurred, high turnover also gave an institution a bad image in the public eye. The general public would speculate about the reasons why

employees did not last long in the organisation. They would question the organisation's management skill. Consequently, this would also affect the judgment of potential investors. Barry and Wilkinson (2016); Ojasalo and Tahtinen (2016) stated that employees are now given a chance to participate in their task-related decisions and give suggestions on how production can be achieved.

Minimising employee turnover rate is one of the most important tasks of managers. This is because a high turnover rate, among others, implies that the organisations concerned are probably incurring high costs of operations. The costs of employee turnover are due to the costs of retaining them, training and development, loss of business, productivity, and also increase in business risks. Therefore, institutions that are not able to reduce their employee turnover figures would likely lose their competitiveness in the long run. To ensure that the institution keeps highly qualified personnel, effective payment policies must be implemented that could sway an employee's perceptions and personal well-being. This would result in high output and high financial turnover (Gupta, 2014).

High turnover could be a serious obstacle to productivity, quality, and profitability of firms of all sizes. For the smallest of companies, a high turnover rate could mean that simply having enough staff to fulfil daily functions is a challenge, even beyond the issue of how well the work was done when staff was available. Turnover is no less a problem for major companies, which often spend millions of dollars a year on turnover-related costs. When the employee leaves, productivity would usually take a downturn because other workers may have to add the former employee's duties to their own workload, at least temporarily. For service-oriented professions such as management consulting or account management, high employee turnover could also lead to customer dissatisfaction, as clients feel little attachment to a revolving contact. Deinert *et al.* (2015) asserted that

customers are also likely to experience dips in the quality of service each time their representative changed.

## **2.4. Strategies for Retaining Employees**

### **2.4.1. Improving Job Satisfaction and Enhancing Organisational Commitment**

The retention process was designed to increase employees' control over their work, thereby improving job satisfaction and enhancing organisational commitment. Retention has varied from university to university and from department to department within universities. Employee retention is not a new concept. It has always been part of the transition in HEIs. The increasing demands may even be expected to increase as the number of students grows substantially. Meeting the expectations of employees and staying up-to-date with the job prospects for new and existing employees, to the level which other organisations meet these expectations, is demanded for employee retention. According to Selesho (2014), exploration of employee retention literature revealed that efforts to retain employees are focused more on employees with core competencies or in core business units.

In the United States, for instance, about 7.7 % of all full-time academic staff left their institutions within one academic year from fall of 1997 to fall 1998, (National Centre for Educational Statistics, 2001). In Canada, it has been argued that one of the challenges that the university would face over the next decade or so is academic recruitment and retention. Similarly, it has been suggested that “early in the 21st century there would be crisis in Australian higher education with an estimated labour shortage of 20,000 if this trend was not addressed” (Mathews, 2003). These circumstances were also experienced in South American higher education institutions, since data indicate that a substantial

number (between 5% and 18%) of academics leave higher education institutions (Tettey, 2006).

Iqbal (2010) determined employee turnover as one of the challenges to the human resource managers and the respective employers in any fast growing economies, including the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Most of the employers in the Kingdom were not aware of why employees choose to leave the organisation and why they stay. Employees who leave at the organisation's request as well as those who leave on their own initiative could cause disruptions in operations, work team dynamics and unit performance. Employee turnover being such a serious problem in Middle-East organisations, there was limited research investigating it - studies on causes and consequences are scanty. Statistical data on turnover rates in higher education in Saudi Arabia were generally not available adding significance to the need to study this concern.

However, the Ministry of Education affirms as cited in the study of Habhab and Smith (2014) that the recruitment and retention of foreign talent is a challenging issue for management in the higher education sector in Saudi Arabia.

Employee retention is one of the most critical issues facing organisational managers because of the shortage of skilled workers, economic growth, and high employee turnover (Samuel and Chipunza, 2013). Once an organisation has captured skilled employees, the return on investment requires closing the back door to prevent them from walking out. Employees are more likely to remain with the organisation if they believed that the organisation shows more interest and concern for them, if they know what is expected of them, if they are given a role that fit their capabilities, and if they receive regular positive feedback and recognition. Employees feel comfortable remaining longer in positions where they were well informed on relevant issues concerning the

organisation and their well-being. Tithe (2010) contributed that retention strategies across different companies have many common features, such as competitive pay, good working environment, and progressive human resource policies that offer opportunities for advancement; they needed to be context-specific and evidence-based to be more effective. Mandhanya (2015) adds that an appropriate understanding of employees' expectations of their work environments is a critical issue in higher education institutions' ability to retain academic employees, hence the problem of academic staff retention was a global one, which affects both developing and industrialised countries.

Musah and Nkuah (2013) asserted that by understanding the nature of the retention problems, an institution could decide whether to adopt targeted retention initiatives to manage overall levels so that there is sufficient labour.

#### **2.4.2. Staff Development**

The role of educational institutes to provide for and in the development of manpower required for the social economic and technological advancement of any nation cannot be over-emphasized. By their unique nature, educational institutes are expected to be an inventory of the most specialised and skilled intellectuals. They serve as storehouses of knowledge for nurturing the manpower needs of the nation and hence satisfying the aspirations of the people for a good and humane society. Central to the realisation of university goals and objectives were the academic staff whose roles were crucial and their number, quality and effectiveness makes the difference in university education production function and to the wider society (Amutuhaire, 2010).

No academic institution could really ensure sustainability and quality in the long run without a well-qualified and committed academic staff. Higher education institutions are therefore very much dependent on the intellectual and creative abilities and commitment

of the academic staff than most other organisations. This therefore makes it critically important to retain intellectual staff.

### **2.4.3. Motivation and Training**

Motivation constitutes a central element when going through the process of human learning. If the organisation does not possess the ability to motivate its employees, the knowledge within the organisation is not practically used to a maximum. Therefore, it becomes the aim of every learning organisation to find the factors that would enable it to motivate its employees to continuous learning and to take advantage of this knowledge to ensure its living. It is unlikely that employees would be committed if they are not sufficiently motivated. Another key factor to employee satisfaction is implementing formal training programmes that provide employees with clear paths for advancement. Employees are more likely to remain loyal to businesses committed to staff development and promotion from within. Induction training and socialisation are carried out, which are vital in gaining employee commitment. According to Jon (2012), it is essential to reinforce a sense of self-worth within newcomers, which could be achieved through a supportive environment.

Pienaar (2008) asserted that the crucial role of the university education was to prepare most of the professionals who develop, lead, manage, teach, and influence society's institutions. Hence the retention of academic staff was the pillar to the functioning of any university. In today's competitive global market, the only strategy for organisations to improve workforce productivity radically and enhance retention is to seek to optimise their workforce through comprehensive training and development programmes. In order to accomplish this undertaking, organisations would have to invest in vast resources to ensure that employees have the information, skills and competences they needed to work

effectively in a complex and rapidly changing environment. It is therefore important for organisations to invest in their human resource or human capital development which in general terms is the process of helping employees become better at their tasks, their knowledge and their experiences and add value to their lives. Osibanjo *et al.* (2014) stated that this is achieved through training, education and development.

According to Chew (2014), training is considered a form of human capital investment whether that investment was made by the individual or by the firm. Training provides employees with specific skills, help to correct deficiencies in their performance. The purpose of training in the work context is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organisation. Waleed (2011) further asserted that training is not simply a means of arming employees with skills they need to perform their jobs. It was also often deemed to be representative of an employer's commitment to their workforce. It may also be perceived to reflect an overall organisational strategy that involve adding increased value as opposed to reducing cost.

According to the Government of Kenya (GoK), (2006), training policies in organisations should be guided by policies which should be adhered to always. Training policies in public universities in Kenya cover academic and non-teaching employees and address matters such as processing study leave, criteria for selecting staff for further training, bonding of staff in training, renewal of study leave, funding for training internally by universities commonly referred to as fee waiver, scholarships and self-sponsorships. It could therefore be argued that opportunities for training are among the most important reasons why employees, especially the young ones and enthusiastic ones, stay. Indeed, according to Dockel (2013), investment in training is one way to show employees how important they are. One of the factors that Herzberg identifies as an important motivator is the opportunity for personal growth.

Public universities train their academic staff locally and through scholarships, they send them abroad, especially in disciplines where such training is not locally available. According to the Public Universities Inspection Board (GoK, 2006), human resource development through staff training abroad suffered greatly because many members of staff do not return to their sponsoring universities after long periods of study leave and this affects staff retention in these institutions. In addition, the board observed that what was stated in the written training policy was not what was practiced in regard to staff training and this was riddled with favouritism. When training is selective, those who are not favoured would feel demoralised and leave or their inputs would be poor. Most institutions rely on individuals who have not acquired higher academic training. In order to improve their efficiency and effectiveness in delivering their services, the staff must be trained continually in relevant areas. Universities must have clear training policies, outlining their strategies for human resource development. Employees who stay in organisations are able to connect their objectives with that of the organisation. Employees should be able to see growth opportunity, enjoy the work environment and find their jobs challenging, meaningful and with a purpose.

In the United Kingdom, according to Duffield (2014), some of the approaches used in retaining employees are fundamental and provide lessons for countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, human resource departments need to keep up with this development and find strategies to present their unique features in the best possible light to compete successfully with other organisations. It is by so doing that they can only attract employees to remain in the institution. However, it is equally important to ensure that qualified staff fit into the organisation and that all parties have a positive working environment. A functioning human resource management system not only works towards reaching and assessing potential employees, it also has to develop strategies to retain the

institution's skilled academic staff. Anticipating employees' needs by providing support programmes or through the establishment of a dual career service is an important step towards this goal.

#### **2.4.4. Compensation**

A Germany study undertaken by Jongbloed (2012) highlighted staff retention strategies obtaining in universities. Professors were found to be generally civil servants with permanent life-long positions. Akhtar *et al.*, (2015) pointed out that other allowances are determined individually such as performance bonuses and other packages that they negotiated for. Furthermore, Agarwal (2017) gave an explanation to the term reward as something that the organisation offers to the employees in response to work as well as performance. Employees were given extrinsic rewards in order to motivate them to stay longer (Bayrakta *et al.*, 2016). Employee retention was considered as the heart of an organisational success. Employees were stimulated to remain with the organisation for the maximum period of time (Igbal and Hashmi, 2015). The basic aim of employee retention strategies and practices were to reduce employee turnover and the associated expenses of hiring, training and orientation of the new employees.

Therefore, worker retention strategies are very cardinal if the organisation is to grow and compete favourably within its circles. Imam *et al.*, (2013) asserted, in his investigation on job satisfaction levels among public sector managers, that income or compensation is the most valuable determinant of job satisfaction. It was found that satisfied employees tended to be more productive, creative and committed to their employers. There were several ways in which a university could retain lecturers. One of them was the award of attractive salaries and other monetary benefits. Dessler (2017) observed that lecturers

liked to be appreciated for the job well done. The university had some degree of loyalty towards its employees which influenced them to stay longer.

#### **2.4.5. Hiring and Mentorship**

According to Esemé (2010), hiring the right people from the start would reduce turnover. Recruiting effective teaching candidates that are qualified could reduce staff shortage, and then sufficient mentoring could be provided to help them make the transition into full-time teaching (Yuki, 2010). Mentoring could come from supervisors in the departments. Managers should have a clear idea of the types of people they want to hire for each position, write detailed job descriptions and commit to hiring the best candidates rather than the first candidates who meet minimum requirements. An organisation is encouraged to use personality traits and leadership style theories to determine the personality type and leadership style possessed by job applicants and future candidates before actually employing them. A computer-based application that integrates personality traits and leadership styles will be valuable to any organisation seeking the right people with the right personality and the right competencies. With this, there are more chances for an employee to be satisfied with the job given, and reduce employee turnover.

#### **2.4.6. Good communication and feedback**

In considering the above factors, Cania (2014) posited that good communication and feedback between management and employees is a means to reduce these problems. A positive relationship between communication and commitment was detected highlighting the importance for management to ensure that communication channels remain open to allow for better transmission of information. Employees may also have a desire to pursue higher education or to improve their performance, so that they can accomplish more tasks within the same period of time. By increasing their inputs, employees may get higher

outputs such as better pay and benefits. This may lead to a higher level of satisfaction. However, factors like the lack of financial resources may prevent the employee from pursuing opportunities of taking additional courses to upgrade themselves. In addition, other factors like problems from outside of work may affect an employee's job satisfaction. Therefore, employees may wish to discuss and express their concerns with their immediate superiors. Akkerman *et al.* (2015) asserted that bringing the problems that employees have to the manager's attention would indeed benefit the employee as they could work together to make any special arrangements in mutual agreement. When employees interact with their superiors, the manager would be able to determine the employees' level of job satisfaction and in turn determine their level of commitment.

#### **2.4.7. Leadership Policies**

In order to maximise human resource and lower employee turnover, institutions could focus on building relationships and support, as well as develop programmes to handle stress management, decrease work dissatisfaction and enhance loyalty to the organisation. It is proactive to deal with turnover at the thinking stage by enhancing commitment that has to do with building relationship and increasing participation as well as contribution to organisational goals. George (2015) states that it is vital to involve staff in the organisational process that not only empowers them but also increases their loyalty to and identification with the institution.

There are also cases when the employees leave because of their fellow employees or the superiors. Clashes of personalities are common in the workplace. Naqshbandi and Kaur (2014) observed that when an employee can no longer stand the tension in the workplace, he or she may opt to leave the organisation. It does not matter if he or she finally gets his dream job or receives a generous pay check, if he or she no longer has peace of mind,

they would look for another job. The relationship between employee and employer or their direct supervisor is also crucial. Not only do organisations need a performance management system that recognises and rewards supervisors for meeting objectives that reduce employee turnover; supervisors too need to understand what steps they can take to meet their responsibility in employee retention and job satisfaction. The only way to truly understand employees is to ask them what they want and to find out what could be done to help them reach their goals. Bell and Menguc (2016); Aşkun (2016) emphasised that by asking them to become involved, and being accountable, supervisors could go a long way in improving employee job satisfaction as well as retention.

Negi (2013) has researched on the role of transformational leadership style in controlling attrition and enhancing retention in the workplace in India. The study did not indicate what sample, method of data collection and data analysis were used. The researcher, however, used Herzberg Theory of Motivation. The findings indicated that leadership could play a pivotal role in curbing attrition. A change in the workplace environment should change the style of the manager too. In addition, leaders need to appreciate open discussions, have a welcoming attitude and promote workers. Transformational managers can affect the organisation by creating new ways to engage employees, inspire motivation and solve old problems. This kind of leadership style empowers workers to retrieve their hidden skills and talent. Furthermore, in Kenya, Ng'ethe (2013) conducted a study on how leadership contributed to retention of lecturers. He asserted that leadership style contributed greatly in retaining workers. The role of the university managers in employee retention was vital. Hence, there was need to embrace a leadership style that empowers employees to remain in the workplace.

According to Brooks (2015), the goal of a performance evaluation is to give workers feedback on what they are doing and what needs improvement. Frequent informal

conversations with employees help managers to ensure everyone is staying on task and to address quick, easy-to solve issues. Formal reviews, on the other hand, could carry much more weight and even determine an employee's future career path at the company. Gomez (2014) added that an evaluation plan is also essential to measuring the effectiveness of the unique career development programme. All of these proposed measures of the author of this study zero in to important goals to reduce turnover rate and achieve a favourable return on investment. Further, interviews have revealed that even in office supplies, what they need is not promptly given to them like ink for printers and cartridge for photocopier machine. According to him, it took a long time before the office supplies were given to them and this delay affected their office and teaching work.

Therefore, effective professional empowerment should combine the psychological and technical dimensions and should be extended by providing employees with adequate levels of job-meaning, knowledge, skills, work resources, authority, opportunity for self-determination and for feeling intrinsically responsible and accountable for the outcomes of their actions (Steven *et al.*,2014). Hence, professional empowerment is very vital for academic staff in institutions of higher learning to promote not only professional advancement but also personal growth and fulfilment in one's career. In order to retain the best talents, strategies aimed at satisfying employees' needs were implemented, regardless of the size of the organisation. Ramedran and Kadiresan (2012) states that that retaining skilled employees is beneficial to any organisation in gaining a competitive advantage, which cannot be substituted by other competitors in terms of producing high morale and satisfied co-workers who would provide better customer service and enhanced productivity.

Poor leadership was mentioned by Dessler (2013); Robbins and Coulter (2018) as the main reason for people leaving organisations. Lack of administrative support is one of the most frequently cited reasons why teachers quit. Leadership failures occur because many managers want to take care of the employees' needs though their actions are not in conjunction with what employees want. Several motivation theories have significant importance towards employee retention. Followed strictly, the hierarchy of needs by Maslow and Herzberg's theories earlier discussed are important for employee motivation. The needs hierarchy and the two-factor theories emphasised the importance of the environment and personality in bringing satisfaction to an employee, hence promoting retention. Therefore, employees should be able to show positive engagement or commitment and the institution should pay attractive salaries and incentives in order to motivate them.

## **2.5. Literature Gaps**

The study showed that there is a literature gap. There are limitations in terms of literature. Some articles and empirical studies in certain countries such as Nigeria by Gberville (2009), in Zimbabwe Mapolisa and Chirimuuta (2012) and the Zambian perspective of Masaiti and Naluyele (2011), Kamwanga (2013) had scanty information on the related literature of the study compared to the international perspective. The recommendations of this study on retention of lecturers have filled the research gap.

## **2.6. Chapter Summary**

The literature review discussed the three objectives pertaining to retention. Factors which led to employee turnover were discussed. Academic staff mobility, lack of dissatisfaction, motivation, stress, lack of career growth, poor leadership practices and recruitment policies were some of the factors that were discussed that lead to staff turnover. There were consequences to turnover of employees. The following were

highlighted: high turnover, increased workload, decline in quality of academic service provision and loss of institutional knowledge. The chapter later looked at the following as strategies which administrators would use to retain staff: improving job satisfaction, retaining staff, staff development, motivation, good communication and feedback as well as leadership policies.

The turnover of the employees seems to be inevitable in the modern business world where flexible labour markets allowed them to move more freely from one job to another. In addition, retaining the talented employees saved the institution lots of resources and money in the recruiting process, and employers should establish processes to allow employees to stay longer with the organisation. The average employees were also important to be kept in an institution in order to make everything work smoothly. When an institution loses personnel, the work suffers. When the employees decide to leave, the management should take an initiative to interview them so that it could improve on retention of workers.

Institutions need to come up with good retention practices in their institutions. They should learn how to manage the qualified staff and motivate them. If good management is missing in the institutions, employees would lose focus. Many factors contribute to worker retention in institutions. If they are applied, employees would be satisfied and if not many would be demotivated and start moonlighting and forget they have to be committed to their jobs in the institutions where they come from. Good managerial practices affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which in turn influence an employee's intention to stay.

The next chapter looks at the research methodology and design employed in this study.

## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1. Overview**

The previous chapter reviewed literature relevant to this study. It looked at the research objectives; related to the factors that made employees to leave institutions and their consequences. The strategies that employers use to retain employees were highlighted. What follows is a detailed description of the research methodology used in this study. It starts by presenting the research design, research philosophy and methodological approach, target population, study sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, instrument validity and reliability. The study then looked at data collection, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations.

### **3.2. Research Design**

This study used convergent parallel design. According to Creswell (2014), convergent parallel design was initially conceptualised as a triangulation design where two different methods are used to obtain triangulated results about a single topic. In this study, the convergent parallel design was used for the purpose of producing triangulated findings. More importantly, the use of this design was to bring together the differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods (Patten, 2017).

Within the qualitative design, the study employed phenomenology (naturalistic method) which was suitable in generating in-depth information from the respondents in their natural environment which in this case was the University of Zambia.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) observed that phenomenological approach enables an in-depth study of the relevant variables to be made in order to establish the existing situation. This facilitated the researcher to assess views of the lecturers, administrators

and union representatives on the retention of lecturers at the University of Zambia from 1990 to 2016. To collect qualitative data, interview sessions were conducted while quantitative data was obtained using questionnaires.

### **3.3. Philosophical Orientation of the Study**

Research philosophy can be described as “a basic set of beliefs that guide research action” (Kivunja and Kayuni, 2017). It is a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study. The types of beliefs held by individual researchers often lead to embracing any or a combination of the following methods: qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approach into their research.

Saunders (2012) put forward the argument the researcher’s assumptions about human knowledge and the nature of the realities encountered in the research, inevitably shape the understanding of research questions, the methods used and how to interpret the findings. Johnson and Clark (2015) noted that business and management researchers need to be aware of the philosophical commitments they made through their choices of research strategy since this would have a significant impact not only of what they did but how they understood what they were investigating. Below is the Research Onion illustrating the research philosophy that was used.

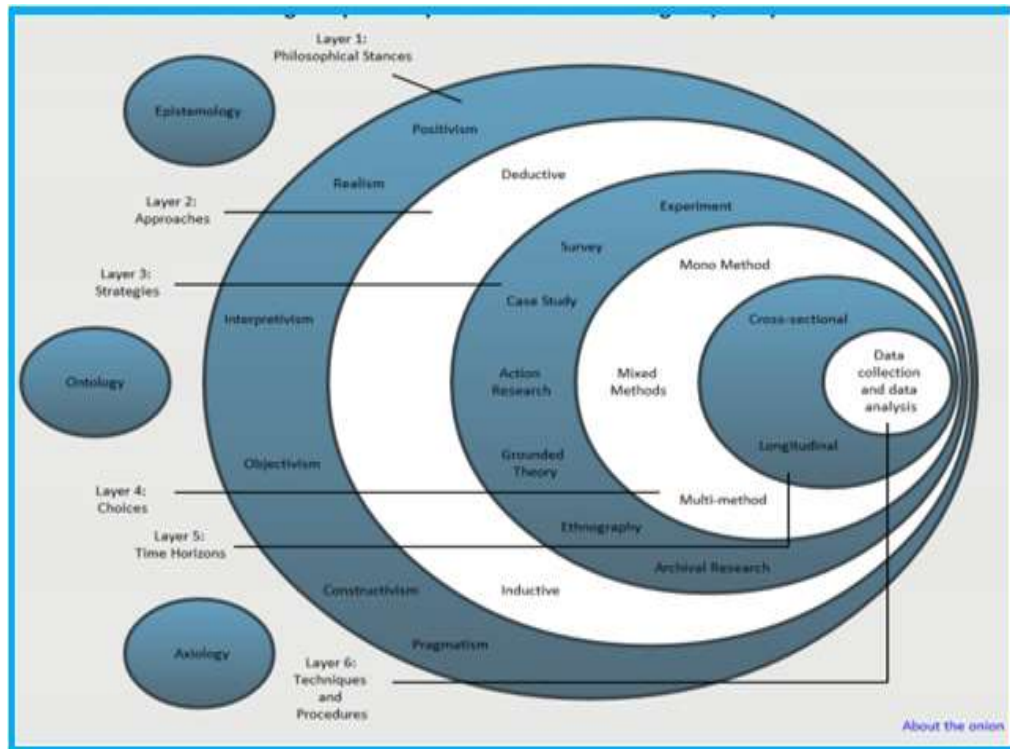


Figure 3.3: The Research onion (Source: Saunders *et al.*, 2012)

Saunders *et al.*, (2012) used an onion to exemplify the different research process as shown in Figure 3.1. The “onion” has layers starting with the philosophy. The next layer is the research approach, followed by research strategy, research choices, time horizon and the centre of the “onion” contains data collection techniques and procedures.

### 3.3.1. Research Philosophy in the Research Onion

There are three major ways of thinking about research: epistemology, ontology and axiology. Each contains important variations which would influence the way one thinks about the research process (Saunders, 2012).

Epistemology concerns itself with what is real knowledge and how it is obtained. Its emphasis is on what is known to be true. On the other hand, ontology is concerned with the nature of reality (Saunders, 2012). The two aspects of ontology are objectivism and subjectivism. Objectivism portrays the position that things such as social entities exist as

meaningful reality external to those social actors concerned with their existence whereas the second aspect, subjectivism, holds the view that the social phenomenon is created through the perceptions and consequent action of the affected social factors (Moon and Blackman, 2014).

Axiology considers judgements of value that guide choice among various alternative steps in the process of social enquiry. The worldview used in this study is pragmatism, which implies that research philosophy accepts concepts to be relevant only if they support action. According to Collis and Hussey (2014), there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, and that no single point of view can ever give the entire picture, that there are multiple realities. This is the philosophical underpinning for mixed research strategies and methods. This system of philosophy holds that whatever works in life is meaningful and valuable. Practical utility is the only determining standard of judgement by which one can judge beliefs and theories. The researcher's ideas were like working tools which enables one to have a more successful living. Pragmatism is connected to the three major ways of thinking because it accepts all research paradigms. The focus is on the consequences of research and on the research questions rather than on the methods.

Pragmatism asserts that ideas are only relevant where they support action (Feilzer, 2011). This philosophy suggests that the most important determinants of choice of research philosophy is the nature of research questions. This implies that it is possible to work with different philosophical positions if the research questions do not suggest unambiguity that either a positivist philosophy be adopted. The point of emphasis is that researchers should focus on the research problem and then use all the relevant research paradigms, approaches and methods to comprehensively understand the research problem (Wilson, 2010 and Creswell, 2014).

The pragmatic approach involves using the method which appears best suited to the research problem; hence, suitable for mixed methods as employed in this study. Pragmatic researchers have the freedom to use any type of method, technique and procedure associated with quantitative or qualitative research. They recognise that every method has its limitations and that the different approaches can be complementary. In this study, there was freedom to choose mixed methods as the best approach to inquire about retention of lecturers at UNZA.

In this research, the pragmatism philosophy was adopted because it can combine both positivism and interpretivism positions within the scope of a single research according to the nature of the research questions. Therefore, on the basis of objectivism as the underlying ontological position and causality and law-like generalisation as the supporting epistemological position, the researcher believes that positivist philosophy and interpretivism are predominantly required for this purpose. The philosophy assumes that the researcher is independent of and is neither affected by nor influences the research. The research objective of the researcher is that the study should be undertaken in a value-free way. In addition, this research aimed to explore the retention of lecturers at the University of Zambia and the positivist and interpretivist philosophies were suitable approaches to investigate human and social behaviour.

#### **3.4. The Research Approaches**

Research approaches are plans and procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2017). This plan involves several decisions. The overall decision involves the approach used to study the topic. Informing this decision are the philosophical assumptions the researcher brings to the study, procedures of inquiry and specific research methods of

data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The selection of a research approach was based on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experiences, and the audience for the study.

The researcher employed inductive approach for qualitative data, and deductive approach for quantitative data. Inductive approaches primarily use detailed reading of secondary data in order to come up with concepts, themes and models. Quantitative data on the other hand uses the deductive approach to analyse data. This study took a mixed methods approach, hence both inductive and deductive approaches have been utilised for data analysis.

Creswell (2014) posits that a topic in which there was a lot of literature from which one can define a theoretical framework and hypotheses lends itself more to deduction. However, for topics that are new and on which there is scanty literature, it may be suitable to work inductively by generating data, analysing it and reflecting on the theoretical themes the data suggests. Availability of time also determines whether the research problem could be dealt with inductively or deductively or both. For the current research, a theoretical model was developed and an assumption proposing causal relationships was derived based on the literature review and the existing theory.

### **3.5. Research Strategy**

A research strategy is the description of how the research should be carried out. This can include various approaches such as experimental, survey, case study, action research, ethnography and grounded theory (Yin, 2014).

The research strategy used was a case study approach with the use of a survey questionnaire. In this strategy, the research focused on a single entity which was the University of Zambia. In case of the study approach, a single unit was assessed in order

to establish its key features and draw generalisations. This is supported by Bryman, (2012). A case study about the retention of lecturers at UNZA allowed an in-depth investigation of the problem at hand. This brought deeper insights and better understanding of the problems lecturers experienced during the period 1990 to 2016.

### **3.6. The Research Choice**

The current study employed a mixed methods approach. The mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry involving collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, integrating the two forms of data, and using distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. The core assumption of this form of inquiry is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more complete understanding of a research problem rather than either approach alone and this view is supported by Creswell and Creswell (2017).

A mixed method approach adds to the credibility of outcomes as the quantitative data are supported by qualitative data. Johnson (2015) observed that a multi-method methodology leads to the convergent validation of research results through internal crosschecking. Quantitative and qualitative methods should complement each other rather than working as rival methods (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010; Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). After studying the strengths and weaknesses inherent in each single method, the researcher had a preference for the mixed method.

Employing both techniques, that is, quantitative and qualitative, brings a further perspective to the research questions in the sense that qualitative techniques help in determining the attitudes, behaviour and perspectives of the research subjects while the quantitative techniques help in understanding the environment of the study. Punch (2014)

posits that when combined, the methods could present a lucid picture and may offer clear answers to the research questions.

The use of mixed methods was meant to secure an optimal understanding of the phenomenon in the question involving the research dimension of both breadth and depth (Johnson and Christensen, 2012; Johnson, 2015). Under qualitative method, the study employed phenomenology which was naturalistic in nature. This method was suitable in generating in-depth information from the respondents in their natural environment which in this case was the University of Zambia. This was found appropriate since it accommodated the equal use of quantitative and qualitative data collected concurrently and merged, compared and interpreted to give a detailed analysis of the research problem. Data from the different research instruments: questionnaires and interview guides were analysed to establish if the findings of the study confirmed or disconfirmed each other.

This integrated methodology enabled the researcher to assess the views of the lecturers, administrators and union representative on the retention of lecturers at the University of Zambia from the discussions held through interviews while quantitative data was obtained from the information provided by the respondents to questionnaires. The researcher interpreted the merged results and discussed the extent to and ways in which the two types of data either converge, diverge correlate to each other at the final stage.

The qualitative technique helped in determining the attitudes, behaviour and perspectives of the research subjects while the quantitative technique helped in understanding the environment of the study. When combined, the methods present a clear picture and offer obvious answers to the research question, a view that is supported by Punch, 2014.

The lecturers and administrators' perceptions and attitudes were better determined through the open-ended questions, which encouraged them to discuss and express views

freely. This methodology was appropriate for this study particularly because if otherwise, lecturers could have been reluctant to express their opinions. By using individual private interviews, the researcher enabled the participants to express their views freely. Since the interviews were conducted face to face, the reliability factor was more important than other resources. It was for this reason the researcher opted for mixed method approach in seeking answers to the question of retention of lecturers at UNZA.

### **3.7. Time horizon**

The time horizon is the time frame within which the research project is intended to be completed (Bryman, 2012). There are two types of time horizons when planning a research project. These are cross-sectional studies and longitudinal studies. The first one is done at a particular point of time; as it is used for research that has a specified time limit or snap shot. The second one also called a “diary” takes a long time to complete because it observes people or events over time. A basic question in longitudinal studies is, “Has there been any change over a period of time?” (Saunders *et al.*, 2012: 156). This study took a cross-sectional time horizon because it had to collect data from one particular institution (the University of Zambia) and was concluded within a specific time.

### **3.8. Research Procedures and Techniques**

This section presents the procedures and techniques used to select the sample, develop the questionnaire, collect and analyse the data related the objectives and questions as outlined in the study.

### **3.8.1. Target Population**

The target population is the entire set of units or a group of people or objects that share similar characteristics for which the survey data was to be used for inferences (Bryman, 2012). In this study, the population used was all the lecturers at UNZA. The study targeted all lecturers and administrators at UNZA. According to Simukanga (2009), the total population of lecturers at UNZA was 617. There were 334 administrators. The total target population of lecturers and administrators combined was 951 staff. In addition, the researcher targeted the union members who were part of the academic staff (under discussion).

The researcher targeted 617 lecturers from all the 12 schools at UNZA namely: School of Education, School of Law, School of Humanities and Social Sciences, School of Natural Science, School of Engineering, School of Agricultural Science, School of Mines, School of Veterinary Medicine, School of Medicine, School of Nursing, School of Public Health, School of Pharmacy.

### **3.8.2. Sample and Sampling Procedures**

A sample size is a representation of the number of respondents selected from the overall population that was used in the research (Saunders, 2012). A good sample is one that is representative of the population from which it is drawn (Johnson and Christensen, 2012). The study sample size was one hundred and thirteen (113). These comprised seventeen (17) administrative staff and sixty-five (65) lecturers who provided quantitative data. The thirty-one (31) former administrators, lecturers and a union member provided qualitative data. To arrive at these samples, the probability and non-probability sampling procedure were employed. Following the probability sampling, lecturers were randomly selected. The population had an equal chance of being selected as a member of the sample.

Creswell (2014) recommended a random sample since each individual in the population had an equal probability of being selected. This sampling method was used on the administrators and some lecturers who were once in administration. The researcher randomly picked on lecturers who were willing to give information or to be interviewed. This provided qualitative data.

For a quantitative study, the purposive sampling of 17 administrators was used. The non-probability sampling method was ideal to find out how a small representative group was doing for the purpose of illustration. The researcher was interested in the representativeness of the concepts in their various forms. The administrators were automatically included in the study to provide insight information on the retention of lecturers at the University of Zambia between 1990 and 2016. Sixty-five (65) lecturers were sampled using stratified random sampling technique.

The non-probability sampling technique used in this study was purposive sampling. The researcher purposely targeted a group of people believed to be reliable for the study. This is also known as judgemental, selective or subjective sampling. The main goal of purposive sampling was to emphasise on particular characteristics of the population that were of interest which would best allow one to answer the research questions. It allowed selection of information-rich cases for in-depth study (Patten, 2017). Besides, the selection of individuals was vital and allowed the researcher to get individuals that were likely to have information needed to answer the research questions (Cohen *et al.*, 2014) and would be willing to share them with other people. This technique was used to select lecturers and administrators because of the nature of being either administrators or lecturers at UNZA. This purposively selected staff provided data for qualitative study.

### **3.9. Quality of Research Instruments**

Validity and reliability of the research instruments were ensured as follows:

#### **3.9.1. Validity**

Validity is the degree to which a measuring instrument measures what it claims to determine in the study. It is important to know whether an instrument measures the traits, characteristics, quality or whatever for which it is intended to measure (Kivunja and Kayuni, 2017).

In this study, the researcher used content validity for questionnaires and triangulation for interview guides, and document analysis guide. Content validity permitted the researcher to determine the content as well as the amount of data the instrument generated from the respondents. Furthermore, in this study, validation of qualitative and quantitative data in mixed methods designs used showed the importance of content validity. According to Creswell (2014), researchers apply validation of quantitative approach when they need to validate and expand the qualitative findings from a survey by incorporating views of judgment by a panel of experts to determine the validity of measuring instruments. Mugenda (2008) maintained that a judgmental procedure of determining whether an instrument is likely to yield content valid data, is to request professionals or experts in a particular field to review it and provide recommendations. The researcher ensured content validity of the said research instruments by ensuring that questions or items in it conformed to the study's Conceptual Framework. Relevance, wording and clarity of the questions or items in the instrument were also evaluated by both the researcher and colleagues. The instrument items were edited so that their validity coefficient was at least 0.70 or 70 percent. Items with validity co-efficient of at least 0.70 are established as valid in research (Campos *et al.*, 2017).

### **3.9.2. Reliability**

The said instruments were tested for reliability (Babbie, 2010). A reliable instrument for a piece of research will yield similar data from similar respondents over time. The research used internal consistency as this reliability type could be estimated from giving one form of a test once. The researcher administered the questionnaire to nine lecturers during pilot testing. The received responses were subjected to the Cronbach's alpha formula that was applied separately to specific sections in the instrument that had Likert scale items.

### **3.9.3. Credibility and Dependability of Qualitative Instruments**

Credibility and dependability was used to determine reliability of qualitative instruments, that is, the interview guides for current and former lecturers and administrators as well as the union. Shager *et al* (2013) states that credibility ascertains that the study reflects the experiences of those being studied and the results could be trusted. The researcher took time during the interviews and ensured that the participants explained and said all that they had wanted to say. The data collected from the interview guide was given to the participating respondents to confirm that what was captured was what they had actually said. The researcher confirmed that the data recorded was the correct one by asking some of the participants again for confirmation. To ascertain the consistency of findings, the researcher reviewed the raw data, the summary and the findings to see if there was any inconsistency. This was supplemented by members checking throughout the writing process. This was done by going back to the respondents from time to time to ascertain that what the researcher wrote was what was said in the interviews.

### **3.10. Data Collection Procedures**

The questionnaires were administered to the sampled lecturers in all the schools at UNZA. The researcher gave the respondents enough time to go through, and questions raised were answered accordingly. The responses were filled in on the printed questionnaires and were collected by the researcher after two weeks. The respondents cooperated very well in ensuring that all the questions were answered.

The face-to-face interviews with some lecturers who had been at UNZA from the 1990s were conducted. During the interviews, the researcher listened and formed an emphatic alliance with each interviewee and remained watchful of the themes presented. The union, and lecturers who had served for a long time and some lecturers who once taught at UNZA as well as some who were at one time administrators were interviewed and information was recorded. The researcher used a tape recorder whenever a respondent agreed to use it. Data collection was completed in six months from October 2015 to March 2016.

### **3.11. Data Analysis**

Writing about data analysis, Yarnold (2014) described a data analysis as a systematic way of assessing data by using logical reasons to scrutinise the mechanisms of data that had been collected through the numerous data collection approaches. It involved aiming to uncover and or understand the big picture by using the data to describe the phenomenon and what that meant. In order to be consistent with the research design, data analysis was done both by qualitative and quantitative (i.e. statistical) and computerised (using SPSS version 20) at three levels. The data from open-ended questionnaire items was grouped under broad themes and converted into percentages, which were then interpreted in relation to the data obtained through interviews.

### **3.11.1. Data Processing**

The collected data on SAQs were edited, categorised or coded and entered into a computer using the SPSS for generation of summary, frequency tables and graphics. During data editing, obvious errors were detected and wherever possible, were eliminated. For instance, the non-response to questions and the questionnaires that were not answered were dropped. SAQs with glaring inconsistencies, respondents whose ages were inconsistent with rank were also dropped. Other errors checked included carelessness, non-uniformities in recording answers, eligibilities, among others. During data categorising, the responses to each question in the completed SAQs were categorised and each category given an identification code. During data entry, data entry interface provided by SPSS was used. Then data summary was carried out, that is, the process of putting all the data and responses in a concise form to facilitate further analysis.

### **3.11.2. Quantitative Analysis**

In this study, data obtained through the interviews was recorded and transcribed. The transcribed data was then coded in themes and grouped according to the research objectives. The SPSS software was used to analyse the data collected using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics can discern the basic patterns in data (Simpson, 2015).

The mean, frequency tables, standard deviation and range inferential statistics were used to make interpretations concerning research proposition application to the study population.

Creswell and Creswell (2018) stated that it is important for the researcher to do pilot testing of the data gathering tools before proceeding to the field. A pilot test helps in

identifying any problems in the research methodology and data gathering techniques. A pilot study has several functions, but principally to increase the reliability and practicability of the questionnaires (Cohen *et al.*, 2007).

### **3.12. Pilot Testing**

A pilot study which was conducted among volunteers from the target population did evaluate the survey questionnaire for readability, understanding and cultural accuracy of its content. These volunteers helped to identify the minor problems such as spelling, language and gender sensitivity. Since the target population was not large in number, the participants in the pilot study were also asked to participate in the final survey. These participant respondents all came from UNZA. Similarly, a small group of volunteers was used to assess the integrity of the research techniques employed. These tests have actually helped in identifying the pitfalls in the study, which at the end were avoided.

Some volunteers (10) from the target population were asked to evaluate the survey questionnaires for factors such as flow of questions, logic, language, clarity and time to complete the questionnaire. These volunteers suggested that the time taken to complete the questionnaire was approximately 20 minutes. They concluded that it was sufficient but that an introductory statement from the researcher would have improved cooperation from the respondents. This observation was considered and accepted by the researcher. Therefore, the researcher considered a pilot study to be important to undertake because of its usefulness (Bell, 2002; Bryman, 2012).

The researcher carried out a pilot study at UNZA but the sampled questionnaires were not included in the final. The researcher composed one type of questionnaire for lecturers that were used to enable her to collect data. The questionnaires were still pilot tested. The researcher used piloting of data to determine the reliability of research instruments. This

has helped the researcher to identify language problems, typographical errors such as spelling mistakes made in the typing process of the questionnaire. Piloting has also helped the researcher to check whether the wording of questions was clear to the respondents. Piloting, therefore, helped the researcher to make necessary adjustments on the items found wanting, which has greatly improved the reliability of the instrument.

The researcher also tested the recording equipment to ensure its reliability. The instruments were revised accordingly after the pilot testing. The interview guide for lecturers was the one that was pilot tested because it was not practical to get the administrators for the same. The instruments were first pilot tested on a small sample of 10 lecturers as recommended by Johnson and Christensen (2012) that one should conduct a pilot test with a minimum of 5 to 10 people.

### **3.13. Ethical Considerations**

The study complied with all ethical consideration requirements and procedures. Firstly, in line with UNZA's strict ethical code for research, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the Department of Educational Administration and Policy Studies (EAPS) and the supervisors that allowed her to conduct the study. Upon approval of the research proposal by the supervisors and Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies (DRGS) at the University of Zambia, the researcher filled in consent forms at the Ethics Committee of Humanities and Social Sciences in order to be allowed to carry out the research. The researcher obtained a letter of consent from the Ethics Committees of UNZA and the Ministry of Health to carry out the data collection.

The introductory letters were obtained from the School of Humanities and Social Science Ethics Committee and the Ministry of Health Ethics Committee because the research involved different people; hence the researcher needing permission. There are several

reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research. Bryman (2012:118) indicates, "...first, ensure that no harm is made to the respondent. Second, respondents participate in the study out of their own volition. Third, the privacy of respondents is respected. Fourth, there is no deception involved in bringing the respondents into the study."

Having received written authorisation for the research, the investigator initiated access to the study participants. The permit gave informed consent of the Ethics Committee that was used by the researcher so as to approach the selected participants. The lecturers and administrators were approached by presenting to them the research permit as required by the Ethics Committee, requesting for permission to carry out research, which Fadare and Porteri (2010) indicate that only people who agree to participate in the research should be involved. Participants should always have enough information about the research to make an informed decision on whether to take part or not.

Moreover, the informed consent is based on any foreseen risks, guarantee of anonymity, confidentiality and identification of the researcher as recommended by Creswell (2014). The aspect of confidentiality was adhered to; the names of the participants were not disclosed in any way in this study. Privacy and confidentiality refer to unwanted disclosure of information about the participants which may potentially compromise them in some way (Cohen, 2007). The study avoided discrimination of participants on the basis of sex, race, ethnicity or other factors related to their scientific competence and integrity.

The researcher acknowledged that all the sources, which were used in the research were cited to avoid plagiarism, honest in reporting, and strictly adhere to the Harvard system. Materials from different books, journal articles, magazines, and empirical studies were

cited properly and direct quotes from the interviews were acknowledged (Creswell, 2014).

Application of ethical concerns was required in document or content analysis. According to Gelinis *et al.* (2016) the researcher needed to seek permission to obtain and use official documents that belonged to the institutions and offices in which the study was being conducted. That was done and the researcher stated the purpose of document analysis and pledged to preserve the documents and their confidential contents. The documents were properly kept to avoid corruption and mutilation and were returned promptly. Finally, as a scholarly piece of work, the academic writing standards set by UNZA, was followed.

### **3.14. Chapter Summary**

This chapter described the research design and philosophical approach for the study. The Saunders Research Onion was discussed in order to bring out the Philosophy of the study. A pragmatic research approach was advanced. The research design used was convergent parallel mixed method design. This is where the quantitative and qualitative approaches were concurrently employed for the purpose of producing triangulated findings, analysed and merged, compared and interpreted to give a detailed analysis of the research problem. The research strategy used was a case study. Due to the time which was fixed for the study, a cross-sectional time horizon was used.

The research, as explained in this chapter, consisted of standardised methodologies to gather information by examining systematically identified population samples. The participants were selected from a population of 617 lecturers and 334 administrators at UNZA. A sample of 113 participants took part in the study. Quantitative data was collected from 17 administrators and 65 lecturers who were purposively selected. On the

other hand, qualitative data were collected from 31 respondents who were randomly selected. The questionnaire was pilot tested in order to assess its accuracy. The quantitative data was coded and then arranged according to themes in the SPSS version 20 and analysed statistically.

The reliability and validity of research instruments were taken into consideration. The ethical concerns of the study were implemented. The next chapter will present the findings of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATIONS OF FINDINGS**

### **4.1. Overview**

The previous chapter looked at the methodology that was used in the study. A mixed method approach was used. Both qualitative and quantitative designs were used in this study. The ethical considerations from the School of Humanities and Social Sciences as well as the Ministry of Health were followed strictly.

Chapter four presents the findings of the study. The data was collected quantitatively and qualitatively. The data revealed some of the possible reasons for migrating to other types of jobs, the benefits of turnover and also the impact and management of lecturer turnover as well as the strategies for reducing it. The findings in this chapter have been categorised according to the following research questions:

- i) What factors caused lecturers to leave UNZA for alternative employment?
- ii) What were the consequences of lecturers' turnover at UNZA?
- iii) What strategies did UNZA use in the retention of lecturers?

### **4.2. What factors caused Lecturers to Leave UNZA for alternative employment?**

One of the questions of the study wanted to find out factors that contributed to lecturers leaving UNZA. Respondents were asked a question on whether salaries and other financial benefits contributed to their departure from UNZA.

Their responses were shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Responses from participants on low salaries and other financial benefits

	F	%
Strongly Disagree	5	7.7
Disagree	18	27.7
Agree	15	23.1
Strongly Agree	27	41.5
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

The above table shows that five (7.7%) lecturers strongly agreed, 18 (27.7%) disagreed, 15 (23.1%) agreed while 27 (41.5%) strongly agreed that salaries and other financial benefits contributed to lecturers leaving UNZA. These findings clearly showed that salaries and other financial benefits were a contributing factor to the departure of lecturers from UNZA.

#### **4.2.1. Poor economic conditions in the country**

Participants were asked if the poor economic condition in the country were a factor to lecturers' retention or departure away from the Institution.

The responses of the participants are summarised in Figure 4.4.

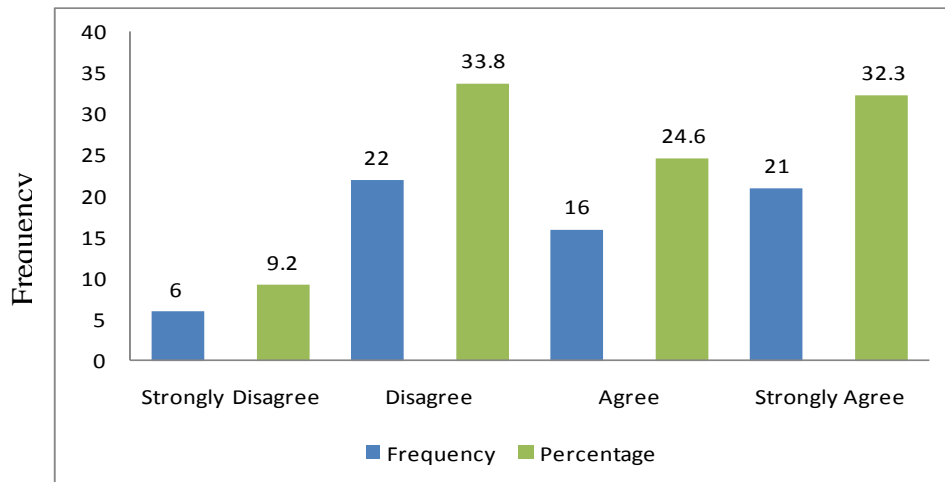


Figure 4.4: Poor Economic Conditions (Source: Field work, 2018)

It was observed in figure 4.4 above that six (9.2%) strongly disagreed, 22 (33.8%) disagreed, 16 (24.6%) agreed and 21 (32.3%) strongly agreed that poor economic conditions were a factor in lecturers' turnover at UNZA. From these responses, it could be ascertained that one of the determinants of lecturers' stay or exodus from the University of Zambia was the poor economic conditions in the country.

#### **4.2.2. Poor School Infrastructure and shortage of Teaching and Learning Resources**

Views were sought from participants on whether poor infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources contributed to the retention of lecturers at the University of Zambia.

The responses of the participants are shown in Figure 4.5.

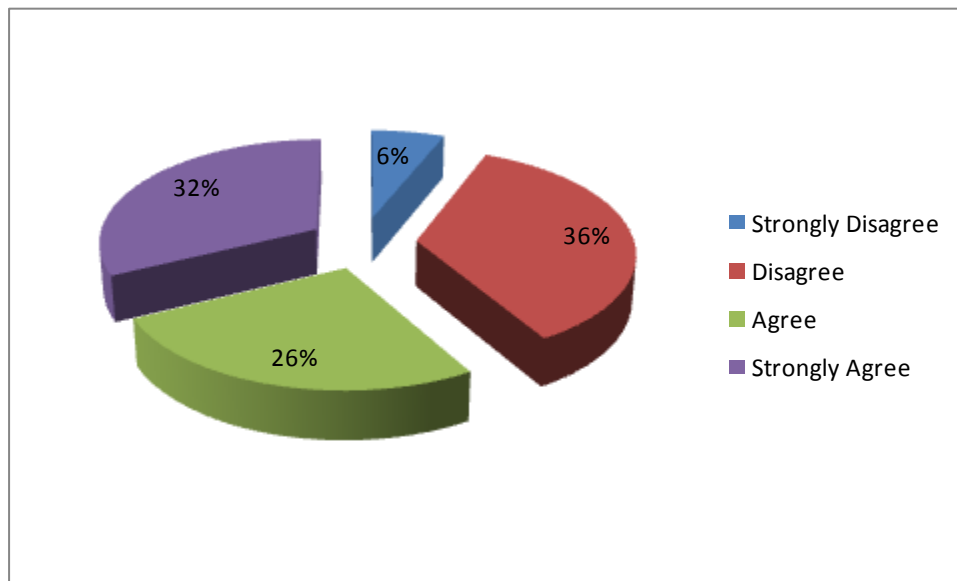


Figure 4.5: Poor School Infrastructure and Shortage of teaching and learning resources

(Source: Field work, 2018)

The study revealed that 6% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 36 % disagreed, 26 % agreed while 32% strongly agreed with this argument. In as much as some respondents did not agree with the assertion that good infrastructure and teaching/ learning resources contributed in motivating the lecturers to remain at UNZA, majority of the respondents agreed with this idea. Hence, there was a serious need for UNZA to address the challenges that arose from poor infrastructure and lack of effective teaching and learning materials at the campus so as to enable the lecturers deliver to the best of their abilities and remain at the institution.

#### **4.2.3. Lack of housing**

Respondents were asked to give their views on shortage and lack of housing as possible contributing factors to the institution's ability to retain its lecturers.

The responses of the respondents are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Views of Respondents on lack of housing

Participants' reactions on shortage or lack of housing at UNZA	F	%
Strongly Disagree	10	15.4
Disagree	20	30.8
Agree	24	36.9
Strongly Agree	11	16.9
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

The responses from the study revealed that 10 (15.4%) strongly disagreed, and 20 (30.8%) disagreed with the view that shortage or lack of housing for lecturers was a reason why UNZA could not keep its staff. On the other hand, 24 (36.9%) agreed while 11 (16.9%) strongly agreed with this view. Therefore, housing is one such incentive, which UNZA should provide to its staff as this would alleviate most challenges that the members of staff faced when it came to accommodation.

#### **4.2.4. Lack of professional development opportunities**

Professional development opportunities are one strategy that various institutions and organisations have used in retaining their staff. Participants of the study were given an opportunity to state their views in relation to this important strategy to retaining lecturers in the institution.

Reactions of participants are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Views of respondents on lack of professional development opportunities

Views of participants on lack of professional development opportunities	F	%
Strongly disagree	7	10.8
Disagree	17	26.2
Agree	25	38.5
Strongly agree	16	24.6
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

The responses that were obtained indicated that seven (10.8%) strongly disagreed, 17 (26.2%) disagreed, 25 (38.5%) agreed while 16 (24.6%) strongly agreed. From these figures, the study found that indeed, professional development opportunities were of great significance in as far as retention of lecturers at UNZA was concerned. Hence, the university should come up with programmes tailored to support the professional development of its lecturers if it is to uphold its retention policy.

#### **4.2.5. Political appointments of lecturers from UNZA**

The study sought to find out from the participants whether political appointments from UNZA affected the retention of lecturers at the institution.

The responses were shown in Figure 4.6.

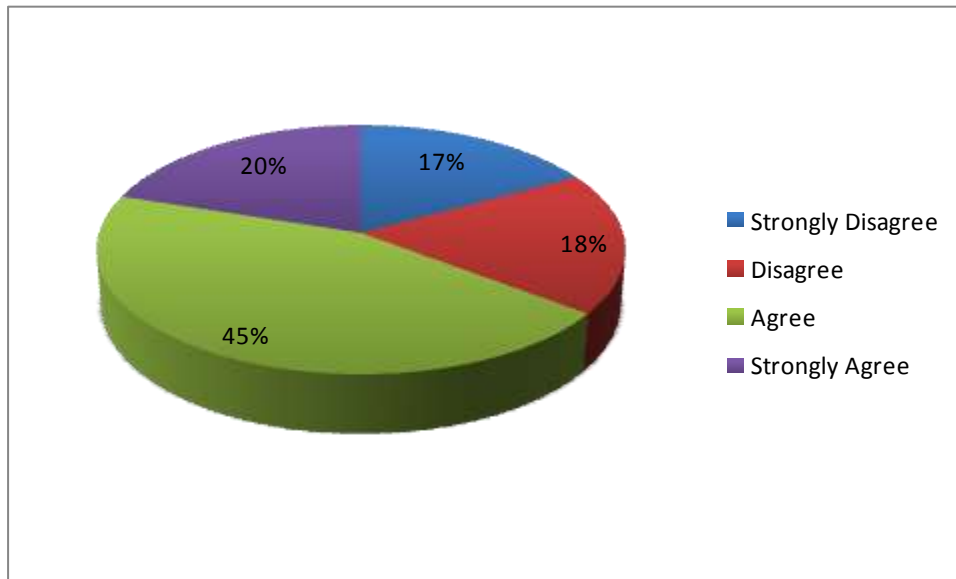


Figure 4.6: Opinions of participants on political appointments (Source: Field work, 2018)

It was revealed that 17% strongly disagreed, 18% disagreed with political appointments being a factor in staff retention at UNZA while 45% agreed and 20 % strongly agreed that politics were a major factor as to why lecturers could not stay at UNZA after being given a political appointment.

#### **4.2.6. Retirement**

Lecturers from UNZA who took part in the study were to give their views on whether retirement was a major contributing factor to the retention of lecturers at the institution.

The responses were shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Views of respondents on retirement as cause of leaving UNZA

	F	%
Strongly Disagree	10	15.4
Disagree	12	18.5
Agree+	34	52.3
Strongly Agree	9	13.8
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

From Table 4.4, 10 (15.4%) of the respondents strongly agreed, 12 (18.5%) disagreed, 34 (52.3%) agreed and nine (13.8%) strongly agreed with the question. Therefore, basing on these figures given by the participants, retirement was among the causes that contributed to the low retention of lecturers at UNZA.

#### **4.2.7. Benefits of turnover**

The study sought to establish whether there were benefits that leaving of lecturing could have brought about.

The reactions of participants are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Opinions of participants on benefits of turnover

Scale	1		2		3		4	
Degree of Agreement or Disagreement	SD		D		A		SA	
Frequencies and Percentages	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Higher Income	4	6.2	19	29.2	30	46.2	12	18.5
Acquisition of new knowledge, skills and expertise	3	4.6	5	7.7	34	52.3	23	35.4
Establishment of new networks and contacts	2	3.1	9	13.8	39	60.0	15	23.1
New cultural experiences	4	6.2	20	30.8	32	49.2	9	13.8

(Source: Field work, 2018)

#### 4.2.7.1 High Income on Turnover

The study sought to find out if there was any high income on turnover on the university. From the responses that were obtained, four (6.2%) strongly disagreed, 19 (29.2%) disagreed while 30 (46.2%) agreed and 12 (18.5%) strongly agreed. From these findings, it can be deduced that turnover had more disadvantages on the institution's ability to retain its lecturers. Hence, the rate at which UNZA loses lecturers due to turnover left the institution with no option but to grapple in as far as staffing levels were concerned.

#### 4.2.7.2. Acquisition of new knowledge, skills and expertise

Respondents were asked to give their opinions on the benefits that turnover had brought to the institution in acquiring new knowledge, skills and expertise as shown in Table

4.11. From the obtained responses, three (4.6%) strongly disagreed, five (7.7%) disagreed, 34 (52.3%) agreed while 23 (35.4%) strongly agreed. In as much as acquisition of new knowledge, skills and expertise is vital in the running of institutions of higher learning like UNZA, it has not paid off for the much-needed expertise usually leave the institution in search for greener pastures.

#### **4.2.7.3. Establishment of new networks and contacts**

Further, respondents were asked to comment on whether establishment of new networks and contacts had helped UNZA to retain lecturers. From what was obtained from the respondents, it was discovered that two (3.1%) strongly disagreed, nine (13.8) disagreed, 39 (60%) agreed and 15 (23.1%) strongly agreed. Networking in any institution is very vital but the findings showed that it had not helped UNZA to retain the much-needed members of staff.

#### **4.2.7.4. New cultural experience**

Participants were asked how new cultural experiences had helped UNZA to retain its lecturers. From the findings that were obtained, four (6.2%) strongly disagreed, 20 (30.8%) disagreed, 32 (49.2%) agreed while nine (13.8%) strongly agreed. From these responses, inasmuch as new cultural experiences had a great bearing on individual lecturers, they benefited little at UNZA. Hence, retention of members of staff especially lecturers was something which should not even be emphasized.

#### **4.2.8. Challenges lecturers experienced**

The research sought the views of respondents on the challenges they faced as a result of working at the University of Zambia.

The reactions of respondents are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Challenges lecturers experienced as a result of working in UNZA

Challenges mostly encountered by lecturers at the university	F	%
Lack of loans	10	6.2
Lack of time for internal workshops and seminars	11	6.8
Lack of research funds	14	8.7
Overcrowding in lecture theatres	24	15
Heavy workload which hampers research	13	8.1
No enough professors to mentor junior lecturers	5	3.1
Lack of modern research facilities	18	11.2
Lack of office space	6	3.7
Out-dated books in the library	11	6.8
Poor subscription to journal and articles	6	3.7
Lack of motivation	17	10.6
Delayed payment of gratuity	10	6.2
Riotous behaviour by students	5	3.1
Total	160	93.2

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was found out that 10 (6.2%) of the respondents cited lack of loans from the institution as a major challenge. Then, 11 (6.8%) of the respondents indicated that lack of time for internal workshops and seminars at the campus were a major challenge to the retention policy of the university. Furthermore, 14 (8.7%) identified lack of adequate research funds at the campus which made research to be relegated to the peripheral of the institution and 24 (15%) of participants pointed out that overcrowding in lecture theatres was a challenge which impacted negatively on the smooth running of the university. Heavy workload which hampered research at the institution was cited as a challenge by 13 (8.1%) respondents while five (3.1%) respondents pointed out lack of modern research facilities as a major challenge that UNZA was facing. In addition, six (3.7%) mentioned lack of enough office space while 11 (6.8%) highlighted the out-dated books in the library as some of the challenges that lecturers at UNZA faced in the execution of their duties. Poor subscription to journals and articles was another major challenge cited by six (3.7%) respondents, 17 (10.6) cited lack of motivation, 10 (6.2%) pointed out delayed payment of gratuity and 5 (3.1%) cited riotous behaviour as the major challenges that lecturers at UNZA faced.

#### **4.2.9. Professional contacts with other universities outside Zambia**

The research sought to investigate whether UNZA lecturers made professional contacts with other universities outside Zambia.

The responses were shown in Figure 4.7.

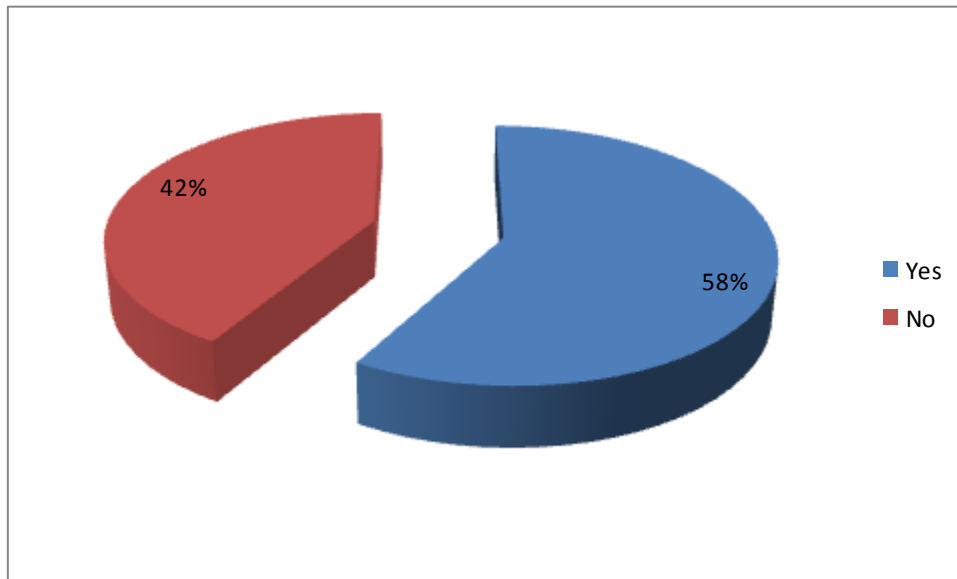


Figure 4.7: Contacts with other universities outside Zambia (Source: Field work, 2018)

Participants were asked whether they made professional contacts with other universities outside Zambia. It was observed that 58 % of the respondents affirmed that they made these professional contacts while 42% did not make any professional contacts with universities outside Zambia. Hence, the fact that the highest number of lecturers made professional contacts with other universities, it helped them to explore opportunities outside Zambia and it was possible for lecturers to leave UNZA for other universities which offered better services.

#### **4.2.10. Recruitment process at UNZA**

The figure below shows the responses that participants of the study gave over the recruitment process of UNZA lecturers.

The following responses are displayed in Figure 4.8.

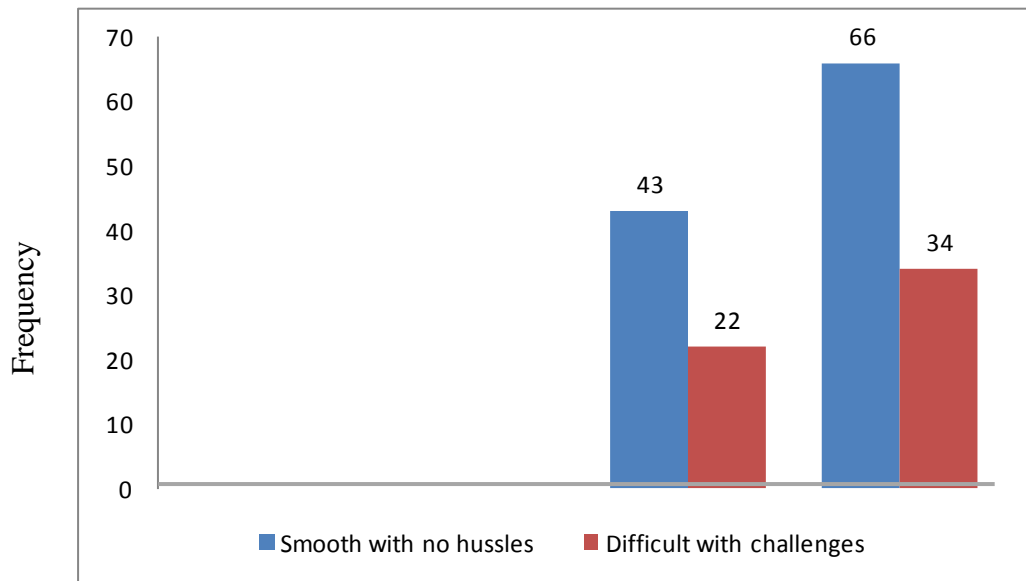


Figure 4.8: Recruitment process at UNZA (Source: Field work, 2018)

It was noticed that 22 (34%) of the respondents had difficulties and challenges in securing a job at UNZA while 43 (66%) did not have much difficulties and challenges, it was smooth for them.

#### 4.2.11. Process of recruitment

Furthermore, respondents were asked to give their opinions regarding the process of recruitment at UNZA. The following table 4.7 shows the reactions from the participants:

Table 4.7 Responses on the process of recruitment

	F	%
The position was advertised, applied and attended interviews	18	28
The process usually takes long to be considered for employment	15	23
Some were picked under Staff Development Fellow	20	31
Getting a job at UNZA is characterised by nepotism and tribalism	10	15
Through FIP as a global professional body	2	3
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

Twenty-eight per cent (18) of the participants affirmed that they found employment at UNZA when positions were advertised and they applied and attended interviews, 15 (23%) alluded to the fact that the process usually took too long for one to be considered for employment while 20 (31%) said that they were picked under staff development fellow process. Furthermore, 10 (15%) of the respondents brought out the aspect of getting a job at UNZA being characterised by nepotism and tribalism while two (3%) of the participants got their jobs through FIP global professional body.

#### 4.2.12. Number of lecturers who left

The study sought to establish the number of lecturers who had left UNZA from 1990 to 2016. The following were the responses of the participants showed in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Number of Lecturers who had left

Year	Gender		F	%
	Male	Female		
1991-1995	-	-	-	-
1995-2000	-	-	-	-
2000-2005	3	2	5	6
2005-2010	15	9	24	31
2010-2015	36	13	49	63
Total	54	24	78	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

Participants were asked to give the figures of their colleagues who had left UNZA between the years 1991 and 2016. It was discovered that there were no lecturers who left UNZA between 1991 and 2000. However, between 2000 and 2005, three male and two female lecturers, representing 6% left UNZA. Between 2005 and 2010, 15 % male and nine % female lecturers left the campus and between 2010 and 2015, a total of 36 male and 13 % female lecturers left UNZA. In total, 54 male and 24 female lecturers left UNZA between 2000 and 2016.

#### 4.2.13. Courses mostly offered by expatriate lecturers

Lecturers from UNZA were asked on what courses expatriate lecturers usually offered at UNZA. Table 4.9 summarises the responses from the respondents on the courses offered by expatriate lecturers at UNZA in the period under study.

Table 4.9 Courses mostly offered by Expatriate Lecturers

Responses	F	%
Languages	1	4
Mathematics	2	9
Sciences (Chemistry, Physics, Biology, School of Medicine, Mines, Agriculture)	8	35
Technological Education such as ICT	3	13
Education	1	4
Humanities and Social Sciences	3	13
Business Studies	5	22
Others (Specify)	-	-
Total	23	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was observed that there was one (4%) expatriate lecturer in the languages department, two (9%) were found in the Mathematics department, eight (35%) in the Natural Sciences department while three (13%) were found in the Technological Education such as ICT department. Additionally, there was one (4%) expatriate lecturer in the Education

department, three (13%) were in the Humanities and Social Sciences and five (22%) were in the Business studies department. There were no lecturers who indicated any other faculty or department where they were lecturing.

#### 4.2.14. Loss of lecturers to universities in other countries

The question was posed to the respondents whether UNZA lost lecturers to other countries. The Figure 4.9 shows the views of the respondents:

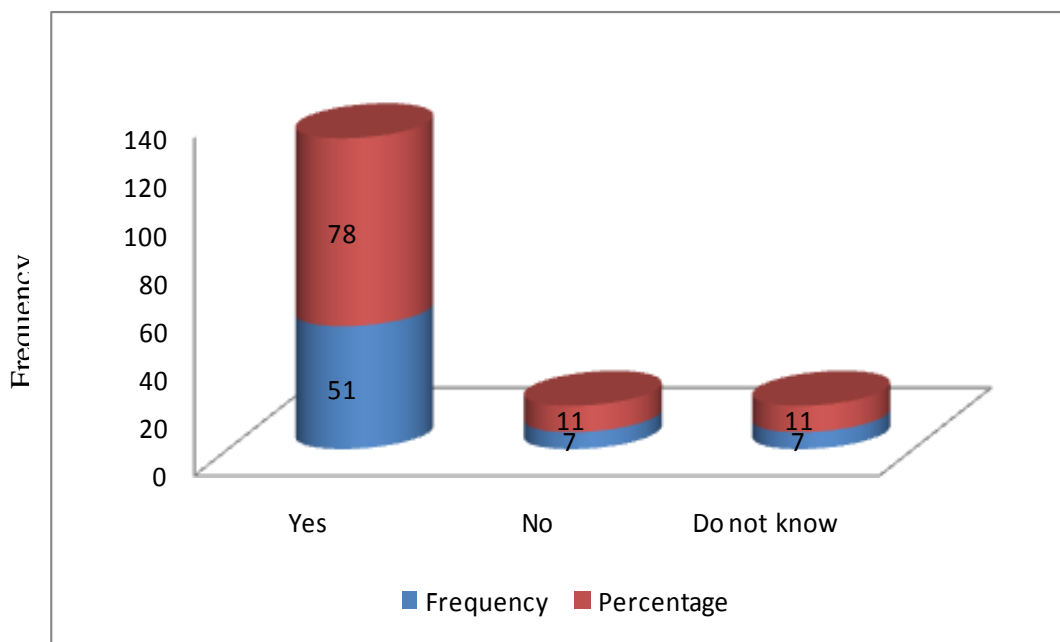


Figure 4.9: Lecturers who had left UNZA (Source: Field work, 2018)

From the obtained responses as indicated in Figure 4.12, 51 (78%) respondents totally agreed while seven (11%) did not agree and seven (11%) did not know. The findings of the stated percentages showed clearly that lecturers indeed left UNZA.

#### 4.2.15. Causes of lecturer migration

The study also sought to establish some of the causes of lecturers migrating from UNZA to other universities and other establishments.

The responses are summarised as indicated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Causes of lecturer migration

Scale	1	2	3	4
Degree of Agreement	SD	D	A	SA
Frequencies and Percentages	f	f	f	f
	%	%	%	%
Low salaries and other financial benefits	2 3.1	6 9.2	29 44.6	28 43.1
Poor economic conditions in the country	1 1.5	8 12.3	36 55.4	20 30.8
Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources	- -	11 16.9	32 49.2	22 33.8
Shortage and lack of accommodation	3 4.6	15 23.1	36 55.4	11 16.9
Lack of professional development opportunities	3 4.6	13 20.0	36 55.4	13 20.0
Political appointments	7 10.8	19 29.2	26 40.0	13 20.0
Retirements	6 9.2	11 16.9	30 46.2	18 27.7

(Source: Field work, 2018)

#### 4.2.15.1. Low salaries and other financial benefits

Opinions were sought from the respondents on whether low salaries and other financial benefits were the causes of lecturer migration from UNZA. The following were the views by the participants as indicated in the table above. While two (3.1%) of the respondents

strongly disagreed, six (9.2%) disagreed, 29 (44.6%) agreed, 28 (43.1%) strongly agreed that low salaries and other financial benefits caused lecturers to leave UNZA.

#### **4.2.15.2. Poor economic conditions in the country**

Participants gave their views in regard to poor economic situation in the country. While one (1.5%) participant strongly agreed, eight (12.3%) disagreed, 36 (55.4%) agreed and 20 (30.8%) strongly agreed that the prevailing economic situation caused some lecturers to leave UNZA.

#### **4.2.15.3. Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources**

Participants were asked to give their opinions on the state of university infrastructure and adequacy of teaching and learning resources. The findings of the study revealed that there were no respondents who strongly disagreed with this assertion; 11 (16.9%) disagreed, 32 (49.2%) agreed while 22 (33.8%) strongly agreed that the state of infrastructure at UNZA was in bad shape and teaching and learning materials were in acute shortage.

#### **4.2.15.4. Shortage and lack of accommodation**

Views were solicited from the lecturers on how adequate accommodation contributed to lecturers leaving the institution of higher learning in Zambia. The findings of the study revealed that three (4.6%) strongly disagreed, 15 (23.1%) disagreed, 36 (55.4%) agreed while 11 (16.9%) strongly agreed that shortage of accommodation could have caused dissatisfaction to lecturers.

#### **4.2.15.5. Lack of professional development opportunities**

When lecturers were asked about opportunities that UNZA provided for professional development, the following responses were given: whereby three (4.6%) of the respondents strongly disagreed with this assertion, 13 (20.0%) disagreed while 36

(55.4%) agreed and 13 (20.0%) strongly agreed with this assertion. It was therefore observed that majority of the respondents were for the view that lack of professional development opportunities for lecturers contributed to their departure from UNZA.

#### **4.2.15.6. Political appointments**

Respondents were asked to comment on whether political appointments affected the retention of lecturers at UNZA. From the findings that were obtained, seven (10.8%) of the lecturers strongly disagreed, 19 (29.2%) disagreed, 26 (40.0%) agreed while 13 (20.0%) strongly agreed. It was discovered that appointing of lecturers to various political offices was a factor that greatly contributed to low retention of lecturers at the university.

#### **4.2.15.7. Retirements**

When lecturers retire, there is always a need of having them replaced. The study sought to find out whether retirement of lecturers at UNZA had an effect on the retention of staff. It was realised that six (9.2%) of respondents strongly disagreed, 11 (16.9%) disagreed, 30 (46.2%) agreed and 18 (27.7%) strongly agreed. Hence, these findings were a clear indication that retirement of lecturers contributed to low retention of lecturers at UNZA.

#### **4.2.16. Responses of administrators**

Other than collecting the data from lecturers, the study sought to establish the views of administrators on lecturers who left the University of Zambia. The responses of administrators are summarised in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Responses of Participants on the Lecturers who left the university

Year	Gender		F	%
	Male	Female		
1991-1995	8	2	10	6
1995-2000	15	2	17	8
2000-2005	21	4	25	14
2005-2010	39	19	58	30
2010-2015	52	34	86	42
Total	135	61	196	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was revealed from the above that in 1991 and 1995, eight male and two female lecturers left the institution. This brought the total number to 10 resulting in 6% of lecturer turnover. Between 1995 and 2000, 15 male and two female lecturers left UNZA which brought the total to 17 or 8% turnover rate over the period. From 2000 to 2005, 21 male and four female lecturers left over the same period of time. This translated into the total number of 25 lecturers who left the institution. Between 2005 and 2010, 39 male and 19 female lectures left UNZA, bringing the total number of turnovers over the same period of time to 58. From 2010 to 2015, 86 lecturers (52 male and 34 female) left UNZA as the table above indicates. It was clear that the rate at which lecturers left UNZA from 1991 to 2015 had been increasing steadily which made it difficult for UNZA to have a stable working staff.

#### 4.2.17. Courses mostly offered by expatriate lecturers

Administrators were asked to highlight the courses that were mostly handled by expatriate lecturers at UNZA. Responses are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Courses mostly offered by expatriates

Responses	f	%
Languages	-	-
Mathematics	-	-
Sciences (Chemistry, Physics, Biology, School of Medicine, Mines, Agriculture)	2	50
Technological Education such as ICT	-	-
Education	-	-
Humanities and Social Sciences	2	50
Business/Library Studies	-	-
Others (Specify)	-	-
Total	4	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was revealed that there were no expatriate lecturers in the Languages and Mathematics. While two (50%) administrator respondents identified natural sciences as a department with expatriate lecturers, no expatriate lecturers were found in the technological education department such as ICT or education department and two (50%) respondents mentioned humanities and social sciences as having expatriate lecturers. Furthermore, there were no expatriate lecturers in business or Library Studies and other disciplines

which were not specified. These findings revealed that there was a reduction in the number of expatriate lecturers and if the high rate of turnover is not checked with local lecturers, UNZA might suffer a setback of academic personnel which might render the institution ineffective in its service delivery.

#### 4.2.18. Loss of lecturers from UNZA to universities in other countries

Administrator respondents were asked whether there was loss of lecturers to other institutions or countries. The participants' responses are shown in Figure 14.10.

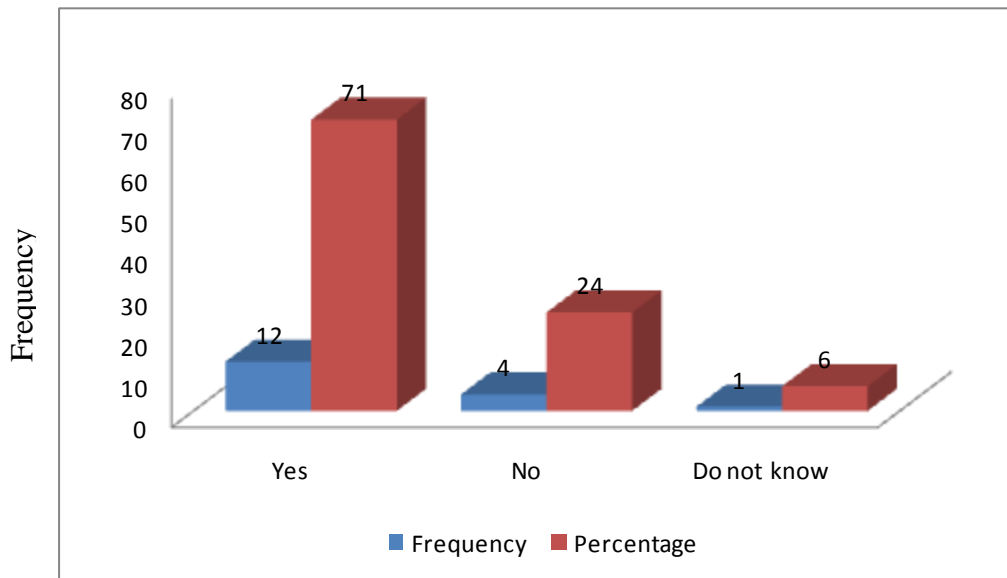


Figure 4.10: Responses of the administrators on lecturers who had left UNZA

(Source: Field work, 2018)

From the responses that were obtained, 12 (71%) respondents agreed, four (24%) said no while one (6%) did not know whether UNZA lost lecturers to other countries. From these findings, it can be deduced that indeed lecturers' turnover at UNZA was a reality needing the necessary attention.

#### 4.2.19. Responses of administrators on why lecturers left their institutions for other countries

The study sought to collect data from administrators on the reasons lecturers left UNZA for other countries and other establishments. The reactions of respondents were shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Responses by administrators why lecturer left UNZA

Scale	1		2		3		4	
Degree of Agreement	SD		D		A		SA	
Frequency and Percentages	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Low salaries and other financial benefits	3	21.4	2	14.3	4	28.6	5	35.7
Poor economic conditions in the country	3	21.4	3	21.4	5	35.7	3	21.4
Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources	2	14.3	1	7.1	8	57.1	3	21.4
Shortage and lack of accommodation	5	35.7	5	35.7	2	14.3	2	14.3
Lack of professional development opportunities	2	14.3	6	42.9	4	28.6	2	14.3
Political appointments	4	28.6	3	21.4	5	35.7	2	14.3
Retirements	4	28.6	1	7.1	7	50.1	2	14.3

(Source: Field work, 2018)

#### **4.2.19.1. Low salaries and other financial benefits**

Administrators were asked on whether low salaries and other financial benefits contributed to the lecturers leaving UNZA for other universities. From the obtained responses in Table 4.13, three (21.4%) respondents strongly disagreed, two (14.3%) disagreed, four (28.6%) agreed while five (35.7%) strongly agreed. Therefore, it was evident from the findings that lecturers left UNZA for greener pastures.

#### **4.2.19. 2. Poor Economic conditions in the country**

A statement was given to the participants about poor economic conditions in the country being a factor influencing lecturers to leave UNZA for greener pastures. From the responses that were given, it was realised that three (21.4%) of the respondents strongly disagreed while three (21.4%) disagreed. Furthermore, five (35.7%) agreed and three (21.4%) strongly agreed. These findings from administrators clearly indicated that the state of the country's economy had an effect on the retention of lecturers at UNZA.

#### **4.2.19.3. Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources**

Administrators were asked to give their views on whether poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources contributed to low retention of lecturers at UNZA. From the responses given, two (14.3%) strongly disagreed, one (7.1%) disagreed, eight (57.1%) agreed and three (21.4%) strongly agreed. Motivation did not only come from monetary gains that lecturers obtained at UNZA but also from the quality of infrastructure and teaching and learning resources that were provided at the university.

#### **4.2.19.4 Shortage and lack of accommodation**

The study sought to find out from the respondents whether the university provided adequate accommodation to its staff. The responses were as follows: five (35.7%)

strongly disagreed, five (37.5%) disagreed while two (14.3%) agreed and two (14.3%) strongly agreed that shortage and lack of accommodation could have caused some lecturers to leave UNZA for other institutions.

#### **4.2.19.5. Lack of professional development opportunities**

Professional development opportunities for lecturers were one area that participants at UNZA were asked about and how it contributed to lecturers leaving the institution. According to the responses, two (14.3%) strongly disagreed with this assertion, six (42.9%) disagreed while four (28.6%) agreed and two (14.3%) strongly agreed. These responses were not far from each other in terms of agreement and disagreement among the respondents. Therefore, it was concluded that staff development opportunities did not contribute to lecturers leaving UNZA.

#### **4.2.19.6. Political appointments**

Administrators were asked how political appointments affected the retention of lecturers at UNZA. The findings obtained from the field revealed that four (28.6%) strongly disagreed, three (21.4%) disagreed, five (35.7%) agreed while two (14.3%) strongly agreed. These findings from the administrators revealed that it was possible for political appointments to affect the retention of lecturers but at the same time these appointments were made once in a while and had no effect on lecturer turnover as the figures revealed. Therefore, political appointments by the government had no much impact on the retention of lecturers.

#### **4.2.19.7. Retirements**

Retirement was cited as a major factor for low retention of lecturers at UNZA. When administrators were asked to give their views on this factor, four (28.6%) strongly

disagreed, one (7.1%) disagreed, seven (50.1%) strongly agreed and two (14.3%) agreed. Therefore, these findings clearly showed that indeed retirement was a factor that contributed to low retention of lecturers.

#### **4.2.20. Feeling unappreciated**

Employees decided to seek employment elsewhere for a number of reasons. Among other reasons for quitting, the findings from the interviews showed that issues such as feeling unappreciated or unchallenged were common. Unreasonable working hours, unpleasant working conditions, and undesirable work schedules were other common reasons cited by participants.

As **Lect. 1** (2016) pointed out:

*Lecturer training provides opportunities to widen their knowledge and abilities for more efficient teamwork and achieve individual development. When workers receive self-development training, the level of their job satisfaction is higher than those without such training.*

In view of the above, most of the respondents were in agreement with the statement that employee job satisfaction was influenced when they have an opportunity for advancement of individual competencies through various training programmes. A number of lecturers from some schools indicated that in the absence of the above, lecturers opt to seek greener pastures elsewhere. **Lect 2** (2016) stated:

*Demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status and job tenure are important in determining the intention to quit. The older the age of the employee, the lower the probability of the employee to resign.*

This is because the senior workers do not have a wide range of options in searching for employment opportunities. Besides, the older workers are more loyal to the organisation because they expect a higher salary for a long period of service, as the longer paid leave and pension benefits are more attractive.

One of the interesting findings concerning the importance of demographic factors and how they influenced some lecturers to resign was stated by **Lect. 3** (2016) as follows:

Employees who are married have lower rates of both absence and turnover and are more satisfied with their jobs compared to workers who are single.

The findings of this study showed that employees who were not married had a greater intention to leave their universities than the married ones. This discovery was based on the fact that married employees had more family responsibilities and needed a stable financial status to support them.

#### **4.2.21. Job security**

On the dilemma of the teaching staff leaving the institution, the findings showed that lecturers were living under the fear of rationalisation, retrenchment or retirement, and they often chose to find their exit before the powers gave the marching orders. **Lect. 4** (2016) pointed out:

*The reasons advanced for the Lecturers' leaving include their increasing negative, diminished power and prestige and salaries and conditions of service.*

In addition to this is a need for the university to build more lecture rooms and provide more teaching and learning material. Added to this was the fact that the attributes, which normally kept the academic mind in the universities – rich collection of up-to-date books and journals in libraries, functional laboratories, bustling seminars and research grants, had all become rare commodities. This made other academic staff to leave.

#### **4.2.22. Staff development**

The findings further revealed that brain drain had also been seen as a direct consequence of the failure of past governments to provide an enabling environment for scholarship as

well as what appears to be an established culture of anti-intellectualism at the highest level.

One of the **Lect. 5** (2016) had this to say:

*In every organisation, there is a need to influence the amount of effort that workers will put into their job for better performance. In the past, most managers believed that human beings are inherently lazy, have dislike for work and try to avoid it and its responsibilities. They seek security and are forced to work in order to gain organisational goals. Today, experience has shown that attempts to treat employees like machines will result in voluntary quits and low productivity.*

It was generally acknowledged by most participants that university administrators tended to blame their turnover problems on everything under the sun, while ignoring the root of the matter that people did not leave jobs; they leave managers.

#### **4.2.23. Over working lecturers**

One of the reasons why lecturers left an institution, according to the findings, was because of being overworked by administrators and supervisors. Nothing burns good employees out quite like overworking them. **Lect. 6** (2016) stated that,

*It's so tempting to work your best people hard that managers frequently fall into this trap. Overworking good employees is perplexing; it makes them feel as if they are being punished for great performance.*

Talented employees could take on a bigger workload, but they could not stay if their jobs suffocated them in the process. Raises, promotions, and title-changes were all acceptable ways to increase workload. If the manager simply increased the workload because people were talented, without changing a thing, the subordinates would seek other jobs that give them what they deserve. Such a scenario leads to lecturers leaving for better conditions of service elsewhere.

#### **4.2.24. Promotion**

One other outstanding point raised was that administrators and especially the government's inability to honour their commitment towards the university lecturers was one of the leading contributors to lecturers leaving. Respondents pointed out that making promises to people placed administrators and especially the government on a thin line between making them very happy and watching them walk out of the door. One respondent (2016) wondered, "If the administrator does not honour his or her commitments, why should everyone else?"

Another **Lect. 7** (2016) pointed out:

*The university administration employs and promotes the wrong people. Good, hard-working employees want to work with likeminded professionals. When managers don't do the hard work of hiring good people, it is a major de-motivator for those stuck working alongside them.*

Promoting the wrong people is even worse. Many respondents pointed out that when lecturers worked hard, they were surprised that they were never promoted hence they became discouraged and frustrated and they leave.

### **4.3. What were the consequences of lecturers' turnover at UNZA?**

#### **4.3.1 Impact and management of lecturer turnover**

The study sought to establish the possible impact of lecturers' turnover and how the impact was managed by UNZA. The responses are summarised in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Impact and management of lecturer turnover

Scale	1		2		3		4	
Degree of Agreement	SD		D		A		SA	
Frequencies and Percentages	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
The university had a shortage of lecturers	4	6.2	9	13.8	23	35.4	29	44.6
Turnover has helped to create employment for more lectures	11	16.9	23	35.4	21	32.3	10	15.4
There has not been any impact on the quality of education	19	29.2	28	43.1	12	18.5	6	9.2
Returning lecturers have come back with new skills and expertise	7	10.8	17	26.2	35	53.8	6	9.2
Lecturers in the Diaspora have supported our university and lecturers	28	43.1	25	38.5	9	13.8	3	4.6

(Source: Field work, 2018)

#### 4.3.2. The University had a shortage of lecturers

The study sought to find out whether UNZA had enough lecturers in its various faculties. From the findings, four (6.2%) strongly disagreed with this assertion, nine (13.8%) disagreed that the university had a shortage of lectures while 23 (35.4%) agreed and 29 (44.6%) strongly agreed that indeed the University of Zambia had an acute shortage of lecturers.

#### 4.3.3. Turnover had helped to create employment for more lecturers

Respondents were asked how turnover had impacted on employment creation at UNZA. The responses that were obtained indicated that 11 (16.9%) strongly disagreed, 23 (35.4%) disagreed while 21 (32.3%) agreed and 10 (15.4%) strongly agreed. Inasmuch as

turnover created opportunities for other lecturers to be recruited, it did not grant stability to the lecturers to stay at the institution.

#### **4.3.4. There had not been any impact on the quality of education**

The researcher was interested in having information from the UNZA lecturers pertaining to the impact of high turnover on the quality of education. From the responses given, 19 (29.2%) strongly disagreed, 28 (43.1%) disagreed, 12 (18.5%) agreed and six (9.2%) strongly agreed with this assertion.

#### **4.3.5. Returning lecturers came back with new skills and expertise**

Participants were asked to give their views on how returning colleagues who might have gone out for further studies contributed to the well-being of the institution. From the findings, it was realised that seven (10.8%) strongly disagreed with this assertion, 17 (26.2%) disagreed while 35 (53.8%) agreed and six (9.2%) strongly agreed. From these findings, there is a clear indication that lecturers who returned to the institution shared their new skills and expertise with the institution.

#### **4.3.6. Lecturers in the Diaspora had supported the university and lecturers**

When participants were asked about receiving support from indigenous lecturers working in Diaspora, it was revealed that 28 (43.1%) strongly disagreed, 23 (38.5%) disagreed while nine (13.8%) agreed and three (4.6%) strongly agreed with this assertion. These figures obtained from the respondents were a true reflection of why the retention of lecturers at UNZA was very low. From the figure, it is clear that those lecturers who once worked at the institution and later on left did not look back to support the institution and their colleagues who remained behind.

### 4.3.7. Expatriates who have come to the university and their impact

The study sought to investigate the views of respondents on the expatriates and the impact these had on the University of Zambia. The responses of participants were shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Opinions on expatriates who came to UNZA

Scale	1		2		3		4	
Degree of Agreement	SD		D		A		SA	
Frequencies and Percentages	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Expatriate lecturers had helped to mitigate staff shortages	8	12.3	1	1.5	15	23.1	19	29.2
Expatriate lecturers had brought new skills and expertise	13	20.0	18	27.7	37	56.9	38	58.5
There had not been any impact on the education system	33	50.8	39	60.0	12	18.5	5	7.7
Expatriates and part time lecturers had negatively impacted education	11	16.9	7	10.8	1	1.5	3	4.6

(Source: Field work, 2018)

#### 4.3.7.1. Expatriate lecturers had helped to mitigate staff shortages

Participants were asked about how helpful expatriate lecturers were in mitigating staff shortages at UNZA. From the responses that were obtained, eight (12.3%) strongly

disagreed, one (1.5%) disagreed, 15 (23.1%) agreed and 19 (29.2%) strongly agreed. Hence, low retention rates made UNZA to resort to services of expatriate lecturers.

#### **4.3.7.2. Expatriate lecturers had brought new skills and expertise**

Another important assertion that was posed to the participants to comment on was whether expatriate lecturers brought new skills and expertise to UNZA. From the findings of the study, it was discovered that 13 (20.0%) of the respondents strongly disagreed with this assertion, 18 (27.7%) disagreed, 37 (56.9%) agreed while 38 (58.5%) strongly agreed that expatriate lecturers brought new skills and expertise.

#### **4.3.7.3. There had not been any impact on the education system**

The study sought to find out whether expatriate lecturers had made any impact on the education system of UNZA and 33 (50.8%) respondents strongly disagreed, 39 (60.0%) disagreed, 12 (18.5%) agreed and five (7.7%) strongly agreed that expatriate lecturers had made impact on the education system of the institution.

#### **4.3.7.4. Expatriates and part-time lecturers negatively impacted education**

Another question was asked to the respondents on whether expatriate and part-time lecturers impacted negatively on the education system. Responses of the participants were as follows: 11 (16.9%) strongly disagreed, seven (10.8%) disagreed, one (1.5%) agreed while three (4.6%) strongly disagreed. From these findings, it can be deduced that expatriate and part-time lecturers filled the gap created by lecturers who had left the university.

#### 4.3.8. Impact and management of lecturer migration

The study also sought to establish the views of respondents on the impact of lecturers' migration and how the impact was managed by the university. The responses of administrators are summarised in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Impact and management of lecturer migration

Scale	1		2		3		4	
Degree of Agreement	SD		D		A		SA	
Frequency and Percentages	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
The University had a shortage of lecturers	-	-	3	21.4	7	50.0	4	28.6
This had helped create employment for more lecturers	-	-	5	35.7	8	57.1	1	7.1
There had not been any impact on the quality of education	1	7.1	8	64.3	4	28.6	-	-
Returning lecturers had come back with new skills and expertise	2	14.3	6	42.9	5	35.7	1	7.1
Lecturers in the diasporas had supported our University and lecturers	2	14.3	8	57.1	1	7.1	3	21.4

(Source: Field work, 2018)

##### 4.3.8.1. The university had a shortage of lecturers

Administrators were asked how lecturer migration from UNZA impacted on the management of the university. From the responses they gave, there were no administrator respondents who strongly disagreed with this assertion, three (21.4%) disagreed while seven (50.0%) agreed and four (28.6%) strongly agreed. Therefore, the obtained figures were clear enough to argue that it is evident that the lecturers migrated from UNZA.

#### **4.3.8.2. Migration helped create employment for more lecturers**

Respondents were asked whether the migration of lecturers from UNZA had helped create employment opportunities for other lecturers. From the responses that administrators gave, it was realised that none of the administrator respondents strongly disagreed while five (35.7%) disagreed. On the other hand, eight (57.1%) agreed and one (7.1%) strongly agreed. These responses support the notion that migration of lecturers from UNZA to other institutions and abroad created vacancies and opportunities for other lecturers to come in.

#### **4.3.8.3. There had not been any impact on the quality of education**

A statement was posed to the administrators to give their views on the impact of migration of lecturers from UNZA and its impact on education. From the given responses, it was realised that one (7.1%) of respondents strongly disagreed, eight (64.3%) disagreed, four (28.6%) agreed while there were no administrators who strongly agreed with this statement.

#### **4.3.8.4. Returning lecturers had come back with new skills and expertise**

The administrators were asked if lecturers who returned to the institution after being out for some time studying came back with new skills and expertise. The responses on this statement are thus: two (14.3%) strongly disagreed, six (42.9%) disagreed, five (35.7%) agreed while one (7.1%) strongly agreed. These findings were shared equally which meant that lecturers who returned to UNZA indeed shared their new acquired knowledge, skills and expertise with the institution.

#### 4.3.8.5. Lecturers in the Diaspora had supported the university and lecturers

It was observed by respondents that two (14.3%) strongly disagreed, eight (57.1%) disagreed, one (7.1%) agreed while three (21.4%) strongly agreed. It was therefore evident from these findings that lecturers who left UNZA to work in the Diaspora rarely provided the much-needed technical support and expertise to the institution and their fellow lecturers. This had greatly hampered the much-needed exchange of ideas and other lecturers who once worked at UNZA before going in Diaspora and this could have greatly contributed to low retention levels of the institution.

#### 4.3.9. Opinions of administrators on whether UNZA had received expatriate lecturers and their impact

The study also sought to get the views of administrators on expatriates and the impact they had on the university.

The responses of administrators were summarised in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Responses of administrators on expatriates and their impact

Scale	1		2		3		4	
Degree of Agreement	SD		D		A		SA	
Frequency and Percentages	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Expatriate Lecturers have helped mitigate staff shortage	-	-	4	28.6	7	50.0	3	21.4
Expatriate lecturers have brought new skills and expertise	-	-	5	37.5	5	37.5	4	28.6
There had not been any impact on the education system	-	-	5	37.5	5	37.5	4	28.6
Expatriate or part time lecturers had negatively impacted education	1	7.1	5	37.5	3	21.4	5	37.5

(Source: Field work, 2018)

#### **4.3.9.1. Expatriate lecturers and part-time lecturers had helped to mitigate staff shortage**

From the responses, no respondents strongly disagreed while four (28.6%) disagreed, seven (50.0%) agreed and three (21.4%) strongly agreed. These findings clearly showed that indeed expatriate lecturers played a pivotal role in supplementing efforts of the local lecturers at UNZA who were understaffed due to low retention levels at the university.

#### **4.3.9.2. Expatriate lecturers had brought new skills and expertise**

The study revealed that there were no administrators who strongly disagreed with this statement. On the other hand, there were five (37.5%) respondents who disagreed, five (37.5%) who agreed and four (28.6%) who strongly agreed. Hence, it was clear that expatriate lecturers supported UNZA with new skills and expertise and their contribution could not be ignored.

#### **4.3.9.3. There had not been any impact on the education system**

It was shown that there were no respondents who did not strongly disagree with this statement. However, there were five (37.5%) who disagreed, five (37.5%) agreed and four (28.6%) strongly agreed that there had not been any impact on the education system.

#### **4.3.9.4. Expatriate or part-time lecturers had negatively impacted on education**

It was shown that one (7.1%) of the respondents strongly disagreed, five (37.5%) disagreed, three (21.4%) agreed and five (37.5%) strongly agreed with the statement. Inasmuch as respondents to this question did agree that expatriate lecturers and part-time lecturers impacted negatively on the education system of UNZA, it was true that these

people had to be hired in order to bridge the huge gap left by full-time lecturers who had opted to leave the institution for greener pastures.

#### 4.3.10. Expatriate lecturers and their impact on the quality of education

Administrator participants in their own opinions were asked to give the impression they had about expatriate lecturers and their impact on the quality of education at UNZA.

Table 4.18 shows responses on expatriate lecturers and the quality of education at UNZA:

Table 4.18: Responses of participants on expatriate lecturers

Responses of administrators on expatriate lecturers	F	%
They filled up the gap	15	56
They bring in new perspectives	6	22
They added value to the education system of UNZA	6	22
Total	27	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was revealed that 15 (56%) of the respondents appreciated the presence of expatriate lecturers, alluding to the fact that they filled up the gap left by full-time lecturers while six (22%) mentioned the aspect of expatriate lecturers being able to bring in new perspectives in the university and six (22%) of other respondents said that they added value to the education system of UNZA.

#### 4.3.11. Turnover

The findings further showed that in addition to replacement costs when one lecturer leaves, output would be affected to some extent and would be maintained at the cost of

overtime payments. The reason so much attention had been paid to the issue of turnover is that it has some significant effects on organisations. Many respondents argued that high turnover rates had negative effects on the profitability of organisations if not managed properly. **Lect. 8** (2016) stated,

*Turnover has many hidden or invisible costs and these invisible costs are because of incoming employees, co-workers closely associated with incoming employees, co-workers closely associated with departing employees and position being filled. All these affect the profitability of the organisation.*

On the other hand, other lecturers felt that turnover affects the service and satisfaction of the students. **Lect. 9** (2016) pointed out,

*Turnover includes other costs, such as lost management time. This clearly demonstrates that turnover affects the profitability of the university and if it is not managed properly, it would have a negative effect on the final performance of students.*

#### **4.3.12. Hiring part-time lecturers and training new staff**

It was generally agreed that hiring and training a replacement worker for a lost lecturer cost a lot, but the cost did not stop there. Each time an employee left the university, productivity dropped due to the learning curve involved in understanding the job and the organisation. Furthermore, the loss of intellectual capital added to this cost, since not only do institutions lose the human capital and relational capital of the departing employee, but also competitors were potentially gaining these assets.

The findings showed that if employee turnover is not managed properly, it would affect the organisation adversely in terms of personnel costs and liquidity position in the long run. However, an institution incurs significant costs through voluntary turnover. In direct costs, the institution has to do the replacement, recruitment and selection, temporary staffing, management time. In indirect costs, there is morale, pressure on remaining staff

and students, costs of learning, service quality, organisational memory, and the loss of social capital.

Whenever lecturers leave the institution, services rendered to students and indeed the general public are interfered with. Students are not attended to in time due to shortage of staff. **Lect. 10** (2016) stated:

*In the event that one staff leaves the university, students are among the first to know that work is not being done well. In some cases, those who take up the jobs of those who have exited are not so efficient, or not so familiar with the procedures. The slow rate of service to students lowers students' performance, zeal and satisfaction levels and thus spoils the reputation of the university.*

Through interviews, it was revealed that each time a lecturer exited, the students remained with part-time lecturers or tutors who were not experts in the courses or that were the end of the course. It disturbed their progress.

In most cases, where some departments at the university have a lean staff, the work usually became overburdening to the remaining staff. **Lect. 11** (2016) stated:

*Staff turnover increases work for the remaining staff, and if one of the jobs is not done well, then staff and students know it is not done well.*

According to the findings, high staff turnover created an impression that something was not right. **Lect. 12** (2016) had this to say:

*In organisations where there is discontent among the academic staff, many of them work to exit to other places. Exit of lecturers lowers the morale of the remaining lot since they feel that they are left behind to suffer. It makes them develop a negative attitude towards everything in the organisation.*

One of the participants interviewed (2016) asserted that staff turnover may have devastating effects on service rendered by the university and these may bring about deficits in meeting students' and general public's academic demands. This leads to

students' irritation and increase in complaints. Another lecturer agreed that it was critical to understand that an interdependent relationship exists between employee satisfaction and students' satisfaction and that the university needs to focus on both of these components.

#### **4.3.13. Poor morale of staff**

The findings further revealed that the morale of staff may be lowered because work overload, overtime work, substitute personnel and working with fewer staff than required is problematic. This causes an increase in errors in the performance of activities and results in poor service delivery.

The findings revealed that labour turnover affects both workers and the university. Lecturers experience disruption and they need to learn new job-specific skills and find different career prospects. Various departments at the university suffer the loss of job-specific skills, disruption in production and incur the costs of hiring and training new workers. However, incoming workers may be better educated, more skilled and have greater initiative and enthusiasm than those who leave but could take time to acclimatise and become effective.

### **4.4. What strategies did UNZA use in the retention of lecturers?**

#### **4.4.1. Strategies used in retaining the academic staff**

The study sought to establish the strategies that the University of Zambia used in retaining its academic staff. The responses were shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Strategies used by UNZA in retaining its academic staff

Responses of participants	F	%
Paying salaries and allowances on time	37	60
Renewing contracts	8	10
Opportunities for staff development	10	15
Improved academic staff welfare	10	15
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was revealed from the study that 37 (60%) of the respondents attributed retention of lecturers to the paying of salaries and allowances on time. Eight (10%) of the respondents cited renewing of contracts as a means which UNZA used to retain its lecturers while 10 (15%) respondents pointed out staff development as a way the institution used to retain its lecturers. Another 10 (15%) respondents cited improved academic staff welfare to have helped the retention of lecturers.

#### **4.4.2. Ways in which UNZA could improve retention of lecturers**

The participants were asked to give ways in which UNZA could improve retention of lecturers.

Views of respondents were shown in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Ways in which UNZA could use to improve retention of Lecturers

Promotion to be done on merit	10	11
Sponsoring lecturers for short courses, seminars and conferences	5	6
Introducing incentives like loans and salary advances to lecturers	8	10
Invest in infrastructure	10	11
Better conditions of service	17	20
Invest in research programmes	15	17
Paying gratuity and other benefits on time	12	14
Secure and improved accommodation	10	11
Total	87	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

According to the findings, 10 (11%) respondents felt promotions at UNZA should be done on merit, five (6%) pointed out sponsoring lecturers for short courses, seminars and conferences would go a long way in motivating them to remain at the institution. Eight (10%) of the respondents pointed out introducing incentives like loans and salary advances to the lecturers while 10 (11%) cited investing in university infrastructure as a way of attracting lecturers to remain in the institution. Furthermore, 17 (20%) of the respondents pointed out that improving conditions of service for the academic staff would go a long way in ensuring that a good number of lecturers were retained at UNZA while 15 (17%) mentioned investing in research programmes at the university as one way

lecturers would be motivated to remain at the institution. Paying gratuity and other benefits on time was cited by 12 (14%) respondents and 10 (11%) cited secure and improved accommodation as motivating factors that would enable lecturers stay at the institution.

#### 4.4.3. Other possible ways to enhance retention of lecturers at UNZA

Besides what respondents proposed as ways which could be used to retain lecturers at UNZA, participants of the study identified other ways that could be used to enhance retention. Table 4.21 shows the responses of lecturers on other possible ways that UNZA could use to improve retention of lecturers:

Table 4.21: Possible ways to enhance retention of lecturers at UNZA

Responses of lecturers	F	%
Employing of lecturers on permanent basis than contracts	20	31
Provide scholarships to the members of staff	15	23
Conducive and secure work environment	15	23
Improved teaching and learning materials	15	23
Total	65	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

From the study, it was revealed that 20 (31%) of the respondents proposed that UNZA could employ more lecturers on permanent basis than putting them on contracts while 15 (23%) suggested that the university could provide scholarships to the academic members of staff. Furthermore, 15 (23%) of the respondents suggested that conducive and secure environment which ensured job security could be guaranteed to the academic staff and 15

(23%) proposed improved teaching and learning materials would go a long way in ensuring that lecturers remained at UNZA.

#### 4.5. Ways in which UNZA retained lecturers

The study sought to collect the views of administrators on the strategies that UNZA used to retain the lecturers.

The responses of administrators were as summarised in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Responses of participants on how UNZA retains its lecturers

Responses of administrators on how UNZA retain its lecturers	F	%
Improved conditions of service	8	40
Support professional development activities	6	30
Improved accommodation	3	15
Research funding	3	15
Total	20	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was found that eight (40%) said improved conditions of service would go a long way in retaining lecturers at UNZA while six (30%) of the respondents wanted to see more support for professional development activities take place at the campus. Improved accommodation for lecturers was cited by three (15%) of the total respondents who took part in the study. Furthermore, increased funding to research activities was cited by three (15%) respondents.

#### 4.5.1. Possible ways UNZA could use to improve the management of lecturers

Respondents were asked on other possible ways that the institution's management could use to improve the management and retention of lecturers at the institution.

This is shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Possible ways UNZA could use to improve management of lecturers

Possible ways UNZA could use to improve management of lecturers	F	%
Paying contractual gratuities on time	4	25
Exchange of lecturers with other institutions	4	25
Employing of part time lecturers	8	50
Total	16	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was noticed that four (25%) of the respondents wanted to see UNZA paying its contractual obligations such as gratuities to its lecturers on time. The other four (25%) pointed out that UNZA should have and improve on its exchange programmes with other institution as a way of capacity building, and eight (50%) lecturers cited employing of part-time lecturers as a way of reducing the deficit that the institution had in as far as improving the staffing levels at UNZA were concerned.

#### 4.5.2. Coping strategies UNZA used in the absence of lecturers

The study sought to collect the views of administrators on the possible mechanisms used as coping strategies to mitigate the impact of academic staff retention.

The responses of administrators were summarised in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Opinions of administrators on coping strategies UNZA used in the absence of lecturers

Opinions of administrators on coping strategies UNZA used in the absence of lecturers	F	%
Staff development programmes	4	24
Offering competitive salaries	4	24
Stable contracts	9	52
Total	17	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

The study showed that four (24%) of the respondents mentioned staff development programmes for the already available lecturers, four (24%) cited offering of competitive salaries to the available academic staff so that they became motivated and nine (52%) indicated that stable contracts helped the institution in coping with the available academic staff at the university.

#### 4.5.3. Other staff retention strategies UNZA could use

The administrators were asked about other possible strategies that the institution could use to retain its staff.

Table 4.25 shows the responses which were given on other possible strategies for retaining lecturers:

Table 4.25: Responses from administrator participants on how UNZA could retain its staff

Strategies UNZA could use to retain lecturers	F	%
Improving of university infrastructure	5	29
Better and modern teaching and learning resources	8	47
Improve library and internet facilities	4	24
Total	17	100

(Source: Field work, 2018)

It was discovered that five (29%) pointed at improving on the university infrastructure, eight (47%) cited better and modern teaching and learning resources at the university and four (24%) pointed out improved library and internet facilities at the institution would go a long way in retaining lecturers at the institution.

#### 4.5.4. Relationships

There are many ways of retaining lecturers at UNZA. **Lect. 13** (2016) outlined the measures undertaken by the university.

First, it is important to prepare the supervisors and administrators in the university to lead and to develop effective relationships with their subordinates. He cited an example of what happens in other institutions where individual contributors are promoted to managerial positions based solely on their performance on technical aspects of the job - not on their supervisory abilities. Improved relationships between managers and lecturers would make the latter happy and work effectively in the university.

#### **4.5.5. Paying salaries and gratuities**

The participants further revealed that paying gratuity on time, salary increments, study leave and renewal of contracts would help retain lecturers. **Lect. 14** (2016) had this to say:

*Lecturers could not be retained because the conditions of service were not attractive between 1990 and 2010. Lecturers left for neighbouring countries, which had attractive salaries. UNZA had no competitive remunerations and workers were not happy. But now in 2016, we have competitive salaries in the region, a home scheme, medical insurance, co-ordinating and transport allowance which help us to be retained.*

Conditions of service should be attractive. For instance, paying gratuity, salaries and pension benefits on time would help in retaining lecturers. However, some retired lecturers still appeared on the payroll and this made the wage bill too big.

**Admin 1** (2016) added:

*The union sold plots to lecturers from Liempe Farm as a way of motivating them. The lecturers are paid for any excess teaching load to motivate them for some huge classes they attend to especially in the School of Education.*

#### **4.5.6. Staff development policies**

Staff development programmes would contribute to retention of lecturers because they would have adequate knowledge to teach at the university. The staff retention policy should be developed effectively and must be clear. Staff development system and programmes must be revamped. It was observed by some respondents that Staff Development Fellow (policy) should be revised to allow young lecturers to access scholarships and study leave. Though the university offers Masters and PhD programmes, some of those programmes took long and lecturers wanted to study for a short time. The

participants suggested that there should be staff development and lecturers should attend workshops and seminars in order to acquire more knowledge.

#### **4.5.7. Infrastructure**

Infrastructure, if improved, could help in the retention of lecturers. Improved lecture theatres, laboratories, adequate office space and accommodation would make lecturers satisfied and stay longer at the university. Teaching and learning materials must be improved. Use of new technology must be implemented. More lecturers should be employed. The academic staff must not be overworked because they need time for research.

#### **4.5.8. Promotions**

When lecturers are given incentives for their outstanding performance, they feel appreciated and they will work hard. The supervisors should identify those who are dedicated to their duties. Lecturers, especially those who have many teaching or contact sessions, ought to be motivated. Good performers must be acknowledged for their dedication to service by promoting them. **Admin 2** (2016) said:

*Promotion has been a big challenge due to lack of objectivity. The university is too consultative. The university has three pillars of promotions: teaching, research and community service. If somebody taught well and participated in community service without having enough publication, that person might not be promoted. It was not clear how many publications one needed in order to be promoted.*

The university was subjective in its promotional style. Promotion encourages hard work, commitment and good results. If the conditions are improved, lecturers would stay longer at the university. It was suggested by the participants that routine promotions must be clear. They suggested that a lecturer with a teaching load that would make one stand pressure was a good measurement for promotion.

#### **4.5.9. Recruitment**

Evidence from the findings suggests that recruitment practices strongly influence turnover. **Admin 3** had this to say:

*Lecturers were recruited through three ways: Staff Development Fellow, advertising and head hunting. There are two sets of lecturers: pensionable and non-pensionable. Those who are below 50 years are pensionable. Those who are over 50 years work on contracts.*

Findings from this research show that presenting applicants with realistic job previews during the recruitment process has a positive effect on retention of those recruited. The findings revealed that a realistic job preview presented accurate information about the positive characteristics and potential challenges associated with any job, as well as clear details about performance expectations and the institution's performance management processes. Once this was done, it could help employees adjust easily to their new work environment.

#### **4.5.10. Compensation and rewards**

The findings of this study show that the university also used poor compensation and rewards that could not make lecturers stay at the institution. **Admin 4** (2016) had this to say:

*Conditions of service were not good between 1990 and 2010. Lecturers had no vehicles like today. There was a closure in 1998 for eight (8) months and lecturers did not get their salaries for two months.*

The rewards offered by the university obviously play a critical role in the inducement contributions balance described earlier, which we can also think of as the employee value proposition. One respondent (2016) warned that to fail to offer competitive rewards may put the university at a disadvantage in terms of attracting and retaining talent.

The findings of this study disclose that at the same time, pay levels and pay satisfactions are only modest predictors of employees' turnover decisions. As stated earlier, thus, there is need to carefully consider how to use rewards to retain employees. Incentives are given to make lecturers stay longer. It was revealed through the interviews with administrators that incentives such as housing, health care, car loans, teaching and learning materials, as well as office space were in short supply. If lecturers were not well motivated, they would quit their jobs or lower their performance.

#### **4.5.11. Supervision**

It is also common for people to leave their jobs due to strained work relationships with their supervisors. This research supports this claim as **Lect. 17** (2016) pointed out:

*The quality of employees' relationships with their supervisors is an important driver of turnover. Evidence also suggests that a worker's satisfaction with his or her supervisor(s), the quality of the exchanges between them, and fair treatment by supervisors is related to retention.*

This study found that fair treatment by supervisors was more important than the distribution of outcomes in predicting turnover.

#### **4.6. Chapter Summary**

This chapter looked at the findings of the study. The findings were based on the three research questions. The research questions extracted responses from the participants through quantitative and qualitative data. Lecturers and administrators took part in either answering the questionnaires or were interviewed. The first research question looked at the factors that made lecturers to leave UNZA for alternative employment. Various views were given by respondents such as low salaries and other financial incentives, poor economic conditions in the country, poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning material, lack of housing, lack of professional development, political

appointment, acquisition of new professional networks and contacts, delays in payments of salaries, retirement benefits and gratuity as well as overcrowding in lecture theatres. The second research question was on the consequences of lecturer turnover at UNZA. Different opinions were given by respondents. Some of them were: hiring of part-time lectures, disruption of group socialisation, productivity went down because of lecturers leaving, shortage of lecturers which made work not to be done properly. The last question inquired on the strategies that UNZA used in order to retain lecturers. The lecturer and administrator respondents gave different views. Some of their opinions were as follows: paying salaries, gratuity and retirement benefits promptly, investing in infrastructure, introducing loan schemes, sponsoring lecturers for conferences and workshops and promotions should be objective.

All the schools at UNZA took part in the research. Most of the participants came from the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, followed by School of Education. The other schools had a low participation. The next chapter presents the discussion of findings.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

### **5.1. Overview**

The previous chapter looked at the findings of the study. They were done quantitatively and qualitatively. The data revealed the responses on factors that made lecturers to leave UNZA for alternative employment, consequences of lecturer turnover and strategies that UNZA used to retain lecturers at this institution. This chapter focuses on interpretation and discussion of the findings which were analysed in the previous chapter. The research questions in chapter four helped the researcher in the interpretation of the findings based on the data obtained from the respondents who took part in the study. Therefore, this chapter purely dealt with the interpretation and discussion of the findings based on the research objectives of the study.

### **5.2. Interpretation and discussion of findings**

In chapter four, tables, pie charts and graphs were used for quantitative analysis of the data while qualitative data were analysed and quantified based on the research objectives. Qualitative data was analysed through grouped data methods and later quantified in order to come up with common themes that were extracted from the research instruments. All the extracted information from the research instruments was deduced based on the research objectives. The researcher ensured that only responses that were answering research questions and objectives were extracted and analysed qualitatively. Valuable data and opinions from the respondents helped the researcher to come up with the findings that are interpreted and discussed in this chapter. The study was guided by the research objectives:

- i) Identify some factors that caused lecturers to leave UNZA.
- ii) Determine consequences of lecturers' turnover at UNZA.
- iii) Establish strategies used by UNZA in retaining its lecturers.

### **5.3. Objective I: Factors that caused lecturers to leave UNZA**

The first objective of this study was to establish factors that contributed to the departure of lecturers from the University of Zambia. The findings generated by this study revealed the following factors:

#### **5.3.1. Salaries and other financial benefits**

When the respondents were asked on whether salaries and other financial benefits contributed to their departure from UNZA, they answered in the affirmative. Financial benefits such as unattractive and delayed salary payments, non-payment of gratuities and pension benefits showed a difficulty in managing the resources, exacerbating lack of long-term investments that contributed to lecturers' migrations from UNZA. For a long time, UNZA had been grappling with payment of salaries for its employees and other benefits such as gratuities. This had resulted in less job satisfaction from the majority of those academic staff who had opted to leave the institution for greener pastures. Just as Abdullah *et al.* (2017) observed, low salary was the highest factor among the many causes of employee turnover intentions. Furthermore, Carsten and Spector (2018) pointed out that poor salaries and other remunerations were the major reasons why employees left their jobs. Therefore, the study concluded that salaries and other financial benefits, especially, greatly contributed to the departure of lecturers from UNZA. An indecisive condition of service such as uncertainty in payments for course overloads is another reason that could have contributed to migration of lecturers.

It was, therefore, necessary for the institution to come up with strategies on how best they could have this challenge solved in order to retain lecturers at UNZA. Lecturers needed to be motivated both extrinsically and intrinsically to retain them. This could be done by UNZA management through ensuring that meeting its financial obligations to its

academic staff is done on time without unnecessary and unjustifiable delays (Dessler, 2013). This was supported by both the theoretical frameworks of Maslow and Herzberg where lecturers needed to be motivated extrinsically in order to attain good results. In addition, the mediating variables of the conceptual framework showed that an attractive salary was important for the institution to motivate lecturers. If monthly earnings are not attractive, lecturers could go out moonlighting, which could lead to them not concentrating on university activities. There were delays in the payment of salaries at UNZA. Remunerations of lecturers needed to be paid promptly. The academic staff needed to get decent monthly payments commensurate to their qualifications.

The participants agreed that lecturers left because of poor salaries at UNZA and delays in paying them. Lack of remittance to National Pension Scheme Authority (NAPSA) and to banks for loan deductions led to UNZA lecturers being blacklisted. Due to this, lecturers were being denied loans by most financing and lending institutions. The government's external debt service made it to reduce grants to UNZA and other grant-aided institutions. Lecturers' earnings are primarily paid from grants from government. The wage freeze in the 90s made UNZA fail to sustain the employees and therefore lecturers felt frustrated and decided to leave for other universities in neighbouring countries or within Zambia where they paid the academic staff handsomely.

### **5.3.2. Poor economic conditions in the country**

Another question that was posed to the participants was on how the poor economic conditions in the country contributed to the lecturers leaving UNZA. From what was obtained from the lecturers, the poor economic condition of the country had a bearing on the departure of lecturers from the institution. This question was asked because the state of the country's economy had a bearing on the education system which included UNZA.

This was based on the fact that UNZA was a public institution which relied on government funding. If government had challenges in funding the institution then the running of affairs at UNZA became affected. This includes managing lecturers as in most cases UNZA management had been quoted saying that salaries for its academic staff had been delayed due to delayed funding from the government (UNZA Internal Memo, 2016). The university uses a combination of government grants, student fees and project funds to pay wages. If the grant delayed then salaries of the academic staff would not be paid on time.

Therefore, the country's economy has a bearing on UNZA's ability to retain its members of staff or lose them to other institutions. Indeed, the responses given as indicated by the figures were in tandem with this assertion that poor economic conditions in the country made lecturers leave UNZA for other institutions with competitive remunerations or even going abroad. Hence, poor economic conditions in the country were a factor at the University of Zambia when it came to retention of lecturers. This was in line with the findings from other studies like (Bangi, 2014; IMF, 2016) which revealed that there was a high movement of academicians from African universities to overseas due to inadequate pay, poor policies, and bad working conditions. These factors inevitably led to turnover in institutions of higher learning. The above assertion was in line with the theoretical framework of Maslow in which a conducive environment, where basic needs were met and satisfied, as a motivating factor for employee retention in an institution was missing.

In 1991, there was a change of government in Zambia. The Movement for Multi-Party Democracy came to power and tried to revamp the economy. In the educational sector, the level of investment was reduced because of the problems that had come from the economic recession and structural adjustment programmes of the International Monetary

Fund and World Bank. The working class had to shoulder all costs of the International Monetary Fund.

In addition, there was a shortage of essential commodities in Zambia. The poor governance, of the first Republic, had destroyed the economy and this could not be withstood by the academicians. Those who had been outside the country for studies deliberated on the situation of lining up for essential commodities such as mealie-meal, cooking oil, and butter as well as soap which were plenty in the neighbouring countries. Lecturers that had gone abroad for study thought of their status and felt frustrated. The only way out to have a decent living was to go and work where conditions of service and education for their children were attractive and the economy was ticking. They, therefore, went to countries within Sub-Sahara Africa or in Europe which had good economies. A number of academicians, especially in the medical field, left for Europe or Southern African countries where they were in high demand and paid better than UNZA.

### **5.3.3. Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources**

The lecturer and administrator respondents were asked if the state of school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources were a factor in the movements of lecturers from UNZA. From the responses given, poor school infrastructure such as dilapidated laboratories, lack of laboratory apparatus, dilapidated office space, especially when compared to neighbouring countries such as South Africa, Namibia, Botswana and even to some new universities, might have contributed to turnover of lecturers. Mavhuditse (2014) observed that shortage of teaching and learning resources were also factors that made lecturers leave. In the process of teaching and learning, the environment in which teaching and learning took place was very vital. Inadequate infrastructure and out-dated teaching and learning resources did not motivate lecturers to continue working

at UNZA, as the responses indicated. If an institution lacked effective teaching and learning resources, it demotivated the lecturers because they had inadequate resources to help them deliver.

Inasmuch as some respondents did not agree with the assertion that good infrastructure and teaching and learning resources contributed in motivating the lecturers to remain at UNZA, majority of the respondents supported this idea. As Cohen *et al.* (2013) argued, a conducive physical and social environment is key to retaining a strong team of committed and inspired employees who could uphold institutional planned advantage.

Rono and Kiptum (2017) affirmed that enough infrastructures for lecturers to teach happily could lead to retention. UNZA had been building more hostels for students, coming up with office accommodation for academic staff and lecture theatres but these were not enough for the bigger student population. Kamwanga (2013) stated that the institution suffered from staffing constraints and support systems as well as infrastructure limitations like those of the wider University of Zambia.

Hence, there was a serious need for UNZA to address the challenges that arose from poor infrastructure and lack of effective teaching and learning materials at the campus so as to enable lecturers deliver to the best of their ability and remain in the institution. This was in line with Herzberg's Hygiene factors in the theoretical framework, where there was extrinsic influence to work which if absent could lead to job dissatisfaction. Besides, the mediating variable of the conceptual framework supported the hypothesis that a good working environment promotes retention of employees in a work place.

Some lecturers left because of poor infrastructure. Some shared small offices where there was no confidentiality. Some lecture rooms were small and some students could even sit on the floor or in the passage during lessons. Lecturers compared the environment to

those in the countries they had been for studies. They thought of their children going to institutions that lacked latest learning and teaching materials. These problems brought frustrations to the academic staff and some decided to leave UNZA.

It was surprising that some respondents did not see the absence of learning and teaching material as a problem. The lecturers used the traditional way of teaching. Technology was there but it was not fully used or not very effective. Those lecturers who had been to developed countries for studies got exposed to the latest ways of teaching using technology. They felt teaching back home was stressful and decided to go to the countries or institutions that offered better services than in Zambia.

Lecturers in universities felt proud to toil in an institution with good infrastructure. They worked and moved with morale and this contributed to their retention. Lack of teaching and learning materials was a very serious setback in an institution of higher learning. It contributed to the quality of the graduates and most lecturers were not ready to be associated with institutions where standards were compromised. Others were compelled to use part of their meagre salaries to purchase the much-needed material to use in their area of speciality such as latest textbooks. This demoralised them even more and soon or later, they opted to leave the institution.

#### **5.3.4. Lack of housing**

The participants of the study were asked whether shortage and lack of housing could have been a factor leading to some lecturers leaving UNZA. From the responses given by the participants, it was clear that there was a small disparity between those respondents who agreed to this assertion and those that did not agree. However, accommodation befitting the status of the lecturer in an institution like UNZA could be a motivating factor for one to stay longer at the institution. Therefore, if accommodation posed a challenge to

UNZA, it could be one reason why lecturers had to leave the institution. This is for the simple reason that accommodation is a key incentive to any employee as it is one of the basic needs of all human beings. Ozturk *et al.* (2014) added that decent accommodation brought about job satisfaction and increased motivation levels of the employees in any institution which could result in high retention levels of lecturers and reduced chances of high turnover.

In the First Republic, educated people were given decent accommodation. Every important job had a decent house which was well furnished as part of the condition of service. UNZA had different types of accommodation which were given to the lecturers. They stayed in low density areas such as Kabulonga, Sunningdale or Northmead. The institution also had Marshlands, which was detested. People had higher expectations when they got a job as UNZA lecturers. After getting their higher qualifications, the lecturers expected to be given decent accommodation in a low-density area. It was however interesting from the findings when some respondents said accommodation did not make lecturers leave UNZA. Those who were not well catered for in terms of housing felt frustrated and left for other institutions, which had better accommodation.

This was in line with Maslow's Hierarchy of needs where an employee after achieving physiological needs, could start looking to satisfy other higher needs like shelter. If there is no shelter, employees could feel dissatisfied. This could also be equated to the theoretical framework of Herzberg's hygiene theory which holds that people are dissatisfied when the hygiene conditions are not present at the work environment. The theory does not lead to positive satisfaction for long. As long as a lecturer has decent accommodation, he/she is satisfied but when better accommodation arose, he/she could cry for the new one maybe because he/she is more educated or senior at work. The highly

qualified lecturers want good accommodation, which is well furnished like those given by private companies.

Before 2011 to 2012, housing allowance was a serious factor. Then there was no housing allowance. UNZA paid rent directly to landlords. Furthermore, lecturers who could not be accommodated within UNZA were given housing allowances. Some of these lecturers rented decent houses far from UNZA, where they paid rentals much higher than the allowances given to them. Worse still, reporting for work from such distant places proved costly to them. Others who decided to use the actual housing allowances given to them ended up renting substandard houses in slum areas. This automatically frustrated them because it was against their status as educated academicians and it was not what they expected from UNZA. Subsequently, the frustration over shelter forced them to leave UNZA.

#### **5.3.5. Lack of professional development opportunities**

Lack of professional development opportunities was among the questions that respondents were asked. Some participants agreed while others disagreed that this was a reason for leaving UNZA. The growth of any learning institution depends on how skilful its employees are, especially the academic staff. Initiatives by management, such as professional development opportunities, had proved to be successful in realising the potential of any academic institution.

Investment in Human Resource Development through staff and professional development could have motivated the members of staff to put in their best. This could result in improving their academic output. This was ascertained by the percentages of lecturers who were in favour of professional development against those who dispelled this aspect as not being a key factor in retention of lecturers as has clearly been reflected in chapter

four, Table 4.3 of the findings of this study. This was supported by Nwokocha and Iheriohanma (2012)'s assertions that no academic institution could really ensure sustainability and quality in the long run without a well-qualified and committed academic staff. Higher education institutions are, therefore, very much dependent on the intellectual and creative abilities and commitment of the academic staff than most other organisations (Liu, 2006; Khanam, 2015). This was in line with the conceptual framework in which staff development, an independent variable, was considered as cardinal in motivating lecturers and acknowledging the efforts that the academic staff rendered to their institutions.

Some lecturers get demoralised by the mere fact that their colleagues they were studying with, who were working elsewhere, progressed while they are not promoted. The academic staff depend on research as one of the requirements for their promotions and to create new knowledge for teaching in the university. When such chances are not forthcoming, it brings about dissatisfaction in some lecturers. Due to lack of funds from the government, the administration could not send lecturers for conferences and lecturers could not sponsor themselves. If lecturers sponsored themselves, they felt not cared for and hence looked elsewhere where they could be sent for professional development. Others after going for further studies went to other countries where they were immediately promoted to professorship or senior positions and this made their peers to move from UNZA and went to other institutions where they could also be elevated.

It was fascinating that some lecturers did not agree that professional development was one of the issues that triggered some to leave UNZA. When lecturers could not advance in their work, promotion could not be there. Some academic staff left to places where they could easily be sent for studies while some who had gone for further studies never returned to UNZA. They went to institutions where they could be promoted easily.

### **5.3.6. Political appointments of lecturers from UNZA**

Political appointments of lecturers from UNZA were among the factors that were cited by the participants to have contributed to low retention levels of the academic staff at the institution though others did not agree with this. From the information that was gathered from the study, it was realised that political appointments contributed to the challenges that UNZA faced in the retention of lecturers. This could be seen from the findings as majority of the lecturer respondents were for the view that political appointments had a bearing on low retention of lecturers at UNZA. Cloete and Massen (2015) stressed that the trend of having lecturers appointed into political positions had always left institutions, especially UNZA, to look for replacements and this had increased the chances of high turnover of academic staff.

It was surprising to see that some respondents did not realise that those who were appointed to take up positions in politics were a loss to UNZA. The fact that they left the institution to go and take up positions in the government away from academic work meant that the institution had lost experienced people to attend to students. Even if some still went to lecture while working in the government, the level of commitment became compromised because they were not readily available to students. Political appointment therefore was a factor in turnover of lecturers at UNZA though not a big one.

### **5.3.7. Establishment of new networks and professional contacts**

Participants in the study were asked whether establishment of new networks and professional contacts had helped to reduce turnover of lecturers at UNZA. Most of the responses given were in the affirmative. Many respondents agreed with this assertion that networking in an institution of higher learning is vital for the growth of the institution. Masaiti and Naluyele (2011) affirmed that employees in an organisation must have good

working relationships at their place of work. Liu *et al.* (2015) further posited that employees stayed when they had strong relationships with others. This was in line with Maslow hierarchy of needs. Lecturers need to be loved by others and to be self-actualised in order to achieve their capabilities. A positive work environment and a sense of belonging to an organisation could make one become professionally self-actualised.

Hence, networking and establishing of new contacts was a vital tool in helping lecturers to stay connected with others (Khale *et al.*, 2018). Inasmuch as new networks and contacts were cardinal in an institution, migration of lecturers often comes in as a disinsentive. Networking and professional contacts was a recipe for lecturers leaving the institution as they were able to exchange notes with their counterparts in other institutions and therefore made comparisons with what was obtaining at UNZA and decide to go where they felt conditions of service and work environment were favourable.

Some lecturers left on invitation of their peers who had left UNZA earlier and joined other institutions where more Zambians were needed to offer certain courses that were on high demand. Networking therefore made some lecturers to be connected to places which had attractive conditions and later some left UNZA through such arrangements.

#### **5.3.8. New cultural experiences**

Lecturers and administrators were asked to comment on the aspect of new cultural experiences as it relates to turnover at the university. The findings of the study revealed that turnover rates were often high among new employees who had lesser responsibilities, relatively young and always exploring. Therefore, UNZA benefited little from the new cultural experiences its employees were exposed to as this knowledge had cost the institution of individuals who could have contributed positively to the well-being of the establishment (Ismail *et al.*, 2015). Exposure to new cultural experiences brought a lot of

changes in the way lecturers interacted with students and colleagues as well as the management. New cultures that lecturers went through made some to leave because in the other foreign universities where they had been their supervisors inducted them well in their work or they were given what they needed for work and were well treated as educated people. But when they came back home, the opposite happened, causing them to feel distressed and hence left to neighbouring countries where they were treated according to their status. The approach to work when exposed to new culture became different such that one who was not treated with care felt frustrated.

Some respondents did not see new cultural experiences as a factor behind the turnover of lecturers. The fact that the new lecturers were not inducted, not introduced to the way UNZA operated, made some to feel lost and later this demoralised them to move out of the institution. This agrees with the conceptual framework that holds that lecturers upon being employed need to be inducted by the supervisors instead of them finding out from their colleagues. In some circumstances, instead of being helped, the new staff would be ridiculed if they did things differently from the usual. New cultural knowledge could have shocked some new entrants and made them leave the institution.

### **5.3.9. Challenges lecturers experienced as a result of working in a university**

Lecturer and administrator respondents were asked to give their opinions on the various challenges that they faced by working in the university. Other challenges cited by lecturers included lack of access to financing due to blacklisting of the institution by banks and micro-financing institutions, lack of time for internal workshops and seminars, absence of research funds, overcrowding in lecture theatres and heavy workload, subjective promotion criteria that relied on opinion of the committee responsible to determine the cases. Frustration of younger staff by some older staff who did not

entertain new ideas could have contributed to turnover. Bureaucracy on things like introduction of new programmes, lack of links between universities and industry could have demoralised the academic staff. Generally, lack of appreciation of academic staff compared to non-academic staff in middle management was very demoralising as well as not having enough professors to mentor junior lecturers. These problems hampered the morale of academic research work. Other notable challenges which were made by the respondents included lack of modern research facilities, lack of office space, out-dated books in the library and poor subscription to journals and articles for publications (Mushemeza, 2016). These challenges frustrated the highly educated academics.

It was further noted that there was lack of motivation (Koetz *et al.*, 2013), as well as delayed payments of gratuity and riotous behaviour by students whenever they were aggrieved. All these listed challenges were genuine and were found in most institutions of higher learning. In the same line, administrators as well revealed challenges similar to those faced by the academic staff who took part in the study. These findings concurred with Furnham (2013) who argued that negative feelings of employees' impact on the quantity and quality of work just as absenteeism and tiredness does. Unhappy employees and those who chose to leave the institution because of not being satisfied with conditions could seriously affect employee morale. When dedicated academic staff faced difficulties in getting their jobs done, they quite naturally looked for other employment opportunities where they could achieve the satisfaction they needed from work. This was supported by Zhang (2016), who asserted that unsatisfactory performance appraisal could be one of the reasons for employees leaving an organisation. A lack of appreciation and teamwork as well as perception that employers didn't care about their employees were consistently the highest-rated reasons for low job satisfaction. Many employees chose to leave because they believed their work had been unappreciated by the institution. Challenges resulted in

high turnover of lectures who go to other places locally or abroad offering better conditions of service.

This was in line with Herzberg's intrinsic and extrinsic job-content factors where employees needed to be satisfied fully in order to get superior motivational results. In addition, Waleed (2011) observed that training was not simply a means of arming employees with skills they needed to perform their jobs, but also a representative of an employer's commitment to motivate their workforce. It could also be perceived to reflect an overall organisational strategy that involved adding increased value as opposed to reducing cost.

This was supported by the conceptual framework in which staff development was part of administrative culture and was key to staff retention. The work environment at UNZA needed to be conducive in order to motivate lecturers. Thus, if UNZA was to improve retention of its academicians, it needed to improve on the challenges that were stated by the respondents. The absence of an inspiring place that the academicians worked in might have made some lecturers to migrate to some institutions which had attractive conditions.

#### **5.3.10. Courses mostly offered by expatriate lecturers**

Whenever a lecturer left UNZA, the institution generally turned to expatriate lecturers. From the given responses, a good number of courses had always been affected by the departure of lecturers. The study revealed that Languages, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Technological Education such as ICT, Education, Humanities and Social Sciences as well as Business Studies were some of the courses that expatriate lecturers had to take up due to the departure of local lecturers. The influx of expatriate lecturers at the university could have been as a result of the mass exodus of indigenous lecturers who

opted to move for greener pastures leaving the university to scout for the services of foreign experts due to acute shortage of the members of staff.

Therefore, retention of lecturers was a serious challenge that UNZA was greatly hit with and needed to be sorted out amicably if the institution was to grow academic wise. Inasmuch as expatriate lecturers offered valued support to the academic work at UNZA, local lecturers could have been on the frontline in ensuring that transfer of values, knowledge and skills was imparted in the students with the combined effort of both local and expatriate lecturers. This could have resulted in high output and well- trained graduates who could have met the needs of their clients both locally and internationally.

#### **5.4. Objective ii: Consequences of lecturer turnover at UNZA**

The second objective of this study was to establish consequences of lecturers' turnover at UNZA. The findings generated by this study revealed the following consequences as discussed below:

##### **5.4.1. Shortage of lecturers**

The findings from chapter four clearly showed that with high turnover, indeed UNZA faced serious consequences in maintaining the academic staff. Therefore, there was a serious need of finding lasting solutions to the consequences that came with turnover of lecturers if UNZA was to maintain its academic staff. Management needed to ensure that the lecturers were retained at all costs in order for the institution to achieve its aims, visions and goals. High turnover of lecturers had serious consequences on the running of the affairs which compromised the standards and ratings of the institution. Samuel and Chipunza (2013) stated that stability and ability for UNZA to effectively contribute to the growth of academics in the country and beyond entirely depended on the stability and retention of its academic staff. The shortage of lecturers due to turnover made it difficult

for the few academic staff that remained as they had to work under pressure to ensure that the university did not completely fail on delivering on its mandate of offering quality education to its students.

The scarcity of staff due to migrations made UNZA to fail to accomplish its other functions of research and community service because lecturers were often overloaded by teaching. It also brought frustrations to the few who remained so much that others left and followed their friends to other institutions where working conditions were better.

#### **5.4.2. Turnover had helped to create employment for more lecturers**

The study aimed at finding out from the lecturers whether turnover had helped to create employment for more lecturers at UNZA. The findings of the study clearly revealed that turnover did neither improve the quality of education nor created the much-needed employment for new lecturers. Hence, there was a serious need for UNZA to consider its policies that could improve the retention of lecturers. According to Kubler and DeLuca (2006); Thirapatsakun *et al.* (2015), management's role in governance of the organisation is to ensure that there is good institutional performance. This included employing of more lecturers to seal the gaps that were left by those who had migrated to other universities.

This was in agreement with the institutional culture of the conceptual framework where the management made sure lecturers were employed to fill the vacancies created by those who left for effective delivery of work. Retention could also be promoted by using Maslow's theory and Herzberg's theory. The intrinsic and extrinsic theories when applied to employees brought morale but this was not the case with UNZA.

Other respondents disagreed with the assertion that turnover helped to create employment. Nevertheless, this argument was a fact because expatriate and part-time lecturers joined UNZA because of the vacancies created by those lecturers who had

migrated during the period under study. Therefore, it somehow helped to create employment because new people came to replace those who left. The shortage made the standards of education to go down because when lecturers left, they went with their expertise that could not be replaced by part-time lecturers. In some circumstances, some courses could not continue because the only expert who had left could not be replaced. Therefore, the only alternative was to discontinue the programme even if it was popular.

#### **5.4.3. Impact of having expatriates and part-time lecturers on the education system**

The study determined to get the views of lecturers and administrators who participated in the study on whether there had not been any impact on the education system with the high turnover that UNZA had experienced. Majority of the respondents answered in the negative. Indeed, there was no way turnover of lecturers at UNZA could not have a negative impact on the quality of education. Rafiei and Davari (2016) emphasised that stability of the academic staff in any learning institution helped to achieve the much-desired results. For instance, in the education sector, the emigration of qualified lecturers and academics had led to the decline in the quality of education offered.

From the responses, it was revealed that the impact had been there as expatriate lecturers could only offer what they had or came with. They had to take a little bit of time to settle down and fit in the system of the institution. Had it not been for high turnover, both local and expatriate lecturers could have worked collaboratively to the benefit of both the students and the institution.

This research noted that the most valuable and volatile asset is a stable workforce of competent and dedicated employees. Longevity of employees usually gave an organisation an advantage and the depth of knowledge usually gave institutional strength. Long *et al.* (2014) alluded, therefore, that it was incumbent upon UNZA management to

ensure that tenure of office for lecturers became stable for purposes of consistency. Changing of academic staff, year in, year out, due to turnover usually had a negative impact on the education system. Hence, it was important to note that competent employees were increasingly difficult to replace with people of comparable competence, even with an effective succession plan in place.

It was surprising that some respondents said turnover had no impact on education when there were expatriate and part-time lecturers who took over the teaching of students. The part-time lecturers did not have time committed to students like the full-time lecturers who left. Hence, the study concluded that indeed, high turnover at UNZA had a negative impact on the quality of education being offered.

#### **5.4.4. Returning lecturers came back with new skills and expertise**

The study sought to find out whether lecturers who returned to UNZA after going out came with the much-needed skills and expertise. From what was obtained from the respondents, it was clear and evident that indeed those lecturers who might have gone out of UNZA for further studies returned to the institution and shared their new skills and expertise with the students and other colleagues who remained behind. Nevertheless, it was important to point out that some lecturers who went out might not have returned to the university and this had greatly contributed to the turnover levels. This was evident from the findings of the study where the responses were not far much together in regard to agreeing and disagreeing on how returning lecturers contributed to the growth and well-being of UNZA with their new skills and expertise. Therefore, turnover remained a challenge especially when it came to retaining lecturers who had gone out for further studies.

This was in agreement with the conceptual framework of independent variable of the administrative task of staff development. This could have brought a lot of improvement in their work. The theoretical framework of Maslow discussed the socialisation factor. The lecturer learnt a lot through group socialisation and this could be shared with the colleagues in the university. Herzberg's motivating factor looked at the growth needs of an employee which could be achieved through staff development. These social and growth needs if shared with their colleagues at UNZA could have contributed to development.

Unfortunately, when the lecturers who had gone out for studies came back, they might have not found some of their workmates due to turnover and hence could not have shared the new skills they had learnt fully. However, those who came to stay at UNZA might have shared the new knowledge with their colleagues and students they found.

Pont *et al.* (2008) observed that lecturers who went out for studies came back with new skills and expertise due to different programmes that they had gone to do. The experience they had gained after staying outside the institution made them to get skills which could have been used by UNZA if they were given a chance to practice or share with others. There could have been an improvement in the way lecturing was done which could have benefited students if learning and teaching material were there and if there was support from the departments. Some respondents doubted whether the lecturers who had gone out for studies came back with skills and expertise because most of them went for greener pastures or never came back. Most of them left with their expertise and skills and took them to other institutions. In most cases these universities were in foreign countries. In this, the country lost qualified personnel, which was much needed at that time for the development of UNZA but its competitors were the ones that benefitted.

#### **5.4.5. Lecturers in the Diaspora had supported the university and lecturers**

In academics, exchange of ideas and technical support is necessary for any university to thrive. Therefore, the study saw it fit to get the views of lecturers and administrators concerning support from their colleagues who were working in the Diaspora. Majority of the lecturer respondents did not agree with this assertion which indicated that there was little exchange of ideas and support between lecturers in the Diaspora and the local ones. However, the responses given here were not impressive as there was no exchange of ideas between those experts who had gone to other institutions and those lecturers who remained behind. If support and exchange of ideas were promoted at UNZA, the institution could have benefitted a lot through benchmarking and capacity building the local lecturers which could have helped UNZA to thrive in the area of academics. Library resources could have helped lecturers to acquire new material for teaching and writing articles. The lecturers who had gone to work outside the country needed to be connected to the foreign universities to their university back home so that help in form of teaching materials could have been given. Helms (2015) affirmed that African universities needed to build institutional linkages which could have included elements of equipment support, networking among scholars and access to library resources in the partner institutions.

Lecturers in the Diaspora had gone there because of unattractive salaries and poor economic condition of their country. Due to these main reasons stated, they became busy trying to make money for themselves and their families. Rarely did former UNZA lecturers try to connect the university to their new institutions because at times they were not listened to because of how they left UNZA.

For the lecturers in the Diaspora to support UNZA or build linkages, they needed to have gone on sabbatical leave or on special programmes for the institution. Otherwise, those

who left for greener pastures could have found it difficult to connect their former institution to their new organisation. Lecturers in the Diaspora, thus rarely connected UNZA to foreign institutions.

#### **5.4.6. Expatriate lecturers had brought new skills and expertise**

Lecturers and administrators of UNZA who took part in the study were asked to give their opinion in regard to whether expatriate lecturers had brought in new skills and expertise at UNZA. In their responses, it was clear that expatriate lecturers had brought in new skills and expertise at UNZA which had benefitted the institution. Nevertheless, these skills and expertise had not been utilised to their full potential because the local lecturers who needed the skills and expertise of the expatriate lecturers had left the campus for a number of reasons. Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) observed that the UNZA management could have ways and means of having a formidable and stable workforce that could have benefitted from the knowledge, skills, values and expertise of expatriate lecturers as it could be able to use these skills even in an event that expatriates left UNZA. The new skills and expertise could have been transferred to the local lecturers. Contrary to this, high turnover had resulted in expatriate lecturers filling the gaps left by local lecturers, which had resulted in UNZA benefitting little from these new skills and expertise emigrant lecturers came with (Jepsen *et al.*, 2014). If there were no migrations, UNZA could have gained more from expatriate lecturers who had brought new skills and expertise from their home countries.

#### **5.4.7. Expatriates and part-time lecturers had negatively impacted education**

Lecturers and administrators who took part in the study were given chance to comment on how expatriate and part-time lecturers impacted the education system at UNZA. From the responses that were given by lecturers and administrators, it was evident that

expatriate lecturers and part-time lecturers were crucial to the survival of UNZA. However, effort was needed in ensuring that inasmuch as expatriate lecturers added value to the academic spectrums of UNZA, indigenous lecturers were also vital.

Inasmuch as administrators were of the view that both expatriate and part-time lecturers filled the gaps left by full-time academic staff due to turnover, operations at UNZA had been negatively affected. The reasons that were advanced were that both expatriate and part-time lecturers had limited time to be at the university, hence, their contact hours were limited to lectures. Their availability at the institution depended on the time they were engaged compared to full-time lecturers who were supposed to attend to the other social, emotional, psychological needs of the students outside the classroom. Duffield (2014) argued that expatriate lecturers not might have fully understood the environment in which they operated compared to local full-time lecturers. Therefore, the fact that high turnover had made the management at UNZA to use part-time and expatriate lecturers to cushion the shortage, it had a negative impact on the quality of education at the institution.

### **5.5. Objective iii: Strategies to retain academic staff**

The third objective of this study was to establish strategies to retain academic staff at UNZA. The findings generated by this study revealed the following strategies discussed below:

#### **5.5.1. Offering competitive salaries and other allowances**

Lecturer and administrator respondents were asked to give various approaches UNZA could have used to retain its academic staff. Atomsa and Raju (2014); Mullins (2016) cited paying of salaries and other related allowances on time as motivators to retain the academic staff. Participants suggested that salaries, gratuity, and retirement benefits if

paid promptly could have retained Lecturers. Salaries of academic staff were oftentimes not paid on time, leading to demoralisation and this might have caused go-slows. At the same time, retired staff that still appeared on payrolls blocked the administration from employing more teaching staff. The retired UNZA lecturers appeared on two payrolls. Some had even died without getting their benefits. Though UNZA had managed to pay off some, it still had the challenges of a number of retired people not getting their benefits.

This was in line with the conceptual framework which emphasised on remuneration as one duty of the institutional culture. When people got their salaries, they felt satisfied and motivated in their work. This acted as a motivator. They got encouraged to go on working because they could have food on the table. This was also in line with the theoretical framework of Maslow and Herzberg's theories. If the basic needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs were missing, the workers could not go to the next level of needs. They could remain at the same level until they were satisfied. Hawken (2014) added that lack of basic needs could even lead to riots because of frustration.

In Zambia, during the period under discussion, there was an economic depression and workers' salaries could not be increased because of a wage freeze. This financial hopelessness of UNZA administration demotivated lecturers (VanLerberghe *et al.*, 2002).

One of Herzberg's hygiene factors, were salaries which were extrinsic to work. When salaries were absent, it could lead to dissatisfaction. Salaries could make employees happy for a short time. But if these hygiene factors were missing, the worker couldn't perform the job to the satisfaction of the employers. This was in line with the conceptual framework. The institution was supposed to give attractive salaries and incentives to its lecturers. Where these motivators went missing, results became unsatisfactory or time

could be spent on work stoppage or lecturers working in other institutions to supplement their income due to dissatisfaction.

The views of lecturers were not far from those of the administrators in regard to retention of lecturers. This implied that these approaches if well implemented by UNZA management could go a long way in the retention of lecturers at the institution.

The study therefore ascertained that attractive incentives and remunerations could attract people to remain and work for the university. The institutional and administrative culture of any university if well utilised could motivate, make employees work harder and stay longer because they could feel cared for.

#### **5.5.2. Staff development programmes**

The study collected views of lecturers and administrators on the strategies UNZA could use to retain lecturers. Many participants suggested that staff development programmes could help the academic staff to improve on their skills. Career growth, learning, and development were the three top reasons that made people stay in their jobs. A “good” boss provides opportunities for development in their career. The managers encourage employees to improve the work itself as well as their skills and to keep up with the latest developments in their field. Dockel (2003) stressed that investment in training was one way to show employees how important they were. Herman (2013) also affirmed that an institution that paid and supported employee development could generously pay for academic and training courses. Onward staff training is one way of improving skills and knowledge for lecturers so that teaching could be improved. If lecturers went for studies, they could be assured of being promoted.

Providing formal training and development opportunities was only one means of helping employees to learn and grow. Coaching, mentoring, and providing informal learning

opportunities on the job could be done regularly (Australian Public Service Commission, 2017). In the early 1990s, UNZA academic staff used to go abroad for their higher qualifications such as Doctorate degrees. But later, the institution started offering these qualifications internally except when somebody had a scholarship. UNZA offered studies for Doctoral or Masters Degrees to its lecturers free of charge but a beneficiary should have worked for at least two years to join the programme. This was one way of retaining academic staff.

This was in line with the administrative culture of the independent variable in the conceptual framework, which confirmed the importance of staff improvement. Staff development programmes could enhance retention of lecturers because they get adequate knowledge to teach at the university. Masaiti and Naluyele (2011) supported the need for UNZA administration to provide funds for studies and research but added that bonding could have helped to retain the academics though terminal benefits were sometimes forfeited.

UNZA had internal brain drain where the academics stopped going outside the country because their salaries were competitive in the region and because the neighbouring countries had their own qualified staff and did not need expatriate staff. The lecturers instead, went to teach in nearby universities because they were qualified enough and there was money which they obtained to supplement their salaries.

Hence, staff development empowered lecturers to even go to nearby universities to teach or to act as consultants in Non-Governmental Organisations because of the skill that they acquired by working at UNZA. Training, therefore, became a motivator in retaining the academic members of staff.

### 5.5.3. Socialisation

The study findings showed that staff turnover could also have a negative impact on other lecturers by disrupting group socialisation processes and increasing internal conflict, which could trigger additional absenteeism. In addition, the interpersonal bond developed between employees is central to the communication patterns that are characteristic and unique to any institution.

Smits *et al.* (2017) stated that people grew professionally and personally, and that good employers were able to accommodate these changes in the circumstances. A highly satisfied workforce was far more capable of meeting organisational goals and customer needs than an apathetic and uninspired one.

Overall, the picture presented by the results of this study indicated that staff turnover in organisations created gaps in social groupings. Staff turnover might have caused academics to be mobile and to be continuously drawn to administrative portfolios and management positions within universities. Some diverted to research and some went for consultative works while others got involved with the private sectors (Dube and Ngulube, 2013). However, Sucher and Gupta (2018) cautioned that job-hopping usually exerts pressure on organisations' stability and sustainability because those who leave are supposed to be paid their dues, to be replaced, and skills are to be developed for new hires. Experience and productivity from the lecturers who leave is therefore lost.

Exciting, challenging and meaningful work that made a difference or a contribution to society were cited by respondents as some of the most important factors in job satisfaction. These could have been related to important factors such as the need to feel connected to a group or team, in that they revealed a desire connected to one's work and to the larger society through one's work. Mullins (2016) contributed that managers and

lecturers could work as a team in order to achieve their objectives. Teamwork and the help lecturers got from their peers could have been promoted and uplifted. Lecturers, through community work, found time to socialise with other people.

The lecturers socialised in the staff canteen through playing indoor games such as chess, or darts. Through the teams which they formed, they could compete against each other. At the Senior Staff Canteen, there was a restaurant and bar just for lecturers. The union held various activities such as Labour Day and end of year parties just to bring lecturers together. The academic staff had a social platform for communicating what was going on at their institution. Socialisation made lecturers to learn more about each other and their institution.

#### **5.5.4. Stable contracts**

The administrator participants highlighted the possible ways of improving staff retention. They held that steady contracts were one way of motivating lecturers at UNZA. This is vital as any person working for an institution needs to be valued and appreciated by attending to his or her needs on time. This could result in high motivation levels and morale to keep on contributing to the growth of the institution and consequently bringing about job satisfaction (Mapolisa, 2015). Respondents suggested that long-term contracts were important, especially to the young ones. The securing of employment was important. Lecturers used to be on two, then four-year contracts. This was not good enough for the young ones who were always worried about their jobs and the renewal of their contracts. If one was not in good terms with the supervisor, there was worry of whether their contract would be renewed.

This was in line with Maslow's hierarchy of needs where psychological, safety needs such as security were important and could make an employee to be secured or not

secured. This was also supported by Dessler (2017), who asserted that security of employment is significant to an employee. If one felt insecure, there could have been no commitment to work because there was no ownership to work. Highly qualified lecturers found it easier to go to organisations where there was security of employment.

Therefore, stable contracts were suggested as a way of improving retention. Unstable contracts contribute to turnover, especially among young lecturers, who are always worried about the security of their jobs, and often decide to leave and went somewhere where attractive conditions of service exist. Lecturers moved to any place in the world, especially in the neighbouring countries which had attractive conditions of work.

#### **5.5.5. Promotion**

Both the lecturer and administrator respondents were asked to suggest other possible ways that UNZA could use to ensure that it retains its lecturers. From the given responses, the lecturers indicated that promotion of members of staff should be done on merit. Promotion at UNZA was objective and the university was too consultative. But promotion is based on teaching, research and community service as well as a certain number of publications.

It was suggested by the participants in this research that routine promotions were not clear. The participants complained of the method of promoting the academics that existed at UNZA. They suggested that the size of the class one taught could have been the basis for promotion. For instance, the School of Education had big classes where the lecture theatres were packed to capacity. Lecturers who taught such packed lecture theatres could be promoted because they stood pressure. In addition to this, the academic staff is required to publish articles or books and do community service in order to be promoted. The academicians were, however, not sure as to how many articles one needed to publish

in order to be promoted. Tetty (2010) observed that though teaching was said to be an important consideration in promotion decisions, the reality tended to be that research got weighed much more heavily than teaching. This brought a lot of frustration on the academicians that could have been waiting for a long time.

The respondents observed that human development and lecturers should have attended workshops and seminars in order to acquire more knowledge. When lecturers were given incentives for outstanding performance, they felt appreciated and in turn worked hard. Psychological or intangible rewards (intrinsic) such as recognition and appreciation played an important role in motivating employees and raising their performance. Relevantly, the employees' commitment was based on appreciation and rewards (Andrew, 2004). It was added that the supervisors could have identified lecturers who were dedicated to their duties. Those who had many teaching or contact sessions ought to have been motivated. Good performers could have been acknowledged by promoting them. Wright et al. (2014) observed that promotion encourages hard work, commitment and good results, thereby retaining staff.

Saleem *et al.* (2012) added that if an employee with higher education and skills felt that there was no acknowledgement through being given a more enriching job and consequently higher compensation for one's abilities, that employee was likely to quit. In this regard, the staff with good performance could predict that their significant contributions could have been realised and valued by the top managers (Kamalian *et al.*, 2010). The lecturers, who worked hard, those with a sense of duty and intellect, tended to be much more negatively affected by the increased work generated by high staff turnover.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory posited that employees wanted to be held in self-esteem. Employees looked forward to promotions or recognition as people with some

value. If the academic staff was not promoted after attaining the highest qualification, they felt frustrated and left the organisation. Herzberg's motivation factors also supported this fact. Employees need to be praised and recognised by superiors. They need to be responsible for the work they are doing. In addition to these theories, the conceptual framework affirms that promotion is significant to the academic staff. The administrative culture of UNZA was that every hard-working lecturer had to be appreciated. This motivated the academic staff and brought about good results.

#### **5.5.6. Improvement on exchange programmes with other universities**

UNZA does not work in isolation. It partners with other universities. The respondents therefore suggested that exchange programmes that brought new knowledge could be strengthened. For instance, UNZA had partnered with Zimbabwe University in offering masters and PhD programmes. It had also partnered with China and Japanese governments where the academics could even be given scholarships for further studies or workshops and seminars as this is another avenue through which academic staff could be able to do research in the absence of local funding. Exchange of lecturers with other universities could bring about development to UNZA because new skills and knowledge could contribute to the work life at the institution.

This was in line with the conceptual framework where the administrative culture ensured that lecturers were sent for studies in order to improve on their skills. This knowledge when applied fervently could have benefitted the institution.

Hamrita (2011) stated that other universities or institutions could have used the experience and expertise of academic staff from UNZA to help solve problems of the region or country. The organisation needed to improve on interlinks with universities in other countries that could in turn share materials with UNZA lecturers on sabbatical

leave. Such exchange programmes help lecturers gain more experience which can be useful to UNZA. The participants suggested that staff exchange programmes could have helped management to improve on the running of the university through the new academic staff who could have brought new ideas to develop the institution.

#### **5.5.7. Employing of part-time lecturers**

The participants were asked about the possible way management could have used to improve retention of lecturers. Employing of part-time lecturers was suggested as one way of mitigating staff shortages. The views of the lecturers and administrators on the aspect of contracting part-time lecturers were different. The respondents were for the view that part-time and expatriate lecturers had limited time to attend to all the needs of the students. Contrary to this, administrators felt that recruiting part-time lecturers was in order to address the issues of shortages of lecturers at the university (Xu, 2018).

The only way forward for UNZA was to ensure that the institution employed more staff who could be retained by motivating them to put in their best and contribute positively to the well-being of the institution. This view was supported by Netsweraet *al.*, (2005); Yang *et al.*, (2010) who argued that meeting the expectations of employees and staying up-to-date with the job prospects for new and existing employees, to the level which other organisations meet these expectations, was demanded for employee retention. Implementing all these views, could see massive retention of its staff as there could be a motivated workforce because of such strategies.

This is in line with Herzberg's theory where employees were motivated through extrinsic factors such as attractive salaries. If lecturers were highly motivated extrinsically, they could have stayed at UNZA. Therefore, drastic measures, such as these ones proposed by

the administrators, could have gone a long way in improving the quality of education at UNZA.

The study noted that despite these strategies UNZA management had put in place in order to mitigate the migration of lecturers, which resulted in high turnover every year, the institution kept on losing its academic staff. The only lasting solution to the challenges of retention at UNZA was to ensure that the university recruited more lecturers and retained them. This could go a long way in mitigating and alleviating shortages of academic staff at UNZA. Retention of lecturers was critical to UNZA if it was to maintain its academic profile both locally and internationally. The academic staff is a critical component in helping the institution achieve its objectives of producing highly skilled and learned human resource which the country needed most. This view is supported by Esemé (2010); Mamoon (2013) who observed that hiring the right people from the start could also reduce turnover.

Therefore, the lecturer and management participants suggested that employing of part-time lecturers could have helped to solve the problem of turnover and reduce the excess load that lecturers who had remained had to take up.

#### **5.5.8. Improving university infrastructure**

Another possible way to retain lecturers is to improve the state of the infrastructure, such as providing adequate office space, laboratories and lecture theatre as well as housing for members of staff. Satisfying the lecturers could encourage them to stay longer in the institution. UNZA was building more hostels for students, office accommodation for academic staff as well as lecture theatres but these were being overtaken by the ever-growing population of the institution. Kamwanga (2013) stated that the institution

suffered staffing constraints and support systems as well as infrastructure limitations like those of the wider University of Zambia.

When an employee is content with his or her working conditions, he or she is more likely to stay with the organisation (Masaiti and Naluyele, 2011). Good infrastructure motivates lecturers. The academics needed to teach in less crowded lecture theatres or laboratories and they needed office space and houses for their families. This is in line with Herzberg's theoretical framework where extrinsic motivation satisfies employees in their work. On the other hand, the conceptual framework provided the need for managers to provide an enabling environment for lecturers to work in. A university with adequate infrastructure would encourage lecturers to teach with zeal.

#### **5.5.9. Use of modern teaching and learning material and improved library facilities**

All the lecturer and administrator respondents agreed that modern teaching and learning resources would play a significant role in retaining lecturers.

In most circumstances, lecturers used their own laptops for teaching. When they leave abruptly, the institution loses the teaching material. However, lecturers at times didn't have learning or teaching material that is the reason they use personal teaching material. It was suggested that making strides in ensuring that modern technology is incorporated in teaching and learning such as the use of ICT through video conferencing, Skype and PowerPoint presentation for lectures and e-learning and other modern technologies could improve the teaching of big groups than depending entirely on the traditional type of teaching. All these strategies if well employed would play a big role in ensuring that lecturers become motivated and contribute positively to the growth of UNZA.

The University Library stocks mostly old books while students needed new books. The only other option for students was to access study material through the internet but a number of students did not know how to use computers and therefore, the internet which often leads to cheating as they have to ask their friends to research for them. Some students who were computer literate waited in queues at the library in order to access the computer laboratory to do their research using the few university computers because it was costly to use computers at the internet cafes outside the university.

The views given by the administrator respondents were significant in achieving the aspirations of any institution of higher learning. Big lecturer theatres to accommodate a larger number of students were needed for the institution. Teaching and learning resources such as well-furnished library, study rooms and general environment of the campus need to be conducive not only for teaching and learning but also for carrying out research (Collins and Clark, 2003; Brink *et al.*, 2013). It is important to retain top talent in order to produce attractive results in the institution.

This was in line with the conceptual framework in which the moderating variables of good learning and teaching materials were key to staff retention. All respondents supported the notion that teaching and learning resources need to be improved in their university in order to reduce on stress. When lecturers came from their studies, they found it difficult to adjust to the challenges of learning and teaching resources that UNZA was facing. Those who had gone to developed countries bemoaned the situation in Zambia when they compared how easy it was to go to class in the countries they were retaining from and this often frustrated them. This is the reason why participants of the study thought that if learning and teaching resources were made available, it could contribute to staff retention.

## 5.6. Chapter Summary

This chapter tried to interpret and discuss the findings obtained in the study. All the interpretations and discussions done were in line with the research objectives that were used to gather data from the participants who took part in the study. The data was interpreted and discussed based on the research findings that were obtained in the previous chapter.

In objective one, the study discussed the factors that contributed to turnover. The respondents cited poor remunerations and other allowances as having contributed to migration of academic staff to other countries and institutions. In addition to that, they observed that the economic condition in the country was poor and it triggered some lecturers to leave the institution. Poor promotion procedures, which were more subjective, might have added to the migrations of academic staff at UNZA. They also felt that the university infrastructure and housing were not adequate for the standards of the educated lecturers. The participants contributed that professional development should be improved. The political appointments, unstable contracts, professional contacts and new cultural experiences were cited as some of the factors that might have contributed to lecturers' leaving UNZA.

The second objective discussed the consequences that turnover had on the institution. Among the effects of turnover was shortage of academic staff that was created due to migrations. Turnover of lecturers created vacancies in the university. Therefore, part-time and expatriate staffs were employed in order to mitigate staff shortages. This had an impact on the education system because these people did not stay long. Some lecturers who had gone for higher studies came back with skills and expertise but, they failed to share with the local staff because most of them had gone to teach in other countries and

hence the competitors benefitted. Those who went to teach outside the country rarely connected their university so that it benefitted. This was because some of them left confusion in the university. The third objective discussed the strategies that respondents suggested UNZA could use in order to improve on retention of lecturers. Respondents advised that competitive salaries and other allowance could retain the academic staff. They added that paying of gratuity and pension benefits on time could make lecturers stay longer. The respondents further observed that if staff development improved, lecturers could be retained. They stated that stable contracts for younger lecturers could make them stay. The participants stated that promotion procedures could maintain lecturers' morale. Improvement on exchange programmes could help to bring new knowledge and skills to the institution. In order to alleviate staff shortages, the administrator participants suggested that the institution could employ part-time lecturers. The improvement and completion of infrastructure was further highlighted as a factor that could help UNZA have enough offices and lecture theatres where lecturers could work from. The participants added that modern teaching and learning material if made available could encourage the teaching staff to work with zeal. By having new books in the library, students could use updated information. Lastly but not the least, social groupings were to be improved for lecturers in order to encourage them to relax.

The next chapter will look at the summary, conclusion and recommendation.

## **CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1. Overview**

The previous chapter discussed and analysed the findings on retention of lecturers at UNZA. This chapter presents a summary of the study and highlights the main conclusion and recommendations. A suggestion is finally put forward for further research in the area of the study.

### **6.2. Summary**

The deteriorating economic environment, inflation that rendered salaries useless, the globalisation process that removed geographical barriers, among other factors, rendered the then motivational factors too inadequate to keep lecturers in their jobs. In this study, the researcher examined the retention of academic staff at UNZA with regard to views on the approaches, factors, consequences and strategies used. The study revealed that satisfaction, salary, promotion, and management are important among the academics. There are intrinsic, as well as extrinsic factors that Maslow (1959) and Herzberg (1968) discussed that can contribute to retention of lecturers in a university. The study realised that a salary and other material benefits alone do not automatically lead to excellent performance. Intrinsic incentives should be looked at as they promote positive job performance. The theoretical framework discussed Maslow (1954) and Herzberg's (1959) theories in relation to retention of academic staff. Maslow theory argues that individuals are motivated to satisfy a number of different kinds of needs, some of which are more pressing than others. Until these more pressing needs are satisfied, other needs have little effect on an individual's behaviour. Herzberg expressed his theory of motivation in terms of satisfaction rather than productivity. The motivators inspire lecturers because they

appeal to their higher-level needs for achievement and self-esteem. If hygiene factors were applied effectively they could prevent dissatisfaction.

The conceptual framework discussed independent variables, such as the institutional and administrative culture of the university vis-a-vis the cardinal role they play in worker satisfaction if they implement their policies properly. Moderating variables when attractive will make one to remain longer (dependable variable) in an institution.

Limitations brought out certain factors in the research such as males dominating in the research. The meaning is that the findings were going to be biased towards males. The other limitation was that respondents could not be easily reached because they were either outside the country or had retired. There was a methodological limitation. For instance, the researcher needed to constantly consult experts in mixed method in order to come up with this report.

Chapter Two looked at the literature review. The first objective addressed factors that caused qualified professionals to leave their institutions. Poor remunerations, lack of promotions, lack of staff development, overworking of personnel and poor relationships with supervisors were among the factors. In Zambia, many nurses, teachers left to go and work in the sub-region and other parts of the world, causing a critical shortage of staff. The second objective was on consequences of people leaving their organisations. Many qualified people left to go and work in other institutions which had attractive salaries. The cost of employing new academics, poor working conditions, high teacher-student ratio, work overloads were among the many consequences discussed.

Chapter Three discussed the methodology used in the study. Convergent parallel design was used. In this case, a mixed method approach was followed. The pragmatic theory was used for this study. To analyse the quantitative data, deductive approach was

employed while qualitative data was analysed using inductive approach. The population used was the University of Zambia, targeting all the 617 lecturers and 334 administrators. There were 113 participants who were sampled. The sampling procedure used was probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The purposive sampling technique was used on the academic staff and the stratified random sampling technique was used on the administrators. For the probability sampling method, lecturers were randomly selected. The population had an equal chance of being selected. The non-probability sampling method, which was used on the administrators, was automatic. Administrators were included in the study due to their positions. The research instruments used were questionnaires and interviews. Validity and reliability of the instruments were guaranteed. The credibility and dependability of qualitative instruments were assured. The data collected was coded, categorised and entered into the computer using SPSS for generation of tables. Qualitative data collected from interviews was recorded, and grouped according to research objectives. Ethical procedures from UNZA and Ministry of Health were followed.

Chapter Four looked at the presentation of findings of the study. Data was collected quantitatively or qualitatively following the research questions. Quantitative data was collected through questionnaires. Qualitative data from respondents was collected through interviews. The first objective was on the factors that made the academics to leave UNZA. Poor salaries, poor economic condition in the country, feeling unappreciated, poor infrastructure, lack of professional development, political appointments, lack of research funds were some of the factors identified. The second objective discussed the consequences that UNZA faced after lecturers had migrated to other institutions. UNZA faced a shortage of staff and it had to hire new staff on part-time or full-time basis when it did not even have enough finances. It became costly

replacing academic staff that had left the institution and there was a work overload, lack of modern teaching resources was among the other factors. These factors affected the quality of teaching and learning.

The third objective made suggestions on what strategies UNZA should take in order to retain lecturers. Competitive salaries and other allowances as well as timely payment of the same, enhanced staff development programmes, more objective promotion procedures and stable contracts were recommended to be given to the lecturers and that there should be improvement in exchange programmes with other universities. The management suggested that part-time lecturers were to be employed to alleviate the work load on the remaining full-time lecturers. Modern teaching and learning resources were suggested to play a role in the retention. The university infrastructure needed to be improved in terms of space in lecture theatres as well as offices for staff.

Chapter Five discussed the findings of the study following the objectives. In this study, the researcher examined the retention of academic staff at UNZA with regard to factors, consequences and strategies. The study revealed that the poor economy, salary, promotion, and staff development were among the reasons that made lecturers to leave UNZA. There are intrinsic, as well as extrinsic factors that Maslow (1959); Herzberg (1968) and (Jived *et al.*, 2014) discussed that could contribute to retention of lecturers in a university. The study realised that a salary and other material incentives alone do not automatically lead to excellent performance. Intrinsic incentives could be looked at as they promoted positive job performance.

Objective one as presented in chapter five highlighted the factors that made lecturers dissatisfied. Among the factors mentioned were the poor economy, non-competitive salaries, staff development, delayed and subjective promotions, poor infrastructure, lack

of appropriate teaching and reading material. High labour turnover is dangerous because it affects the growth and productivity of an establishment. From the empirical studies, a core of experienced workers is necessary for the success of an institution. Lilith and Singh (2014) observed that for experience on the job and in the institution, workers must be stable. Organisations and institutions are highly concerned about employees leaving because it is generally very costly to select and train new employees to replace those who leave. The academics see job satisfaction as the most important aspect. Job satisfaction was regarded as an intrinsic element that motivates staff to stay within their jobs. Extrinsic factors were also said to be important because they brought immediate happiness though they did not last. Another element was the fact that the academic staff had little confidence in some of their administrators. This resulted in dissatisfaction in their jobs with regard to their growth and development. In support of the intrinsic element, there were also the extrinsic aspects that have an impact, either positively or negatively, on the job environment. Torrington (2014) declared that academic staff felt that salaries, academic promotion, and development were the main aspects and with regard to these factors, the respondents felt that their expectations were not met. A certain amount of labour turnover was inevitable. Illness, accidents, aging, death and a variety of personal reasons bring about separation. Too much of labour turnover, however, could severely reduce productivity. It implied therefore that the respondents who were in management needed to be concerned about the level of labour turnover in their institution and determine the degree of it that was healthy or unhealthy.

Consequences were discussed under objective two. The lecturers became demoralised due to their unmet needs. When there is no contentment, lecturers developed a sense of insecurity and some quit their jobs for other institutions abroad and within the country. Lecturers' type of employment contracts is important as they determine whether they

would leave or stay though not significant determinants of intentions to retain jobs. Cole (2011) added that the plans one had just in case a temporary contract expired were important determinants of whether one would stay or not though they had no significant influence on the intentions of lecturers to retain their jobs. The academic staff became unhappy and in addition to that it became costly to hire lecturers who were at times not experienced.

The third objective in chapter five concerned the strategies that UNZA used to retain lecturers. It was found that appropriate policies needed to be applied, infrastructure development be undertaken, socialisation at the work place be promoted, appropriate teaching and learning material be provided to lecturers, attractive salaries and incentives as well as giving retirement benefits to retirees was to be considered. It was therefore, imperative to come up with appropriate policies to reduce labour turnover and promote retention of university lecturers by studying and understanding how workers can be motivated.

When the academics received support from the administration, they reduced on burnout and stress (Robbins and Coulter, 2018). From 2010 to 2016, there was an internal brain drain. The academicians started ‘moonlighting’, taking jobs from nearby universities so that they could get some extra income. This helped them not to migrate to other institutions. However, this had an adverse effect on retention where lecturers focused attention on making extra money at the expense of their jobs. This was a draw back to the university. Productivity needed to be enhanced even if lecturers had piece works in nearby universities. It was also revealed that attractive salaries, the pride that comes with being connected to UNZA and satisfaction were among the approaches that the administration used to retain lecturers. Satisfaction with the employment contract enhances lecturers’ intentions to stay in their job at the university. Cole and Kelly (2015)

states that lecturers' type of employment contract was important for their intentions to stay though they were not significant determinants of intentions to retain jobs. The plans one had just in case a temporary contract expired were important determinants of intentions to stay but had no significant influence on the intentions of lecturers to retain their jobs.

### **6.3. Conclusion**

The study has established that during the period 1990 to 2016, the University of Zambia experienced challenges with regard to retention of its lecturers. Many academic staff left the institution for greener pastures in neighbouring countries, which offered more competitive conditions of service and more conducive working environments.

The study found that the factors that affected retention of lecturers included the poor economy that the country was going through. UNZA as a public university from its inception in 1965, was severely affected by the economic deterioration that occurred during the first Republic. The conditions of service at UNZA were no longer attractive due to the poor economy. The country was subjected to structural adjustment programmes of the IMF, which included a wage freeze. A significant fraction of UNZA's wage bill was covered by the government grant. If the payment of the grant delayed, then payment of salaries was delayed. During the latter years of the first Republic, in the 1990s, UNZA suffered many closures and no user fees were realised hence the institution had challenges in meeting its contractual obligations.

While UNZA was going through these challenges, countries within the sub-region and abroad had attractive salaries and conditions of service and offered a conducive working environment. The salaries, non-payment of outstanding pension benefits and gratuity seemed to have been a major factor for movements of lecturers from the institution.

Frustration made them to migrate to institutions that offered better salaries and conditions.

In the second Republic, many private universities were created and the government allowed the private sector to participate in offering of tertiary education. Some of the new public universities had attractive conditions of service which sparked the movement of some lecturers from UNZA to those new universities. UNZA had lecturers who were highly skilled and therefore offered consultancy works to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) as a way of raising extra income. Some got engaged into helping the new universities to establish programmes.

Retention had taken a different turn at UNZA when some lecturers got involved in teaching in other universities to supplement their salaries from UNZA. The allowances they got from those extra-curricular activities provided a means of survival whenever their salaries from UNZA were delayed. Moonlighting had enabled lecturers who never migrated to remain at UNZA. However, this made them to be less committed to their work because they had to divide their attention.

During the early 2000s, the university changed the employment system from permanent and pensionable to a contract-based system. Such change came about as a result of the structural adjustment programmes of the IMF and World Bank. This system led to job insecurity for the academic staff and also played a significant role in the retention of staff.

In recent past, around 2012, the government tried to make salaries of lecturers competitive and comparable to institutions in the sub-region. The university also came up with gratuities to improve retention. There was no means of clearing the backlog of retirees and this greatly reduced the numbers of lecturers. Further, many of those lecturers who were teaching in the university discontinued such engagements.

Staff development had been a factor in staff turnover. The academic staff needed to go to study further otherwise they were not going to be promoted. Some lecturers who went out for further studies never returned but opted to join other universities that had attractive remunerations. The Staff Development Fellow Policy, where students who were outstanding in performance joined the institution as lecturers and later sent for studies was not effective. In the early 1990s lecturers were identified and sent for higher studies. Now that is no more because UNZA has introduced masters and PhD programmes. However, the academic fellow policy still needs to be improved on.

However, some academic staff had left for positive reasons, for instance, they had plans for final settlement. Some had left for other institutions within the country in a way of moving closer to where they had invested and could settle when they had retired from active service. Other lecturers left because of a desire to contribute to the growth of other new universities within the country such as Zambia Open, Mulungushi and Copperbelt universities.

The study established the following as some of the major consequences of turnover of academic staff. Shortage of academic staff was one of them. Those lecturers, who never left, became involved in moonlighting to raise extra income. This reduced commitment to their work because they had divided attention.

The other major consequence was quality of teaching which deteriorated. Part-time lecturers were employed to alleviate staff shortages, but they were less committed and less accountable. Expatriates who were employed took long to settle and this caused some disruption in teaching.

There were strategies which were suggested from this study in order to have a steady workforce. Firstly, salaries need to be attractive and paid promptly. Pension benefits and gratuities needed to be settled to those lecturers that had not been honoured.

The other strategy was that the infrastructure needed to be improved so that lecturers could have offices and students could have spacious lecturer theatres as well as hostels. It was suggested that the administration needed to employ more part-time lecturers to reduce the work load of the permanent lecturers. The other approach was on promotion procedures by UNZA administration. Lecturers should be promoted basing on the size of their classes. Those who handled big groups were to be recognised and promoted for the pressure they went through by teaching such crowds and not necessarily qualifications.

#### **6.4. Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Improved conditions of service would immensely contribute to retention of lecturers for better performance. Geiger and Pivovarova (2018) suggested that increment of salaries relative to those paid to other professionals in equivalent occupations and the provision of incentives such as retirement benefits and pension plans, and suitable accommodation would greatly motivate lecturers. Fringe benefits should be paid on time. This is based on the finding that incentives such as salaries, housing, health care, teaching and learning material and office space were poor and this made some lecturers to leave to neighbouring countries or institutions which had competitive conditions of service.
- ii. The development programme of academic staff should be prioritised since possible growth and advancement on the job is a vital motivational factor. Bidisha *et al.* (2013) held that well-designed training programmes should be emphasised not just to meet the professional needs of university lecturers but also to enhance the quality of teaching and

ensure the retention of competent and dedicated staff. This arose from the finding that lecturers' training provides opportunities to widen their knowledge and abilities for more efficient work and achieve individual development. Their level of their job satisfaction is higher than those without such training.

iii. There is need for the university to consider providing research grants to academic staff. Research is the backbone of every university. The university could set aside a fraction of the funds that it generates through user fees for research which all academic staff can access. *Sierra et al. (2017)* indicated *that* research generates knowledge and raises the profile of the institution. This was based on the findings that UNZA lacked money for research. Without conducting research, one would not be promoted and there would be no new knowledge in the university.

iv. Promotion of lecturers should not be subjective, rather, a more objective point scoring system should be used so that every lecturer is motivated (*Ali Iqbal, 2020*). This is due to the fact that lecturers were promoted based on qualifications and what the promotion committee recommended. Promotion criteria ought to include the size of class the lecturers handled.

v. The university should improve its income generating ventures so that it raises enough money for salaries and other needs instead of over-reliance on the government grant. *Cooper et al. (2014)* contributed that the institution should be self-sustaining in order for the academic staff to be satisfied. This was based on the finding that conditions of service ought to be attractive. Paying gratuity, salaries and pension benefits on time would help in retaining lecturers. The university depended on the government grant, student fees, and money from their projects for salaries. If the economy of the country is poor then the institution also faces challenges in satisfying the academic staff.

### **6.5. Recommendation for further research**

A comparison study on the retention of lecturers can be done between UNZA and Copperbelt University. This can be done in order to check how the two public universities promote retention among the academic staff in the period between 2016 and 2020.

## REFERENCES

- Abdullah, C. Mamun, A. and Hasan, N. (2017). 'Factors affecting Employee Turnover and Sound Retention Strategies in Business Organisation: a Conceptual View'. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 15(1), 63-71.
- Adedeji, S. O., Olaniyan, O. (2011). 'Improving the Conditions of Teachers and Teaching in Rural Schools across African Countries'. *UNESCO International Institute for Capacity-Building in Africa*. ISBN: 978-99944-835-2-5.
- Adepoju, A. (2008). 'Perspectives on International Migration and National Development in Sub-Saharan Africa'. In Adepoju, A., Van Naerssen, T. and Zoomers, A. (Eds); *International Migration and National Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: Viewpoints and Policy Initiatives in the Countries of Origin*; p. 21-48.
- Adi.V. (2012). 'Driving Performance and Retention to Employee Engagement: A Case Study of the University of Brawijaya (Indonesia)'. *Journal of Applied Social Science Research* 2 (1): 338-350.
- Agarwal, R. and Holmes, M. (2017). 'Let's Not Focus on Income Inequality', *Academy of Management Review*, 10.5465/amr.2018.0128, 44, 2, (450-460), (2019).
- Agwu, M. O. and Olele, H. E. (2014). 'Fatalities in the Nigerian Construction Industry: A Case of Poor Safety Culture'. *British Journal of Economics, Management and Trade* 4(3): pp431-452.
- Akhtar, C. S., Aamir, A., Khurshid, M. A., Abro, M. Q., Hussain, J. (2015). 'Total Rewards and Retention: A Case study of Higher Education Institutions in Pakistan'. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 210, 251-259.
- Akkerman, A., Sluiter, R., Jansen, G. (2015). 'Direct and Indirect Employee Participation. The Interplay between Direct and Indirect Employee Participation and Institutional Context, and its effects on establishment-level outcomes. Dublin, Ireland': *The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Euro fund)*.
- Allen, M. L. (2015). *Employee Voice, Equal Opportunities and Workplace Outcomes: An analysis of UK workplaces*. Manchester Metropolitan University: Manchester.
- Al Mamun, C. A., Hasan, N. and Prasad, R. (2017). 'Factors affecting Employee Turnover and sound Retention Strategies in Business Organization': *A conceptual view Problems and Perspectives in Management* 15(1): 63-71.
- Ali Iqbal, B. D. L. M. (2020). 'Effect of Leadership and Motivation on the Employee Performance through Work Environment as Intervening Variable (Case Study at PT ATS)'. *European Journal of Business and Management*. vol 12 (3).
- Amutuhair, T. (2010). *Terms of Service and Job Retention among Academic staff in Makerere University*. Master of Arts in Higher Education Studies Thesis, Makerere University, Kampala.

Ariss, A. A., Cascio, W. F., and Paauwe, J. (2014). 'Talent Management: Current theories and Future Research Directions'. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 173–179. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.001>.

Aşkun, D., Yeloğlu, H. O. and Yıldırım, O. B. (2017). 'Are Self Efficacious Individuals more Sensitive to Organizational Justice Issues? The Influence of Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Justice Perceptions and Turnover. European Management Review': *The Journal of European Academy of Management*. Volume15, Issue 2P. 273-284.

Atomsa, S. M. and Raju, M. V. R. (2014). 'EXCEL'. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Management Studies*, 4 (2), pp. 144-161.

Avram E., Ionescu, D. and Mincu, C. L. (2015). 'Perceived Safety Climate and Organisational Trust: The Mediator role of Job Satisfaction'. *Procedia Soc. Behav. Sci* 2015; 187: 679-684.

Babbie, E., R. (2010). *The Practice of Social Research*, (15<sup>th</sup> Edition). Belmont, Wadsworth Cengage: California.

Badubi, R. M. (2017). 'Theories of Motivation and Their Application in Organizations': *A Risk Analysis International Journal of Innovation and Economic Development*, Volume 3, Issue 3.

Bangi, Y. I. (2014). 'The Influence of Management Practice and Attitudes on Employee Turnover, Kibaha District coast region'. *University of Dar Es Salaam. The international Journal of business andmanagement*.2 (9), 33- 42.

Barry, M., Wilkinson, A. (2016). 'Pro-social or pro-management'. A critique of the conception of Employee voice as a Pro-social Behaviour within Organisational behaviour'. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 54, 261-284.

Begun, W. and Mohamed, M. 2016). 'A Study on HRM Practices and its Impact on Job Satisfaction and Organisation Performance in BPO Sector, Tiruchirappalli'. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management (IJARM)*, 7(3), 1-9.

Bell, S.J. and Menguc, B. (2016). 'The Employee-organisation Relationship, Organisational Citizenship behaviors, and Superior service quality'. *Journal of Retailing*, vol. 78, no. 2, 08. 2002, p. 131-146.

Bharat, K. (2018). 'Why I Still Care About People Who Leave for Greener Pastures'. LinkedIn.comartner @ A.T. K.

Botha, R. J. (2013). *The Effective Management of a School towards Quality Outcomes*. AnSchaik Publishers: Pretoria.

Borges, R. (2013). *Are Public Officials really less Satisfied than Private Sector Workers? A Comparative study in Brazil*. Rev. Adm. Pública, 47(6). Brazil, Rio de Janeiro. Retrieved from <http://www.scielo.br>.

Brandt, W. A., Bieltz, C. J., Georgi, A. (2016). 'The Impact of Staff Turnover and Staff Density on Treatment Quality in a Psychiatric Clinic'. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, Article 457.

- Brooks, C. (2015). 'Employee Performance Reviews': *Tips for Bosses; Business News Daily*: [Online] Available: <http://www.businessnewsdaily.com>; Retrieved, January 1, 2015.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods, 4<sup>th</sup> edition*. Oxford University press: Oxford.
- Bush, T, Joubert, H. J. Kiggundu, E. and Van Rooyen, J. (2010). 'Managing Teaching and Learning in South African schools. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 30(2), 162-168.
- Campbell, M. and Hourigan, N. (2008). 'Institutional Cultures and Development Education, Policy and Practice': *A Development Education Review*, Vol. 7.
- Campos, A. (2016). 'A Research Note on the Factor Structure, Reliability, and Validity of the Spanish Version of Two Auditory Imagery Measures'. *SAGE Journals*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276236616670892>
- Cania, L. (2014). 'The Impact of Strategic Human Resource Management on Organisational Performance; *Economia*'. *Seria Management*, Vol.17; p. 373-383.
- Carsten, J., M. and Spector, P., E. (2018). 'Unemployment, Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover: A Meta-Analysis Test of the Muchinsky Model'; *Journal of Applied Psychology*; Vol. 76, pp. 199-212.
- Cervai, S., Kekäle, T. and Claxton, J. (2014). 'Employee Engagement. Emerald Group Publishing Limited'. *Journal of Workplace Learning*; Vol. 26, No. 3.
- Chacha, N. C. (2004). *Reforming Higher Education in Kenya: Challenges, Lessons and Opportunities*; State University of New York Workshop with the Parliamentary Committee on Education, Science and Technology; Naivasha: Kenya.
- Chepcheng, M., C., Too, E., K. and Achola, J. (2015). *Effects of Academic Staff Retention on Quality Education in Private Universities in Kenya*. University of Nairobi: Unpublished Thesis.
- Chew, J., C., L. (2014). *The Influence of Human Resource Management Practices on the Retention of Core Employees of Australian Organisations: An Empirical Study: A Published Masters' Thesis*, Submitted to Murdoch University for the award of the degree of doctor of Philosophy.
- Chodhury A. A. and Hasan, N, M. (2017). 'Factors Affecting Employee Turnover and Sound Retention Strategies in Business Organisation: A Conceptual View'. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 15 (1), 63-71.
- Chiboiwa, M. W., Samuel, M. O. and Chipunza, C. (2010). 'An examination of Employee Retention Strategy in a Private Organisation in Zimbabwe'. *African Journal of Business Management*. Vol. 4(10), pp. 2103-2109.
- Cloete, N., and Maassen, P. (2015). 'Roles of Universities and the African Context'. In N. Cloete, P. Maassen, and T. Bailey (Eds.), *Knowledge Production and Contradictory Functions in African Higher Education* (pp. 1-17). CHET: Cape Town.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education*. 6<sup>th</sup> edition. Routledge: Abingdon.

Cohen, J., Thapa, A., and Ice, M. (2013). *School Climate Reform: Definitions and models. Manuscript in preparations*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.

Cole, G., A. (2011). *Personnel and Human Resource Management*, (5<sup>th</sup> Ed.); R.R. Donnelley: Hong-Kong.

Cole, G. A. and Kelly, P. (2015). *Management Theory and Practice*. Donnelley: Hampshire.

Collis, J. and Hussey, R. (2014). *Business Research: A Practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students*. Palgrave Macmillan: Hampshire.

Cooper C.L., Flint-Taylor J. and Pearn M. (2014). *Building Resilience for Success*. Palgrave Macmillan: London.

Bottom of Form

Council on Higher Education (2014). Framework for Institutional Quality Enhancement in the Second Period Quality Assurance. Council on Higher Education, Pretoria.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). *A Concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.

Creswell, J. W. and Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research Design. Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches*. SAGE Publications, Inc. Los Angeles.

Das, L., Baruah, M., (2013). *.IOSR Journal of Business and Management* e-ISSN: 2278-487X, p-ISSN: 2319-7668. Volume 14, Issue 2, PP 08-16.

Ddungu, L. (2014). ‘University Lecturers’ Professional Empowerment and Turnover in Uganda’. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*; Vol. 6, (1), p. 35 – 54.

Deinert, A., Homan, A. C., Boer, D. and Voelpel, S. C. (2015). ‘Transformational Leadership sub-dimensions and their link to Leaders’ Personality and Performance’. *Leadership Quarterly*. 26, 1095–1120. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.08.001

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*. SAGE Publications: London.

De Silva, M. H. and Chitraranjan, C. (2018). ‘Factors Affecting on Gaining a Sustainable Competitive Advantage for Sri Lankan Higher Educational Institutions Limited’. *International Business*.106-118. <http://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v11n4p106>.

Dessler, G. (2013). *Human Resource Management*, 13<sup>th</sup> Edition. Pearson Education Limited: London.

Dessler, G. (2017). *Human Resource Management*, 15<sup>th</sup> Edition. Pearson Education Limited: Harlow.

Devos, G, and Tuytens, M. (2014). 'The Problematic Implementation of Teacher Evaluation Policy: School failure or governmental Pitfall?' *Educational Management Administration and Leadership* 42(4): 155–174.

Dockel, A. (2013). *The Effect of Retention Factors on Organisational Commitment: An Investigation of High Technology Employees*; University of Pretoria: Unpublished Dissertation for Master of Human Resource Management.

Drucker, P. F. (2012). *Managing in Turbulent Times* DOI <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080938158> eBook ISBN9780080938158

Dube, L. and Ngulube, P. (2013). *Pathways for Retaining Human Capital in Academic Departments of a South African university*. DOI: 10.4102/sajim.v15i2.560

Duffield, C., (2014). 'Nursing Unit Managers': *Staff Retention and the Work Environment*, Vol. 20, (1), p. 23-33.

DuĜă, N. *et al.* (2013). 'The Importance of the Continuous Training of Teachers – Models of Training and Professional Development'. *Knowledge Based Society Teaching Profession Challenges. Iaui: Institutul European*, 121-132.

Maier, C., Laumer, S., Eckhardt, A. and Weitzel, T. (2013). 'Analyzing the impact of HRIS implementations on HR personnel's job satisfaction and turnover intention'. The Volume, September 2013, Pages 193-207.

El-Khawas, A.N. Messarra, L.C. and El-Khalil, R. (2017). 'CSR, Organisational Identification, Normative Commitment and the moderating effect of the importance of CSR'. *The journal of Developing Areas*, 51 (3): 4111- 424.

Elaine, M. (2018). 'Job Tenure Shift for Men and Women': *Human Resource Magazine*: Vol. 42,(5), p.14-20.

Elegbe, J.A. (2010). *Talent Management in the Developing World; Adopting a Global Perspective*. Owen Publishing Ltd: England.

Eseme, D., C. (2010). 'Organisational Retention Strategies and Employee Performance of Zenith Bank in Nigeria'; *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*. Vol. 1.

Evans, M. M., Dalkir, K., and Bidian, C. (2014). 'A Holistic View of the Knowledge Life Cycle: The Knowledge Management Cycle (KMC) model'. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management (EJKM)*, 12(2), 85-97.

Fadare J. O. and Porter, C. (2010). 'Informed Consent in Human Subject Research: a Comparison of Current International and Nigerian guidelines'. *J Empir Res Hum Res Ethics*. 5 (1): 67-73.

Feilzer, M. Y. (2010). 'Doing Mixed Research Pragmatically: Implications for the rediscovery of Pragmatism as a research Paradigm'. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 4 (1), pp. 6-16.

Figuroa, O. (2015). *The Influences Impacting Staff Turnover in Higher Education*; Boston: North-Eastern University: Unpublished Thesis.

- Foster, K. and Bauer, L. B. (2018). *Out of The Shadows: Experiences Of Contract Academic Staff. Opportunity, Security, Respect*. Canadian Association of University Teachers.
- Fracaro, K.E. (2006). *The Real Meaning of Empowerment*; (Online): Retrieved on December 3, 2013.
- Fu, H., Kleinberg, R., Lavi, R., and Smorodinsky, R. (2015). *Job Security, Stability and Production Efficiency*. <http://ie.technion.ac.il/~ronlavi/papers/job-security.pdf>.
- Furnham, A. (2013, October 24). ‘Absence Analytics: How to Measure Absenteeism at Work’. *Business and Economic Research* ISSN 2162-4860 2018, Vol. 8, No. 1 132.
- Geasi M. and Nijkamp, P.(2017). ‘A Brief Overview of International Migration Motives and Impacts, with Specific Reference to FDI’, *Economies*. 5(3), 31.
- Geiger, T. and Pivovarova, M. (2018). ‘The Effects of Working Conditions on Teacher Retention’. *Teachers and Teaching*, 24 (6), 604 -625.
- Gelina L, Wertheimer A, Miller F. G. (2016). ‘When and why is Research without Consent permissible?’ *Hastings Cent Rep* 2016; 46: 35–43.
- George, C. (2015). ‘Retaining Professional Workers: What Makes Them Stay?’ *Employee Relations*. No. 37; p.102-121.
- Gomez, M. (2014). *How Career Development Programs Support Employee Retention*. *ATD Publications* [Online] Available: <https://www.td.org/Publications/Blogs/Career-Development-Blog/2014/10/How-CareerDevelopment-Programs-Support-Employee-Retention>.
- Government of Kenya (2006). *Transformation of Higher Education and Training in Kenya; Report of the Public Universities Inspection Board*. Government Printers: Nairobi.
- Greve, J. and Sun, S. (2018). *Impact of Teacher Turnover on Student Learning: Teacher Effectiveness*. The Graide Network.
- Griffin, R., and Moorhead, G. (2011). *Organisational Behaviour: Managing People and Organisations*; (9<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Cengage Learning: Canada, South Western.
- Grisson, J. A., Viano, S. L. and Seline, J. L. (2016). Understanding Employee Turnover in the Public Sector. Insights from Research on Teacher Mobility. *Public Administration Review*, 76, 241-251.
- Gupta, M. (2014). ‘Employees’ Satisfaction towards Monetary Compensation Practices’. *Global of Finance and Management*, 6, 757-76.
- Kivunja, C. and Kuyini, A.B. (2017). ‘Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts’. *International Journal of Higher Education*.6 (5).

- Habhab, H. and Smith, M. (2014). *Retaining Academics in Private Universities in Saudi Arabia – The Effect of Gender and Nationality*. UBT Jeddah and Grenoble Ecole de Management [Online] Available: <http://www.ubt.edu.sa>.
- Hall, A. (2014). *People do not Leave Bad Companies, they Leave Bad Managers*. Huffpost Business: Washington.
- Hamrita, T. K. (2011). 'Building a Holistic International Educational Partnership: Collaboration between the University of Georgia and the Tunisian Higher Education System'. *Journal of Community Engagement and Scholarship* 4(1): 5-14.
- Han, S., Seo, G., Li, J., and Yoon, S. W. (2016). 'The mediating Effect of Organizational Commitment and Employee Empowerment: how Transformational Leadership impacts Employee knowledge sharing intention'. *Hum. Res. Dev. Int.* 19, 98–115.
- Hannagan, T. (2008). *Management Concepts and Practices*. Prentice Hall: Essex.
- Haque, A. U., and Aston, J. (2016). 'A Relationship between Occupational Stress and Organisational Commitment of I.T Sector's Employees in Contrasting Economies'. *Polish Journal of Management Studies*, 14(1), 95-105.
- Hawken L. S. (2014). *Positive Behavior Supports. Encyclopaedia of Special Education*. John Wiley and Sons, Inc.: Hoboken, NJ.
- Harting, D. (2008). *Employees -Your Most Valuable Asset*; <http://ezinearticles.com/expert>. Dennis Harting: Accessed on 25 July, 2011.
- Helms, R. M. (2015). *International Higher Education Partnerships: A Global Review of Standards practices*: CIGE Insights: Washington.
- Herminia, I. (2016). 'Why Men Still Get More Promotions Than Women'. Harvard Business Review. *Harvard Business Review*, 31 July 2014. Web. 9.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B. and Snyderman, B.B. (2011). 'The Motivation to Work'. Transaction Publishers, Piscataway, 157. Scientific research an academic publisher.
- Hollensbe, E., Wookey, C., Hickey, L., George, G. and Nichols, V. (2014). 'Organisations with Purpose'. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57 (2014), pp. 1227-1234.
- Hong, E. N. C., Hao, L. Z., Kumar, R., Ramedran, C., and Kadiresan, V. (2012). 'Effectiveness of Human Resource Management Practices on Employee Retention in Institute of Higher Learning: A Regression Analysis'. *International Journal of Business Research and Management*, 3(2), 60-79.
- Horwitz, F. M. (2014). *Managing Resourceful People: Human Resource Policy and Practice*. Juta: Cape Town.
- Huang, P.L. and Huang, Z.L. (2006). 'A Review of Influence Factors of Employee Turnover Intention'. *Science and Technology Management Research*. 5, 153-155.

Wright, P.M., Coff, R., and Moliterno, T.P. (2014). 'Strategic Human Capital crossing the great divide'. *Journal of Management*, 40, 353– 370.

Imam, A., Raza, A. M., Shah., F. T. and Raza, H. (2013). 'Impact of Job Satisfaction on facet of Organisational Commitment (Affective, continuance and normative commitment): a study of banking sector employees of Pakistan'. *World Applied Science Journal*, 28 (2), 271 -277.

IMF. (2016). 'Case Studies on Managing Government Compensation and Employment'. *International Monetary Fund*. Washington, DC.

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2016). 'World Employment and Social Outlook', *International Labour Organization*, Geneva.

IOTA Consultancy Services. (2001). 'Final Report: Staff and Organisation Audit at the University of Zambia'. Lusaka: IOTA Consultancy Services.

Iqbal, A. (2010). 'Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences and Retention Strategies in the Saudi Organisations'. *The Business Review*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Ismail, S., Romle, A. R., and Azmar, N. A. (2015). 'The Impact of Organisational Culture on Job Satisfaction in Higher Education Institution'. *International Journal of Administration and Governance*, 1, 14-19.

Jackson, E. (2014). *The Top 8 reasons your best people are about to quit and how you can keep them*. Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/ericjackson/2014/05/11/the-top-reasons-your-best-people—are-about-to-quit—and-how-you-can-keep-them-/#12a43731719b>

Javed, M., Balouch, R. and Hassan, F. (2014). 'Determinants of Job Satisfaction and its Impact on Employee Performance and Turnover Intentions'. *International Journal of Learning and Development*.

Jepsen, D. M., Sun, J. J. M., Budhwar, P. S., Klehe, U. C., Krausert, A., Raghuram, S., Valcour, M. (2014). 'International Academic Careers: Personal Reflections'. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(10), 1309–1.

Jon, C. (2012). 'Prior Occupational Experience; Anticipatory Socialization and Employee Retention': *Journal of Management Inquiry*. Vol. 21, (4), p. 44-68.

Jones, J. M. (2018). 'Confidence in Higher Education Down Since 2015,' GALLUP BLOG, <https://news.gallup.com/opinion/gallup/242441/confidence-higher-education-down-2015.aspx>.

Jongbloed, B. (2012). 'Academic Retention in Europe'. *It Is Not All about the Money*: Vol. 18, (213), p.220-250.

John, K. and Zerihun, A. (2014). 'The Impact of Organisational Climate Factors on Turnover Intention of Academic Staff in Central and Western Ethiopian Public Universities'. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Management Studies*, 4 (12), 80-91.

- Johnson, B. and Christensen, L. (2012). 'Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Method Approaches'. Publications: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Johnson, R. B., and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). 'Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time has Come'; *Educational Research*: Vol. 33, (14), p. 26.
- Judeh, M., A., J. (2012). 'An Analysis of the Relationship between Trust and Employee Empowerment: A Field Study'; *Journal of International Business Management*. Vol, 6, (1), p. 264-269.
- Kaiser F, Maassen P, Meek L, van Vught F, de Weert E, Goedegebuure, L. (2014). *Higher Education Policy: An international comparative perspective*. Pergamont Press: Oxford.
- Kamalian, A. R., Yaghoubi, N. M., and Moloudi, J., (2010). 'Survey of Relationship between Organizational Justice and Empowerment (A Case Study)'. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 24, 165-171
- Kamwanga, J.(2013).*The University of Zambia. Institute of Economic and Social Research*. UNZA Printers: Lusaka.
- Kibui W. A., Gachunga, H. and Namusonge, G.S. (2014). 'Role of Talent Management on Employees Retention in Kenya: A Survey of State Corporations in Kenya'. *Empirical Review International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR)* ISSN (Online): 2319-7064 Volume 3 Issue 2.
- Katzenbach, J., Oelshlegel, C. and Thomas, J. (2016). *Strategy and Business: Organisations and People*. Issues 82.
- Kavenuke, P. (2013). 'What is that keep Good Lecturers in Profession Teaching?' *University of Dar- Es-Salaam*; Vol. 4, No. 1, p. 19.
- Kelly, M.J. (2006). *The Origins and Development of Education in Zambia, From Pre-Colonial Times to 1996*.Times Printers: Lusaka.
- Khale, J., Risch, K. Wanke A., Lang, D. J. (2018). 'Strategic Networking for Sustainability: Lessons Learned from Two Case Studies in Higher Education'. *Journal of Sustainability*.10 (12), 4646.
- Khan, A., and Ahmed, D. (2013). *Job Satisfaction among Librarians in the Universities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan: A survey*. Library Philosophy and Practice (ejournal). Paper 906. <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac/906>
- Khanam, A. (2015). 'Organisational Commitment of Employees in Relation to Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction'; *International Journal of Management and Social Science*; Vol 3 (1)
- Kipkebut, D. J. (2010). *Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction in Higher Educational Institutions: The Kenyan Case*; Middlesex University; Unpublished PhD Thesis.

Koetz, L. C. E., Rempel, C, Périco, E. (2013). 'Quality of Life of Faculties of Higher Education Community Institutions in the State of Rio Grande doSul, Brazil'. *Cien Saude Colet.* 2013; 18(4): 1019–1028.

Kouzes, J.M. and Posner, B.Z. (2019). *Leadership in Higher Education. Practices that makes a difference.* Berrett-Koehler Publisher: Texas.

Kromydas, T. (2017). 'Rethinking Higher Education and its Relationship with Social Inequalities: past knowledge, present state and future potential'. *Palgrave Communications* volume 3, 1.

Kusi, H., Mensah, D.K.D. and Gyaki, M. E. (2014). 'Workload related Stress among the Academia Staff of the University of Education, Winneba Campus, Ghana'. *Journal of Education and Practices*, 5 (13) 15-23.c

Lalitha, C. and Singh, S. (2014). 'Employees Retention: A Strategic Tool for Organisation Profitability'. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Development*, 3 (12).

Lewin, K. (2017). 'Positive perspectives on organising and organisational change': *a conversation with Gretchen Spreitzer, Journal of Change Management.* Vol. 17 (2).

Liu, Y., Wang, M., Chang, C. H., Shi, J., Zhou, L., and Shao, R. (2015). 'Work-family Conflict, Emotional Exhaustion, and Aggression toward others: The Moderating Roles of Workplace Interpersonal Conflict and Perceived Managerial Family Support'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(3): 793-808.

Lotkowski, V., A., Robbins, S., B. and Noeth, R., J. (2004). *The Role of Academic and Non-Academic Factors in Improving College Retention;* ACT Policy Report, Inc.

Louw, D., George, E. and Esterhuysen, K. (2011). 'Burnout amongst Urban Secondary School Teachers in Namibia'. AOSIS Open Journals: 1-7. *African Journal of Education* 34(3): 1-7.

Lungu, A. (2006). *In Global Campaign for Education Policy Briefing;* Available at <http://www.campaignforeducation.org>.

Makondo, L. (2014). 'Academics Attraction and Retention trends at a South African University'. *Journal of Sociology Anthropology*, 5(2): 169-177.

Mamoonk, Z. (2013). 'Hiring the Right People for your Organisation'. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research Administration and Management.* Volume 13 Issue 8.

Mandhanya, Y. (2015). 'A Study of Impact of Working Environment on Retention of Employees'. *Global Management Review*, 9(4), 116-128.

Mapolisa, T. (2014). 'Staff Retention challenges in Selected Zimbabwe's Public and Private Universities: Returnee Lecturers perspective'. *Journal of Education policy and entrepreneurial research.* (JEPER) 1(4), 92-102.

- Mapolisa, T. (2015). 'Staff Retention Strategies in Zimbabwe's Public and Private Universities: Returnee Lecturers' perspective'. *International Research Journal of Teacher Education*, 2(1): 016-029.
- Masaiti, G. and Naluyeke, P.N. (2011). 'Strategies to Retain and Motivate Employees in Africa; Examining the Case of the Ministry of Education in Zambia'; *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*: 5(8): 409-423.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). 'A Theory of Human Motivation'; *Originally Published in the Psychological Review*, Vol. 50, 370-396.
- Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and Personality*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Harper and Row: New York.
- Mathews, P. (2003). 'Academic Mentoring: Enhancing the use of Scarce Resources'. *Educational Management and Administration*, 31, 313-334.
- Mavhunditse, T. (2014). *Legal Perspectives in Education*. Zimbabwe Open University: Harare.
- McGinns, J. J. and Ng, E. S. (2016). 'Money Talks or Millennium Walk: The Effect of Compensation on Non Profit Millennial Workers Sector-Switching Intentions'. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 36 (3): 283-305.
- McMillan, J., H. and Schumacher, S. (2001). *Research in Education: A Conceptual Introduction, (5th Edition)*. Longman: New York.
- Mkulu, D. G. (2018). 'Academic Staff Retention in Private Universities in Southern Highland Zone Tanzania as a Strategy of Attaining Sustainable Development'. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*; Vol.8, No. 5, p. 1-11.
- Ministry of Education. (1977). *Education Reforms: Proposals and Recommendations*. Government Printers: Lusaka.
- Ministry of Education, (1992). *Focus on Learning*. Government Printers: Lusaka.
- Ministry of Education, (1996). *Educating Our Future. National Policy on Education*. Zambia Educational Publishing House: Lusaka.
- Ministry of Education, (1996). *Education Boards Service*. Institutional Suppliers: Lusaka.
- Ministry of Education, (2011). *Education Statistical Bulletin 2010*. Government Printers: Lusaka.
- Mokoditso, J. M. (2011). *Academic Staff Recruitment and Retention Strategies at the University of Limpopo*. Masters Dissertation. Limpopo: South Africa.
- Moon, K. and Blackman, D. (2014). *A Guide to Understanding Social Science Research for Natural Scientists*. Institute for Applied Ecology and ANZSOG Institute for Governance: Australia.

- Mubarak, R. Z., Wahab, Z. and Khan, N. R. (2012). 'Faculty Retention in Higher Education Institutions of Pakistan'. *International Journal of Theories and Research in Education*, 7(2), 65-78.
- Mubatsi-Asinja, H. (2012). *Makerere Losing Staff over Low Pay*: [Online]; retrieved on December 5, 2013, from <http://www.independent.co.ug/news/news-analysis>.
- Mugenda, O.M. (2008). *Research Methods*. Starbright Services Limited: Nairobi.
- Muhammad, I. (2011). *Human Resource Practices and Employee Retention*; Vol. 4, (1), p.8.
- Mullins, L. J. (2016). *Management and Organisational Behavior, eleventh edition*. Pearson: Harlow.
- Musah, A. A. and Nkuah, J. K. (2013). 'Reducing Turnover in Tertiary Institutions in Ghana: The Role of Motivation'; *Journal of Education and Practice*: Vol. 4(18), p.115-135.
- Mushemeza, D. E. (2016). 'Opportunities and Challenges of Academic Staff in Higher Education in Africa'. *International Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 5, No. 3.
- Muteswa, R. (2012). 'Impact of Worker Turnover in South Africa'. *University of Kwa-Zulu; Natal: SA*, Vol.37, No.1, p. 61-78.
- Mwanakatwe, J. M. (2013). *The Growth of Education in Zambia since Independence*. UNZA Press: Lusaka.
- Naile, I. and Selesho, J. M. (2014). 'The Role of Leadership in Employee Motivation'. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(3):175-182 · March 2014 WITH 1,397 Reads.
- Namasaka, D. Poipoi, M., Wasang'ula, L. and Mamuli, C. (2013). *Factors causing Staff Turnover at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology*. Nairobi: Kenya.
- Naqshbandi, N. N. Kaur, S. (2014). 'Do managerial ties support or stifle open innovation?' *Industrial Management and Data Systems*, 114 (4) P. 652-675.
- National Center for Educational Statistics (2001). *Institutional Policies and Practices: Results from the 1999 National Study of Post-Secondary Faculty*; Institution Survey: Washington D.C.
- Netswera, F., G. Rankhumise, E., M. and Mavundila, T., R. (2005). 'Employee Retention: Factors for South African Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study'. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*; Vol. 3, (2), p. 36-40.
- Ng'ethe, M., J., Iravo, M., E., and Namusonge, G., S. (2013). 'Determinants of Academic Staff Retention in Public Universities in Kenya: Empirical Review'; *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, Vol. 2, (13), p. 205-212.

- Nguyen, H. N., and Mohamed, S. (2011). 'Leadership behaviors, organizational culture and knowledge management practices: an empirical investigation'. *J. Manag. Dev.* 30, 206–221.
- Nolan, L. S. (2015). 'The Roar of Millennials: Retaining to talent in the Workplace'. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics*, 12 (5). P. 69.
- Nwokocha and Iheriohanma (2012). 'Emerging Trends in Employee retention Strategies in a Globalizing Economy'. *Nigeria. Asia Social Science*. 8 (8): 1-10.
- Nyirenda, E. J. and Shikwe, A. (2003). *Trade Union Country Report-Zambia*. Friedrich Ebert Stiftung: Lusaka.
- Odhiambo, G.O. (2013). 'Academic Brain Drain: Impact and Implications for Public Higher Education in Kenya'. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 8(4), pp.510-23.
- Ojasalo, J., Tahtinen, L. (2016). 'Integrating open innovation platforms in public sector decision-making: Empirical results from smart city research'. *Technology Innovation Management Review*, 6(12), 38-48.
- Okello, D. R. and Gilson, L. (2015). 'Exploring the influence of trust relationships on motivation in the health sector: a systematic review'. *Human Resources for Health* volume 13, Article number: 16.
- Oladapo, V. (2014). 'The Impact of Talent Management on Retention'. *Journal of Business Studies quarterly*, 5(3), 19-36.
- Ologbo, A. and Saudah, S. (2012). *Individual Factors and Work Outcomes of Employee Engagement*, Elsevier Ltd.
- Ongori, H. (2008). 'A Review of the Literature on Employee Turnover'. *African Journal of Business Management*. 1 (3): pp. 49-54.
- Osabiya, B. J. (2015). 'The Effect of Employees' Motivation on Organisational Performance'. *Journal of Public Administration and Policy Research*, 7(4), 62-75.
- Osibanjo, A.O., Gberevbie, D., Abiodun, J, O (2014). 'Career Development as a Determinant of Organisation Growth. Modelling the relationship between these constructs in the Nigerian Banking Industry'. *American International Journal of Social Science* 3 (7): 64-76.
- Owuor, B. (2010). *Academic Mobility and Brain-Drain: East African Perspective*: Paper Presented at the Director International Relations and Partners; Masen University: Nairobi.
- Ozturk, B., Hancer, M. and Im, Y. (2014) 'Job Characteristics, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment for Hotel Workers in Turkey', *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 23(3): pp. 294-313.
- Patten, M.L. and Newhart, M. (2017). *Understanding Research Methods: An Overview of the Essentials. 10<sup>th</sup> ed.* Routledge: London.

- Pienaar, C., and Bester, C. L. (2008). Retention of Academics in the Early Career Phase. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6 (2), 32 - 41.
- Podolsky, A., Kini, T., Bishop, J., and Darling-Hammond, L. (2016). *Solving the Teacher Shortage: How to Attract and Retain Excellent Educators*. Learning Policy Institute: Palo Alto, CA.
- Pont, B., Nusche, D. and Moorman. H. (2008). *Policy and Practice. Improving School Leadership*, Volume 1, OECD Publications: Paris.
- Powell, W. W. (2010). 'Understanding Attrition and Predicting Employment Durations of Former Staff in a Public Social Service Organisation'; *Journal of Social Work*, 10, 407-435.
- Price, J., and Muller, C., W. (2015). 'A Casual Model of Turnover of the Nurses'; *Academy of Management Journal*; Vol. 24, (4), p. 603-609.
- Punch, K. (2014). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. SAGE. London.
- Rafiei, N. and Davari, F. (2015). 'The Role of Human Resources Management on Enhancing the Teaching Skills of Faculty Members'. *Journal of the Academy of Medical Sciences of Bosnia and Herzegovina*. 27(1): 35–38.
- Rankin, N. (2006). 'Benchmarking Labour Turnover'; *IRS Employment Review*: No. 842, Vol. 3, p. 42-48.
- Ravasi, D. and Schultz, M. (2006). 'Culture Responsibility to Organisational Identity Threats: Exploring the Role of Organisation Culture'; *Academy of Management Journal*: 49(3): 433-458.
- Robinson, J. (2018). *Expatriation of Academics: A Study on Sri Lankan University Lecturers*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2322093718769216> Sage Journals.
- Robbins, P. and Judge, A. (2009). *Research Methods in Education*; Pearson Education, Inc: New Jersey.
- Robbins, S. P. and Coulter, M. (2018). *Management, 14<sup>th</sup> edition*. Pearson: London.
- Robbins, S and Judge T. A. (2018). *Organisational Behavior, 18th Edition*. Pearson: Ohio.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner- Researchers, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition*. Blackwell: Oxford.
- Robyn, A., Du Preez, R. (2013). 'Intention to Quit amongst Generation Y Academics in Higher Education'. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, Vol 39, No 1.
- Rono, E. J. and Kiptum, G. K. (2017). 'Factors Affecting Employee Retention at the University of Eldoret, Kenya'. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management (IOSR-JBM)*. e-ISSN: 2278-487X, p-ISSN: 2319-7668. Volume 19, Issue 3. Ver. I. PP 109-115.

- Saleem, S., Shaheen, W.A. and Saleem, R. (2012). 'The impact of job enrichment and job enlargement on employee satisfaction keeping employee performance as intervening variable': *A correlation study from Pakistan Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, Vol.1(9), pp.145-165.
- Samad, S. (2006). 'Predicting Turnover Intentions: The Case of Malaysian Government Doctors': *Journal of American Academy of Business*; Vol. 8, (2), p. 113-120.
- Samuel, M. O., and Chipunza, C. (2013). 'Attrition and retention of senior academics at institution of higher learning in South Africa: The strategies, complexities and realities'. *Journal of Social Science*, 35(2), 97- 109.
- Sarkar, A., Subramanian, K. and Tantri, P. (2019). 'Effects of CEO Turnover in Banks: Evidence Using Exogenous Turnovers in Indian Banks'. *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis*, Volume 54, Issue 1 pp. 183-214.
- Saunders, M. N. K. and Lewis, P. (2012) *Doing Research in Business and Management: An Essential Guide to Planning Your Project*. Pearson: Harlow.
- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organisational Culture and Leadership (4th Ed.)*. Jossey: San Francisco.
- Schmitt, A., Borzillo, S. and Probst, G. (2012). 'Don't let Knowledge Walk Away: Knowledge Retention during Employee Downsizing'. *Management Learning* 43(1):53-74.
- Scott, S. B. (2017). *Rewards and Incentives in the Workplace*. Newspaper, LLC: Hearst.
- Selesho, J. M. (2014). 'Academic Staff Retention as a Human Resource Factor: University Perspective'; *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, Vol. 13, (2), p. 120-135.
- Selesho, J. M. and Naile, I. (2014). 'Academic Staff Retention as a Human Resource Factor: University Perspective'. *Vaal University of Technology, South Africa. International Business and Economics Research Journal*, Volume 13, Number 2.
- Shager, H. Schindler, H. S. Magnuson, K. Duncan. G. (2013). 'Can research design explain variation in head start research results? A meta-analysis of cognitive and achievement outcomes' *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 35(1):7 6-95.
- Sharma, R. (2012). 'Teachers on the Move: International Migration of School Teachers from India Global nomads, cultural chameleons, strange ones or immigrants?' *An exploration of Third CultureArticle*[https://crossmark.crossref.org/dialog?doi=10.1177%2F1028315311433206&domain=journals.sagepub.com&uri\\_scheme=https%3A&cm\\_version=v2.0https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311433206.SAGE\\_JOURNALS](https://crossmark.crossref.org/dialog?doi=10.1177%2F1028315311433206&domain=journals.sagepub.com&uri_scheme=https%3A&cm_version=v2.0https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311433206.SAGE_JOURNALS).
- Simpson, S. H. (2015). 'Creating a Data Analysis Plan: What to Consider When Choosing Statistics for a Study': *Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*. 68(4): 311–317.

Sierra L. M. P., Vargas E. M. and Torres V. G. L. (2017). 'An Institutional Framework to Explain the University-Industry Technology Transfer in a Public University of Mexico'. *Journal of Technology Management and Innovation* vol.12 no.1 Santiago.

Simukanga, S. (2010). *Brain Drain: The University of Zambia Experience. Access to Success: Fostering Trust and Exchange between Europe and Africa*; A Paper Presented at a Conference in Accra: Ghana.

Simutanyi, N. (2006). *Neo-Liberalism and the Relevance of Marxism to Africa: The Case of Zambia*; Paper Presented at the 3rd International Conference on 'The Works of Karl Marx and the Challenges of the 21st Century'; Havana: Cuba, 3-6 May.

Singh, S. and Dixit, P., K. (2011). 'Employee Retention: The Art of Keeping the People Who Keep You in Business'; *International Journal of Business and Management Research*; Vol. 1, p. 441-448.

Sirola, N. and Pitesa, M.(2016). 'Economic Downturns Undermine Workplace Helping by Promoting a Zero-Sum Construal of Success'. *Academy of Management Journal* Vol. 60, No. 4.

Skaggs, B. C. and Youndt, M. (2014). 'Turnover and Knowledge loss: An Examination of the differential impact of production manager and worker turnover in service and manufacturing firms'. *Journal of Management Studies*, 51, 1025-1057.

Smits, I., Van Gyes, G., Seghir, M. and Hamon-Cholet, S. (2017). *Inventory of working conditions and occupational safety and health policy databases*, Working Paper No. 21.11, February DuĜă, N. et al. (2013)., InGRID, Leuven, Belgium.

Steven H. A., Robin K., Francis L. and Kin Q. (2014). *Empowerment: Factors affecting the Consequent Success or failure-Part 1*. Emerald Insight.

Stewart C, George A, Peat M. (2014). *Supporting beginning teachers to support student learning in large first year science classes*. Presented at: Sixth Pacific Rim - First Year in Higher Education Conference, Melbourne, Australia.2004. [http://fyhe.com.au/past\\_papers/papers04.htm](http://fyhe.com.au/past_papers/papers04.htm) Accessed July 15, 2014.

Steyn, M.G., Harris, T. and Hartell, C.G. (2014). 'Institutional factors that affect black South African students' perceptions of early childhood teachers' education'. *South African Journal of Education* 34(3): 1-7.

Strydom, L., Nortje, N., Beukes, R., Esterhuyse, K. and Van der Westhuizen, L. (2012). 'Job satisfaction amongst teachers at special needs schools'. *South African Journal of Education* (32): 255-266.

Sucher, S. J. and Gupta, S. (2018). 'Human Resource Management. *Layoffs That Don't Break Your Company*. *Harvard Business Review*. (122-129).

Surbhi, J. (2013). 'The Causes of Turnover Intention in the Employees of Educational Institutes': *An Observation*; *Department of Management Research*, Scholar at JJT University; Churela.

Sutherland, K. (2014). *Maintaining quality in a diversifying environment: the challenges of support and training for part-time/sessional teaching staff*. Presented at: Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA) Conference. Perth, Western Australia.

Top of Form

Bottom of Form

Top of Form

Bottom of Form

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (2010). *SAGE Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. SAGE Research Methods. DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781506335193>

Terera, S. R. and Ngirande, H. (2014). 'The Impact of Rewards on Job Satisfaction and Employee Retention'. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5 (1), p. 481.

Tetty, W.J. (2010). *Staff Retention in African Universities: Elements of Sustainable Strategy*. Calgary: Canada.

Theron M., Barkhuizen N. and Du Plessis, Y. (2014). 'Managing the Academic Talent void: Investigating Factors in Academic Turnover and Retention in South Africa' *A Journal of Industrial Psychology*, Vol 40, No 1.

Thirapatsakun, T. Kuntonbutr C. and Mechida P. (2013). 'The relationships among four factors and turnover intentions at different levels of perceived organisational support,' *Journal of US-China Public Administration*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 89–104, 2015.

Thomas, L., Tuytens, M., Devos, G., Kelchtermans, G., and Vanderlinde, R. (2018). 'Beginning Teachers' Professional Support as an important asset for Teacher Retention': *A mixed methods social network study*. <https://lib.ugent.be/catalog/pug01:8568979>

Tithe, M. (2010). 'All that Glitters is not Gold: Employee Retention in off-shored Indian Information Technology Enabled Services'; *Journal of Organisational Computing and Electronic Commerce*, Vol. 20, (7), p. 7-22.

Turyakira, F. (2013). *Mbarara University Lecturers' Exodus shocks MPs*: Retrieved on December 3, 2013 from <http://www.newvision.co.ug>.

Türel, Y. K., and Johnson, T. E. (2012). 'Teachers' Belief and Use of Interactive Whiteboards for Teaching and Learning. *Educational Technology and Society*', 15(1), 381–394.

UNZA (1990/ 2000). *The University of Zambia Annual Report*. UNZA Printers: Lusaka.

Uy, M. A., Chan, K. Y., Sam, Y. L., Ho, M. H. R., and Chernyshenko, O. S. (2015). 'Proactivity, adaptability and boundaryless career attitudes: The mediating role of entrepreneurial alertness'. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 86, 115-123.

- Van Tongeren, D. R., Green, J. D., Davis, D. E., Hook, J. N., and Hulsey, T. L. (2016). 'Prosociality enhances meaning in life'. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 11(3), 225-236.
- Van Lerberghe, W., Conceição, C., Van Damme, W. and Ferrinho, P. (2002). 'When Staff is Underpaid: Dealing With the Individual Coping Strategies of Health Personnel', *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*. 80:581-584.
- Wakabi, B. M. (2016). 'Leadership Style and Staff Retention in Organisation'; *International Journal of Science and Research: ISSN (online) 2319-7064*. Vol. 5.Issue 1.
- Wahlow, W. Abdul-Rahman, H. and Zakaria, N. (2015). 'The Impact of Organisational Culture on International Bidding Decisions. Malaysia context', *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 33, No. 4, pp. 917–931.
- Waleed, A. (2011). *The Relationship between Human Resource Practices and Employee Retention in Public Organisations; An Exploratory Study Conducted in the United Arab Emirates*: Edith Cowan University: Unpublished PhD Thesis.
- Watkins, K. (2013). "Education without Borders: A Report from Lebanon on Syria's Out-of-School Children." World at School, London. [www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/8575.pdf](http://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/8575.pdf). Accessed 26 October 2016. Watkins, K., J.W. van Fleet and L.
- World Bank (2011). *Migration and Remittances Fact Book*, World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Xu, D. (2018). 'Academic Performance in Community Colleges': *The Influences of Part-Time and Full-Time Instructors*. SAGE JOURNALS [https://crossmark.crossref.org/dialog?doi=10.3102%2F0002831218796131&domain=journals.sagepub.com&uri\\_scheme=https%3A&cm\\_version=v2.0.https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831218796131](https://crossmark.crossref.org/dialog?doi=10.3102%2F0002831218796131&domain=journals.sagepub.com&uri_scheme=https%3A&cm_version=v2.0.https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831218796131)
- Yang, C.J., Ma, Q.H. and Zeng, X.F. (2010) *Job Embeddedness: A New Perspective to Predict Voluntary Turnover*. *Nankai Business Review*, 2, 105-118.
- Yarnold, P. R. (2014). 'How to assess the intermethod (parallel-forms) reliability of ratings made on ordinal scales': *Evaluating and comparing the Emergency Severity Index (Version 3) and Canadian Triage Acuity Scale*. *Optimal Data Analysis*, 3, 50-54. URL
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods (5th Ed.)*. Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Yousaf, A. (2010). *One Step Ahead: Examining New Predictors of Affective and Organisational Occupational Commitment*; PhD Thesis: University of Twente.
- Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in Organisations; (7<sup>th</sup> Ed.)*. Prentice Hall: Upper Saddle River; NJ.
- Yukl, G. A. (2013). *Leadership in Organizations, (8th Ed)*, Pearson: Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Zhang, Y., J. (2016). 'A Review of Employee Turnover Influence Factor and Counter-Measure'; *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*; Vol. 4, p. 85-91.

Zhang, X. A., Li, N., Ulrich, J., and Van Dick, R. (2015). 'Getting Everyone on Board: the Effect of Differentiated Transformational Leadership by CEOs on Top Management Team Effectiveness and Leader-rated firm Performance'. *J. Manag.* 41, 1898–1933.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Letter from UNZA Ethics Committee



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA  
DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

Telephone: 260-211-280258/293937

Telefax: 260-211-280258/293937

E-mail: [drgs@unza.zm](mailto:drgs@unza.zm)

IRB 00006464

ISIRI: 000376

P O BOX 32379

LUSAKA, ZAMBIA

-----  
7<sup>th</sup> August 2014

Ms. Mulenga Rosemary Muma  
Kwame Nkrumah University  
P O Box 80404  
KABWE

Dear Ms. Muma

**APPLICATION FOR RENEWAL OF ETHICAL APPROVAL FOR STUDY**

Reference is made to your application for renewal of ethical approval for your study entitled "Retention of Learners at the University of Zambia, 199."

As your research project does not contain any ethical concerns, you are hereby given an exemption from full clearance to proceed with your research.

**ACTION:** APPROVED  
**DECISION DATE:** 5<sup>th</sup> August 2014  
**EXPIRATION DATE:** 4<sup>th</sup> August 2015

Please note that you must also obtain written authority from the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Health before conducting your research. The address for Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Health, Ndeke House, P O Box 30205, Lusaka: Tel+260-211-253040/5 Fax: +260-211-253344.

Finally, please also note that you are expected to submit to the Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies a Progress Report and a copy of the full report on completion of the project.

  
Dr. Augustus Kapungwe  
CHAIRPERSON, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc: Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies  
Assistant Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies  
Assistant Registrar (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

## Appendix II: Letter from Ministry of Health

All Correspondence should be addressed to the  
Permanent Secretary  
Telephone: +260 211 253040/5  
Fax: +260 211 253344



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA  
MINISTRY OF HEALTH

In reply please quote:

MH/101/17/6

No. ....

NDEKE HOUSE  
P. O. BOX 30205  
LUSAKA

28<sup>th</sup> November, 2014

Ms. Rosemary Mulenga  
Kwame Nkrumah University  
P.O. Box 80404  
KABWE.

Dear Ms. Mulenga,

**Re: Request for Authority to Conduct Research**

The Ministry of Health is in receipt of your request for authority to conduct a study titled "Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia, 1991 to 2012".

I wish to inform you that following submission of your request to my Ministry, our review of the same and in view of the ethical clearance, my Ministry has granted you authority to carry out the above mentioned exercise.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. D. Chikamata  
Permanent Secretary  
**MINISTRY OF HEALTH**

Appendix III: Consent Letter



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA  
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Telephone: 291381  
Telegram: UNZA, LUSAKA  
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370

PO Box 32379  
Lusaka, Zambia  
Fax: +260-1-292702

=====  
Date.....

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS/ PhD STUDENTS

The bearer of this letter Mr./Ms. MwL E-N-GA Rosemary M. Computer number 530506727 is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

He/She is taking a Masters/PhD programme in Education. The programme has a fieldwork component which he/she has to complete.

We shall greatly appreciate if the necessary assistance is rendered to him/her/.

Yours faithfully

Daniel Ndhlovu (Dr.)

ASSISTANT DEAN POSTGRADUATE STUDIES- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Cc: Dean-Education  
Director-DRGS

#### **Appendix IV: Administrators' Questionnaire**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information about the retention of lecturers in Zambia as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Zambia. The title of my thesis is *Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia, 1990 to 2016*. The information collected with this instrument will be used solely for academic purposes and the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondent will be assured.

#### **BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

Town:.....Institution:.....

Initials of respondent:.....(optional)

#### **SECTION A: NUMBER OF STAFF TURNOVER AND COURSES AFFECTED**

Please, provide the total number of lecturers in your department and their countries of origin, by completing the table below.

Year	Male	Female	Total	Countries of origin
2009				
2010				
2011				
2012				
2013				
2014				
2015				

Which of these subjects do most of the Zambian lecturers teach? Please indicate the percentage of Zambian lecturers teaching each subject area in the box below.

	Percentage (%) Zambian lecturers
Languages	
Mathematics	
Sciences (e.g. chemistry, physics, biology)	
Technological education such as ICT	
Arts	
Humanities and social sciences	
Business studies	
Other, please specify .....	

Which of these subjects do most of the migrant/expatriate teachers teach?

Please, indicate the percentage of migrant/expatriate teachers teaching each subject area in the box below.

	Percentage (%) of migrant teachers
Languages	
Mathematics	
Sciences (e.g. chemistry, physics, biology)	
Technological education such as ICT	
Arts	
Humanities and social sciences	

Business studies	
Other, please specify .....	

Has your institution lost lecturers to other countries?

Yes	
No	
Do not know	

If 'yes' to question 3 above, please provide the number of lecturers who have left your institution and the countries they have gone to (destination countries), by completing the table below.

Year	Male	Female	Total	Destination countries
1991- 1996				
1996- 2001				
2001- 2015				

If yes to question 3 above, which of the following subjects did most of the lecturers who left your institution teach?

Please, indicate percentages in the table below.

	Percentage (%) of teachers who left
Languages	
Mathematics	
Sciences (e.g. chemistry, physics, biology)	
Technological education such as ICT	
Arts	
Humanities and social sciences	
Business studies	
Other, Please specify .....	

## SECTION 2: CAUSES OF LECTURER MIGRATION

The following statements describe the reasons why lecturers usually leave their home countries for other countries. Please, indicate the extent to which each statement characterises your institution or country, by checking the appropriate box.

**SD**-Strongly Disagree; **D**-Disagree; **A**-Agree; **SA**-Strongly Agree

	SD	D	A	SA
Low salaries and other financial benefits				
Poor economic conditions in the country				
Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching and learning resources				
Shortage/lack of accommodation				
Lack of professional development opportunities				
Political instability and violence				
Natural disasters				
Other, Please, specify .....				

**SECTION 3: IMPACT AND MANAGEMENT OF TEACHER MIGRATION**

If your university has lost lecturers to other countries, please indicate the extent to which this has had impact on the quality of education, by checking the appropriate box.

**SD**-Strongly Disagree; **D**-Disagree; **A**-Agree; **SA**-Strongly Agree

	SD	D	A	SA
The university has a shortage of lecturers				
This has helped create employment for more lecturers				
There has not been any impact on the quality of education				
Returning lecturers have come back with new skills and expertise				
Lecturers in the diaspora have supported our university and lecturers				
Other Please specify .....				

If your university has received expatriates from other countries, please indicate to what extent this has had impact on the quality of education, by checking the appropriate box.

**SD**-strongly disagree; **D**-Disagree; **A**-Agree; **SA**-Strongly Agree

	SD	D	A	SA
Expatriate teachers have helped mitigate teacher shortages				
Expatriate teachers have brought new skills and expertise				
There has not been any impact on the education system				
Expatriate teachers have negatively impacted education				
Other Please, specify .....				

If expatriate teachers have made a positive impact on the quality of education in your institution, please provide more details.

.....  
 .....

Please, suggest three ways in which your University can improve the management of lecturer turn over.

i.....  
 .....

ii.....  
 .....

iii.....

.....

Do you have any other comments?.....

.....

.....

Thank you for taking your time to complete this questionnaire

## Appendix V: Lecturers' Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information about the retention of lecturers as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Zambia. The title of my doctoral thesis is *the Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia, 1990 to 2016*. The information collected with this instrument will be used solely for academic purposes and the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondent will be assured.

Town:..... Institution:.....

### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please, indicate your response by checking the appropriate category that applies to you.

What is your age group?

24 and below	
25-34	
35-44	
45-54	
55 and above	

Are you male or female? Male  Female

What is your **highest** professional qualification? Please tick your highest qualification

Bachelor in education or equivalent	
Master in education or equivalent	
PhD or equivalent	
Other, please specify .....	

For how many years have you been teaching at this institution?

5-10	
11-16	
21—26	
27 and above	

For how many years have you been teaching/lecturing in this country?

0-5	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
21-25	
26 and above	

Which of these courses do you teach in your present institution?

Education	
Sciences (Veterinary, Agriculture, Medicine etc.)	
Technological education such as ICT	
Arts	
Humanities and social sciences	
Business studies	
Other, please specify .....	

**SECTION B: REASONS FOR MIGRATING**

The following statements describe the reasons why lecturers usually leave their institutions to go and teach in other countries or industries. Please, indicate the extent to which each statement characterises the reason you decided to leave your institution.

**SD**-Strongly Disagree; **D**-Disagree; **A**-Agree; **SA**-Strongly Agree

	SD	D	A	SA
Low salaries and other financial benefits				
Poor economic conditions in the country				
Poor school infrastructure and shortage of teaching & learning				

resources				
Shortage/lack of housing				
Lack of professional development opportunities				
Political instability and violence				
Natural disasters				
Other, Please specify .....				

Which of the conditions in the table below influenced your decision to come back home and work in the public institutions. Please, indicate the extent to which each statement characterises the reason you decided to come to Zambia.

	SD	D	A	SA
Higher salaries and other financial benefits				
Better economic conditions in the country				
Better infrastructure and well-resourced universities				
Influence of relatives and friends				
Availability of professional development opportunities				
Political stability				
Other, please specify .....				

**SECTION C: BENEFITS AND DISADVANTAGES OF TURN OVER**

To what extent do the statements below describe the benefits you have enjoyed as a result of working in a public institution??

**SD**-strongly disagree; **D**-Disagree; **A**-Agree; **SA**-Strongly Agree

	SD	D	A	SA
Higher income				
Acquisition of new knowledge, skills and expertise				
Establishment of new networks and contacts				
New cultural experience				
Other, Please, specify .....				

Please list three major challenges you have experienced as a result of working in a public institution.

.....  
 .....

Have you made regular professional contact with Lecturers in other university outside Zambia? Yes  No

How would you best describe the recruitment process you went through?

Smooth with no hassles	
Difficult with challenges	

If difficult, please briefly describe the difficulties you went through.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Please, suggest three ways in which the retention of lecturers should be improved in this country.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Do you have any other comments?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for taking your time to complete this questionnaire.

## **Appendix VI: Questions for the UNZALARU President**

1. When did you become a president for UNZALARU?
2. What are your duties as president?
3. When did you join UNZA?
4. How were you picked?
5. How do you represent lecturers at the council?
6. What are the conditions for lecturers?
7. In the 1990's why did many lecturers leave UNZA?
8. How did you cope up with the pressure of work?
9. How are lecturers motivated now?
10. Do you think they are happy with the working conditions?

**Appendix VII: Questions for lecturers who have been at UNZA from the 1990s to date**

1. When did you come to UNZA?
2. How was the environment in the early 1990?
3. What made a number of lecturers to migrate to other institutions?
4. How were your conditions at that time?
5. How were you retained?
6. Are the retention practices similar to what you have at present?
7. Did you have expatriate lecturers who came to teach?
8. Currently how are lecturers retained?
9. How are your promotion practices?
10. Do you accept back those who migrated to other institutions to come back?
11. Do you think management should undergo a course in administration before they take up office?

**Appendix VIII: Questions for lecturers who once served UNZA in the 1990s and are in other institutions**

1. When did you come to UNZA?
2. For how long did you work at UNZA?
3. How were your conditions of service?
4. How were lecturers motivated?
5. Were lecturers easily given their pension and gratuity?
6. Those who were not given their dues, what were their reactions?
7. Are those who migrated to other institutions welcome back by the administration?
8. What suggestion would you give UNZA management on retention of lecturers in the institution?