

School of Management

**An Examination of Academic Staff Conditions of Employment and
Turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities**

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**This thesis is presented for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
of
Curtin University**

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

The work in this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature.

Date: April 2020

Abstract

The Government of Ghana established technical universities to both build Ghana's human capital capacity and address the country's technical and vocational skills shortage. Increasing access to tertiary education in developing economies across the sub-Saharan region highlights the growing demand for qualified and experienced academic staff in higher education institutions. Within education institutions, academic staff constitute the core employee category and represent a key resource for the realisation of organisational goals and objectives. This study employed the theory of organisational equilibrium to examine the key issues underlying the strategies regarding academic staff turnover and retention in Ghanaian technical universities. The study used in-depth, face-to-face interviews, field notes and document analyses as part of an exploratory qualitative research approach with a multiple case study design. Although the findings highlight converging domains, primarily three categories of factors tend to underpin academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities: personal factors, organisation-wide factors and external factors. Considering the challenges, and despite the substantial efforts made by university management and key stakeholder groups to retain staff, staff turnover at Ghanaian technical universities remains high. The study's findings have significant implications for the Ghanaian government's education policies, and for the human resource policies and processes of the technical universities, especially if Ghana's goal is to improve the development of its human capital and build its vocational education sector.

Keywords

Ghanaian technical universities, academic staff, turnover, retention, job satisfaction, Organisation equilibrium theory, case study.

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Statement of Editorial Assistance

The author obtained professional copyediting and proofreading services for this thesis according to the guidelines laid out in *Guidelines for editing research theses* (Institute of Professional Editors, 2019) and endorsed by the Australian Council of Graduate Research.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis, and everything I have achieved or will achieve to my parents, sisters and family.

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List of Abbreviations

ATU	Accra Technical University
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
ESPR	education sector performance report
FWC	family-to-work conflict
GDP	gross domestic product
GETFund	Ghana Education Trust Fund
GUSS	Ghana Universities Social Security
HoDs	Heads of Departments
HR	Human Resource(s)
HRM	Human Resource Management
IGF	Internally Generated Funds
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
KsTU	Kumasi Technical University
NAB	National Accreditation Board
NCTE	National Council for Tertiary Education
PNDC	Provincial National Defence Council
SMEs	Small- and Medium-Scale Enterprises
SSNIT	Social Security and National Insurance Trust
STU	Sunyani Technical University
TaTU	Tamale Technical University
UDS	University of Development Studies
WFC	work-to-family conflict

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The development of every nation depends on the quality of its human capital base, particularly in technical skills and capabilities (Nyarko, 2011). On this basis, the Government of Ghana established technical universities across the country to provide an avenue for the training of students in technical (craft) skills as part of the support for advancing lower- and middle-level practical training and development. Higher education institutions such as technical universities have a critical role to play in producing graduates to fulfil the country's technical and vocational skills needs.

While human capital is highly valued, much of the focus on labour resources is directed towards talent attraction and retention for competitiveness. Employers are expected to nurture and support their employees to develop and achieve their career aspirations and goals (Bowen & Siehl, 1997; Yam, Raybould, & Gordon, 2018). Organisations spend time and financial resources on strategies that attract and retain talent to ensure they remain competitive (Kossivi, Xu, & Kalgora, 2016). In the absence of successful staff-retention programs, organisations that recruit new staff experience employee loss (Naris & Ukpere, 2010; Pritchard, 2007)

According to the broader human resource management (HRM) literature, employee turnover can generate adverse effects on organisational growth and development (Ashraf, 2019; Bright, 2008; Kim & Lee, 2007). Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975, p.143) stated the implications for turnover as "attracting qualified people who do not stay in the job is dysfunctional from the organisation's point of view because this kind of turnover uses up money, time and resources." Further, they state "On the one hand, it has also been argued that attracting unqualified people is costly because they have to be processed and frequently rejected, resulting in their forming a negative impression of the organisation" (Liu, Deng, & Teng, 2017; Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). Academic staff turnover in higher education institutions can negatively affect

existing academic staff and the student learning experience. For example, the remaining academic staff may be overburdened with work responsibilities. Turnover may also lead to vacant positions being filled by inexperienced academics, which directly affects student learning experiences and the quality of teaching and learning in the long term (Powell, 2010; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe, & Evans, 2010). In addition, Ng'ethe (2014) contends that the loss of an academic staff member translates to a loss of human capital by the concerned university because there is a huge investment in training academic staff.

Within the HRM literature, conditions of employment are noted to influence employees' conception of a job as "good" or "bad" and, consequently, their intention to leave or stay in an organisation (Subramaniam, Choo & Johari, 2019). According to Busck, Knudsen and Lind (2010), employment conditions act as an antecedent to turnover intentions and actual turnover. These employment conditions relate to the quality of the work environment, which centres on the well-being of staff. Sell and Cleal (2011) argued that conditions of employment can embrace physical dimensions and psycho-social and organisational aspects of the work. Considerable evidence supports the notion that conditions of employment influence employees' level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Markey, Ravenswood & Webber, 2015; Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). For example, workplace conditions affect employees' well-being and their levels of productivity, and thus good working conditions can attract qualified personnel to an organisation. Óskarsdóttir (2015) found that a poor work environment is strongly related to lower job satisfaction and affects turnover intentions among employees. A relationship exists between satisfactory conditions of service and reduced turnover rates among employees because most employees want to remain with their employers if they are satisfied with the conditions of employment (Ashraf, 2019; Huslid, 1995; Steers, Mowday & Porter, 1979). Considerable scholarly literature (Ashraf, 2019; Silva, de Amorim Carvalho, & Dias, 2019; Vendramin & Parent-Thirion, 2019) supports the relationship between conditions of service and employees' retention and turnover in organisations.

Several researchers within the general HRM literature have documented factors that contribute to turnover and turnover intentions (Aruna & Anitha, 2015; Ellenbecker, 2004; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Kwarfo (2012) argues that the working conditions of the organisation, in addition to the internal and external work environment, contribute to employee turnover. Primarily, employee turnover can be influenced by increasing demand for reward packages, better working conditions, organisational structures and policies (Kim, & Min Park, 2014; Takase, 2010). According to Ekstrand (2015), turnover intentions can be minimised, in part, through enhancing job satisfaction, organisational commitment and chances of promotion. For example, employees who are more satisfied with their conditions of employment, such as career opportunities, are less likely to leave. Besides employees' personal characteristics, organisational factors can also lead to turnover intentions (Lambert et al., 2012). The emerging literature suggests that job dissatisfaction in terms of salary and benefits, inadequate opportunities for professional development, individual work style, emotional conditions, work content and other work-related factors contribute to staff turnover in many organisations (Lambert et al., 2012; Yang, Wan & Fu, 2012). It has also been argued that components of total rewards, namely work–life balance, salary package, career development, performance, and recognition opportunities are negatively related to employees' turnover intentions (Fontes et al., 2019; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). In this regard, a decrease in any of these conditions of service can lower staff motivation and increase their turnover (Cao, Chen, & Song, 2013). A study by Long and Perumal (2014b) suggests that attractive remuneration and compensation policies not only attract the best talents but also help sustain staff commitment and loyalty. Although there is a link between compensation systems and employees' attraction to an organisation, individual perceptions and differences can moderate such a relationship (de la Torre-Ruiz, Vidal-Salazar, & Córdón-Pozo, 2019; Li & Roloff, 2008). Samuel and Chipunza (2013) found that basic pay-related benefits, work autonomy, flexibility and workload did not affect the attrition intentions of employees, implying that the effect of conditions of employment on turnover among employees is ambiguous.

Increasing access to tertiary education in developing economies across the sub-Saharan region explicitly points to the growing demand for qualified and experienced

academic staff in higher education institutions. Within educational institutions, academic staff constitute the core employee category and represent a key resource for the realisation of organisational goals and objectives. Some research suggests that, compared with non-academic staff, academic staff are less likely to be satisfied with their conditions of employment in higher education institutions in developing countries (Cerci & Duumludag, 2019; Fontinha, Easton & Van Laar, 2019). de Lourdes Machado-Taylor et al. (2016) and Capelleras (2005) suggest that, with suitable institutional support, well-motivated academic staff can develop a reputation both for themselves and the institution through teaching and research work in a more demanding environment because they stretch their working to meet work demand.

Historically, higher education institutions in developing countries have experienced difficulties in attracting and retaining talented employees (Samuel, & Chipunza, 2013; Tettey, 2006). Particularly, the retention of core academic staff has become a challenging phenomenon that impedes teaching and learning activities as well as research outcomes (De Gieter & Hofmans, 2015; Ng'ethe, 2014; Selesho & Naile, 2014). Further, some literature points to an association between managerial misconduct and management styles and employee turnover in many academic institutions (Haque, Fernando & Caputi, 2019; Reio & Trudel, 2013). The rise in turnover rates in most organisations not only calls for managerial attention but also empirical research attention. Research supports the notion that the quality of managers' interaction with employees can minimise employee turnover (Ohana & Meyer, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Implicitly or explicitly, managers' attention is required to prevent experienced and talented employees from leaving, which may include improving staff participation and engagement (Cao et al., 2013). In addition, several studies (Cao et al., 2013; Naris & Ukpere, 2010; Yang et al., 2012) have found that emotional campaigns, ensuring distributional justice, compensation systems, promotion opportunities and career development can help employees to meet their self-actualisation needs and encourage them to stay with their employers. Hausknecht, Rodda and Howard (2009) suggest that staff retention and turnover intentions are shaped by various conditions and factors; the availability and quality of these factors account for a change in the intention of any employee to either stay with the employer

or leave. Yang et al. (2012) found that unjust managerial practices, the inability to relate to and work with other colleagues, recurrent operational changes and the absence of independence among workers collectively contributed to employee turnover intentions. A highly militarised management style, favouritism, ill-developed organisational capacity, prolonged unnecessary meetings, unconstructive feedback and criticism collectively contributed to employee turnover intentions (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009; Yang et al., 2012). According to Mitchell et al. (2001), although organisations are recognising the need to retain experienced and talented staff, designing and implementing effective staff-retention strategies remains the appropriate approach to address employee turnover. A well-established strand of the HRM literature (Yang et al., 2012; Zingheim & Schuster, 2003) supports the use of motivational factors, including socialisation activities (Cao et al., 2013), career growth prospects (Kossivi et al., 2016), organisational mentorship (Long & Perumal, 2014b) and rewards systems in order to reduce employee turnover.

In most organisational contexts, employee turnover is attributed to several internal and external organisational factors (Naris & Ukpere, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Evidence in prior literature suggests that unchallenging job content, high workloads, lack of opportunities for promotion and financial rewards, and lack of career development opportunities are the major factors that motivate employees to leave their jobs in search of new work with better prospects (Naris & Ukpere, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Naris and Ukpere (2010) argued that employees with higher qualifications expect higher remuneration and better conditions of service. In the absence of these conditions, these employees tend to look for alternative jobs with better conditions of service. The inability of organisations to provide more opportunities for staff with newly acquired knowledge and skills (higher qualifications) is a major factor that influences employees' turnover intentions. Naris and Ukpere (2010) attributed employee turnover to insufficient career opportunities and undue delay in processing promotions applications in higher education institutions.

Iddrisu, Alhassan and Kinder (2014) posit that polytechnic education in Ghana is constrained by poor conditions of service and that this situation contributes to turnover

among academic staff. Academic staff leave polytechnics (now known as technical universities) in pursuit of greener pastures in public or private higher education institutions. Although technical universities in Ghana have invested considerable resources in staff training and development, they find it problematic to retain staff. According to Effah (2003), despite the absence of well-structured data on academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities, these institutions have a staff vacancy level of about 60%. Moreover, Nsiah-Gyabaah (2005) found that Accra Technical University lost about 135 academic staff between 2000 and 2005, while Tamale Technical University lost 43 academic staff between 2008 and 2011. Iddrisu, Alhassan and Kinder (2014) reported that between 1996 and 2010 about 111 academic staff voluntarily resigned from the Kumasi Technical University. Comparatively, these technical universities are considered more endowed and better resourced than their counterparts across the country, yet they failed to retain experienced and qualified academic staff. This evidence implies that academic staff turnover might be high in less endowed technical universities, particularly in the northern part of the country because of uneven development across the north and south of the country (Iddrisu, Alhassan & Kinder, 2014; Nsiah-Gyabaah, 2005). According to Matimbwa and Ochumbo (2019) and Musah and Nkuah (2013), the trend of increasing turnover across the various technical universities can be attributed to several factors, including institutional, economic and social conditions. In a recent study, Ayentimi, Burgess and Kantha (2018) noted that technical universities in Ghana are victims of frequent employee poaching by traditional universities and private-sector organisations. The technical universities are experiencing intense competition for talented staff from private-sector organisations and public universities, which mostly have better remuneration packages and are able to retain talented staff (Badu et al., 2018). According to Iddrisu et al. (2014), the turnover rate of faculty staff in technical universities in Ghana averaged 20 staff per annum per institution in 2006. The National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) report further noted that retention of qualified academic staff has become a major constraint in Ghanaian technical universities (Atuahene & Owusu-Ansah, 2013).

This situation, combined with the general absence of empirical research on the topic, calls for further empirical investigation to explore the underlying factors contributing to academic staff turnover and make policy recommendations to reverse this evolving trend. This study, therefore, aimed to remedy this important knowledge gap by examining academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. The study further explored strategies that can be used to decrease the high turnover rate among academic staff. In the long term, implementing such strategies will improve staff retention in technical universities across the country.

1.2 The Motivation for the Study

This study situates within the theory of organisational equilibrium, which can be traced back to the late 1930s through the work of Barnard in 1938, and that of March and Simon in 1958. The theory of organisational equilibrium argues that employees' turnover intentions, satisfaction and retention can be influenced by the prevailing conditions of employment and other forms of organisational inducements (Finster, 2013; Morrell, 2016; Subramony et al., 2008). Organisational equilibrium theory opined that there should be a balance between the main employee turnover drivers and organisational inducements to reduce employee turnover intentions and ensure the survival of the organisation. March and Simon (1958, p. 99) in their model of determinants of labour turnover, suggest that "employee's satisfaction with their organisations is the main force that affects their perceptions of the desirability of movement."

The theory of organisational equilibrium posits that the propensity of employees to exit the organisation can be reduced by increasing inducements. Overall, employees' intention to leave is determined by two underlying factors, namely "perceived desirability of movement" and "perceived ease of movement" (job satisfaction) and is based on the assessment of perceived alternatives or opportunity (Morrell, 2016; Singh & Loncar, 2010). Primarily, most people will initially evaluate and compare their current jobs with accompanying prospects and organisational inducements before

leaving their current jobs and engaging in job-search activity (Hom et al., 2017; Morrell, 2016). In a case where the organisational inducements (e.g. training and development, supervisory support, good working conditions and reward systems) are greater than the individual's contributions (e.g. time, knowledge, efforts and skills) to the organisation, then the individual worker will stay with the current job (Lee et al., 2017; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 2013). Thus, organisations can manage turnover cases by ensuring a balance between the employees' contribution–organisational inducement equation (Bowen & Siehl, 1997; Morrell, 2016).

It has generally been argued that the interplay between incentives and contributions will determine the employees' level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction and their decision to either stay with the current job or leave (Singh & Loncar, 2010; Toker, 2011). Prior literature argues that intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors collectively contribute towards the overall satisfaction and retention of employees in an organisation (Long & Perumal, 2014a; Tarcan et al., 2017). Therefore, there exists a direct correlation between management inducements and staff turnover rates and retention. For example, training and development opportunities for staff influence staff satisfaction and turnover intentions (Boxall, Macky, & Rasmussen, 2003). Singh and Loncar (2010) found that, although pay satisfaction affects employees' turnover intent, employee job satisfaction is a more crucial factor that influences turnover intentions. Conversely, academic staff, particularly ageing staff, may find career change difficult and thus remain at their institutions (Pop-Vasileva, Baird & Blair, 2011). This ample evidence suggests that employee turnover and retention may or may not be determined by job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

This current research uses the theory of organisational equilibrium as the theoretical lens to examine academic staff conditions of employment and turnover within Ghanaian technical universities and how to develop retention strategies appropriate to address academic staff turnover. The theory of organisational equilibrium supports this research on the basis of its appropriateness. In addition, a considerable stream of HRM literature considers drivers that push employees out of organisations (job dissatisfaction) and factors that pull individuals into other organisations (alternative

opportunities) through the absence of organisational equilibrium (e.g., Allen, Hancock and Vardaman 2014; Griffeth, Steel, Allen, & Bryan, 2005; Mobley, 1977). This research contributes to further extending the theory of organisational equilibrium and has policy implications for advancing employee retention in Ghanaian higher education institutions.

1.2.1 The Research Question and Sub-questions

The primary objective of this research was to explore the underlying factors that contribute to academic staff turnover and how the findings can influence the development of retention strategies to address the turnover of academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities. Thus, the main research question to be addressed was: *What factors influence academic staff turnover and how can these factors influence the development of appropriate retention strategies for Ghanaian technical universities?*

The following secondary research questions were investigated:

- i. What factors contribute to academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities?
- ii. Are the current retention strategies appropriate in supporting academic staff retention in Ghanaian technical universities?
- iii. If yes, how effective are the current retention strategies in supporting academic staff retention in Ghanaian technical universities?
- iv. How can these findings influence the development of appropriate retention strategies for Ghanaian technical universities?

1.3 Research Context and Approach

Historically, technical education in Ghana began in the early 1960s with the establishment of three public technical institutions under the support of the Ghana Education Service. Technical institutes were later converted into polytechnics to advance middle-level practical technician training programs across the country

(Ansah, 2012; Kwami, 2001). The core mandate of the polytechnics was to help develop middle-level technical capacity to support the manufacturing, science, commerce and technology of the Ghanaian economy. According to Amankwah (2011), the polytechnics were also to create the platform to support applied research and provide skills development opportunities.

In 1993, changes were made to the tertiary education system and polytechnics were elevated to tertiary institutions with the aim of advancing technical and vocational education and training (Nyarko, 2011). The Provisional National Defence Council Law 321 was enacted in 1992 to provide the legal backing and framework for the establishment and upgrading of the various polytechnics into tertiary institutions in the country (Kwami, 2001). This law was later replaced by the Polytechnic Law (Act 745 of 2007). Currently, 8 of the 10 polytechnics in the country have been upgraded to technical university status to offer tertiary and non-tertiary programs that focus on awarding degrees and higher national diplomas. While the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations (NABPTEX) accredits diploma programs offered at the technical universities and polytechnics, the NCTE and the National Accreditation Board (NAB) accredits degree programs as the regulatory body for all tertiary institutions in Ghana.

Nyarko (2011) argues that throughout the 1990s poor funding was the major problem that confronted polytechnic education in Ghana. Over the years, the government has paid little attention to issues of employment conditions, turnover intentions and retention of academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities (Nyarko, 2011; Kwami, 2001). For example, the Education Sector Performance Report (ESPR) (2016) noted that expenditure on tertiary education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated at 7.9% in 2012 and subsequently witnessed a decline to about 6.5% in 2015. Similarly, the overall government expenditure on education in 2012 was estimated at 27.2%; by 2015, this figure had declined to 22.2% (ESPR, 2016). This reflects the limited funding that characterises the educational sector in Ghana. However, enrolment in technical institutions is increasing steadily in the midst of poor funding and conditions of service (Adu-Agyem & Osei-Poku, 2012; Oke & Dang,

2019). Several policy reports highlight the recurring issues of remuneration and poor conditions of service for teachers as the major challenges facing technical education in Ghana. Dehlor (2006) suggests that polytechnics should work towards improving their conditions of service to support academic staff retention. Generally, poor funding had impacted negatively on technical education in Ghana (Amedorme, Agbezudor, & Sakyiama, 2014; Oke & Dang, 2019). The effect of poor funding has been high academic staff turnover and a shortage of skills and qualified staff, which directly affects the quality of graduates produced.

Morrell (2016) and Tettey (2006) contend that, because the problem of recruitment and retention is market-driven, salary-based solutions that contribute to employees feeling satisfied with their conditions of employment are supported by the HRM literature. Gamage (2014) and Lewis (2015) argue that some degree of turnover is unavoidable. Nevertheless, high rates of employee turnover have both cost implications (Roche et al. 2015) and affect the institutional reputation and the quality of teaching. Implicitly or explicitly, the expertise base of technical universities may be eroded through the attrition of academic staff (Gamage, 2014; Lewis, 2015; Roche et al., 2015). There is a dearth of empirical research on turnover and retention of academic staff of technical universities, particularly in Ghana and the sub-Saharan African region. Within this context, this study sought to draw on the organisational equilibrium theory to explore the underlying factors of academic staff turnover and how these findings support the development of appropriate retention strategies in Ghanaian technical universities.

Existing literature provides an understanding of conditions of employment and other work-related environmental factors that influence employee turnover (Toker, 2011), job satisfaction (Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014), and staff retention (Manger & Eikeland, 1990). Most studies, conducted in different contexts, have produced contradictory findings on the impact of conditions of service on staff turnover intentions, retention, and job satisfaction. The findings may have been influenced by different factors (Lamond, 2009; Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014; Toker, 2011). The nature of the overall employment conditions in technical universities in

Ghana may differ markedly from work conditions in other institutions and hence produce different influences on the overall organisational culture and behaviour (Hytter, 2007; Radford, & Chapman, 2015; van Zyl, 2019). Further, an important limitation of prior studies (Hytter, 2007; Selesho & Naile, 2014; Veloso, da Silva, Dutra, Fischer, & Trevisan, 2014) is that they did not examine specific retention strategies designed and implemented to retain critical or core academic staff, particularly in the context of higher education institutions. Another limitation of prior literature is that turnover and retention studies (Batt & Hermans, 2012; Srirangam et al., 2017) have largely employed quantitative methodology and remain a blind spot in the literature, especially in developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Dehlor, 2006). An interpretivist qualitative research approach is needed to critically examine the underlying factors that may account for academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities and explore an appropriate policy mix to reduce academic staff turnover. This study was a multiple case study, which allowed for an in-depth and extensive investigation of the phenomenon under investigation.

1.4 The Significance of the Research

The contribution of this study to both theory and management practice is fivefold. First, this study extends the contextual understanding of academic staff turnover and retention strategies within the context of technical universities in a developing country context. Thus, the theory of organisational equilibrium will be refined and advanced, validated and developed further when applied in different research contexts. It was envisaged that applying the theory of organisational equilibrium to explore turnover and retention of academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities would lead to a cogent description and explanation of the factors that this theory aims to establish. The findings from this study also expand the understanding and contribution of organisational equilibrium theory and accordingly contribute to the improvement or re-affirmation of the theory in explaining academic staff turnover and retention.

Second, the findings of this research will affect organisational practice and create an awareness in management of the factors that contribute to academic staff turnover intentions and retention. Hence, the findings will help develop appropriate managerial practice to retain academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities. For example, the findings from this research provide direct feedback and contribute to policymaking towards building human capacity. Third, the study provides insights that add to the existing literature on staff turnover and retention in higher education, especially higher education institutions and in particular technical universities in Ghana. In reviewing theories, concepts on turnover, retention, job satisfaction, human resource (HR) practices and employee commitment, the study updates the literature on turnover and retention. The gaps identified provide an opportunity for further studies on academic staff turnover and retention practices. Fourth, the results of this study serve as an important baseline for further research, especially within the context of academic staff turnover and retention in the context of a developing country in sub-Saharan Africa. Fifth, since most studies have used a quantitative perspective, the HRM theory might be exhausted, this study uses a qualitative lens to examine turnover and retention, thereby adding a rich contextual underpinning of HRM theory.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

Despite this study's significant contribution to theory and management practice, there are limitations. First, the study is constrained by its context of Ghana, which might limit the replicability of the research in other developed contexts. Although a cross-sectional case study method was employed, the researcher may not be able to generalise the research findings given the unique Ghanaian context. Second, the researcher experienced some challenge in gaining access to the various technical universities. These challenges in institutional access affected the conduction of interviews with the academic staff; for example, some staff feared providing vital confidential information to the researcher and the public. These challenges extended fieldwork time. Third, some interviewees feared being victimised by management should they "leak" unauthorised information. Notwithstanding these challenges, the

researcher gained institutional support to conduct the interviews after several personal visits and phone calls. Despite the limitations inherent in this study, the findings generated provide a clear and reliable account of the participants' experiences and accounts pertaining to staff turnover and retention.

1.6 Thesis Outline

This thesis is structured as seven chapters. Chapter 1 presents the background and general framework for the study. It highlights the gaps in the existing literature and provides a justification for the research. The chapter also outlines the theoretical framework and objectives of the study, the research context, and the approach. The chapter further discusses the theoretical and practical contributions of the study to the body of knowledge. It ends with the limitations and an outline of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature. It examines the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study and further provides an empirical overview of the literature on the turnover–retention nexus. Chapter 3 provides information on the study context. Chapter 4 presents the research methodology. It provides an overview of the research process and discusses the role of the research philosophy and paradigm. The chapter outlines the contribution of the research philosophy to the choice of the research approach and the research strategy employed. Chapter 5 presents the findings. The findings are discussed and interpreted in relation to the prior literature in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 summarises the research and conclusions of the study. This chapter further presents the implications of the findings and offers several policy recommendations.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented background information and a general framework for the study. It discussed the contribution of a broad range of conditions related to employee satisfaction and commitment. The chapter briefly examined the theory of organisation equilibrium, which serves as the theoretical framework. This theory espouses that there should be a balance between drivers of employee turnover and organisational inducements in order to ensure employees are retained and contribute to organisational survival. The chapter also outlined the primary and the secondary research questions

formulated to guide the study. The research context and approach were also discussed in this chapter. The literature on the emergence and mandate of the technical universities in the Ghanaian education sector, and other related issues in technical education in Ghana, are briefly discussed. This brief review highlights the research gap and provides an understanding of conditions of employment and other work-related environmental factors that influence turnover and retention among academic staff. The interpretivist qualitative research approach using a case study design was employed to carry out the research. The chapter also noted the factors and issues that may limit the investigation and highlighted the practical and theoretical significance of the study. The next chapter outlines the theoretical framework for the study and reviews the extant literature.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Academic staff represent an integral part of the formation and development of tertiary students. However, technical universities in Ghana are challenged with retaining their academic staff and ensuring the sustainability of this section of the higher education sector. This study explores the key issues underlying academic staff turnover and retention strategies employed in Ghanaian technical universities. This chapter discusses the theoretical and conceptual issues that relate to academic staff conditions of employment and turnover. Drawing from the literature, the factors that contribute to staff turnover are categorised into five dimensions: organisation-wide factors, external factors, personal factors, work-related factors and personal determinants of turnover. The first section presents some conceptual issues. The second section discusses the theoretical framework and the third section reviews the empirical literature. The chapter ends with a summary.

2.2 The Concept of Employee Turnover

Jha (2009) holds the view that turnover intention precipitates actual turnover behaviour. Turnover intention, which is defined as the intention of quitting held by an individual, is a precursor to employee turnover. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), turnover intention refers to employees' intention to give up membership and leave the current workplace either willingly (voluntarily) or unwillingly (involuntarily). Turnover is the departure of employees from the formal organisational setting (March & Simon, 1958; Mowday, Peter & Steers, 2013). By extension, Mobley (1977; 1982) defined employee turnover as complete cessation and termination of the relationship between the employee and employer. It involves a process of employees leaving the organisation or a profession. Turnover occurs when employees initiate the process of terminating their contract and engagement with their employers, either voluntarily or

involuntarily (Godlewski & Kline, 2012; Jha, 2009). Other authors also conceptualise turnover as the process of employee movement across the membership boundary of an organisation (Price, 2001; Thwala et al., 2012). The labour turnover rate refers to the ratio between the number of employees leaving the organisation and the average number of employees in the organisation within a specified period (Ozolina-Ozoal, 2014).

Hom, Allen, and Griffeth (2019) categorise turnover into voluntary and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover, also known as voluntary attrition, is generated by individual intentions and is usually associated with employee conflicts with other organisational members, work-related dissatisfaction due to self-growth and development, or conditions of work and wages. Admittedly, some turnovers are generally considered desirable (e.g. a non-performer leaves), but voluntary turnover has adverse effects on the organisation (Godlewski & Kline, 2012; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Whereas voluntary turnover refers to the situation in which workers choose to leave or willingly terminate the employer–employee relationship due to factors such as salary, benefits and work environment, involuntary turnover decisions can be driven by personal reasons such as marriage, pregnancy and parenthood (Hom, et al., 2019; Russell, 2017). There is consideration before voluntary turnover and most individuals engage in a process of sense making before eventually quitting (Rothausen et al., 2015). In contrast, involuntary turnover may occur as a result of organisational downsizing or employee layoff, dismissal as a disciplinary measure, death, and retirement. (An, 2019; Holtom & Burch, 2016).

Turnover can be collective or individual and functional or dysfunctional, depending on its impact on the organisation (Hausknecht, 2017; Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Hom et al., 2019). According to Hom et al. (2017), individual turnover refers to a situation in which an individual worker terminates the employee-employer relationship, whereas collective turnover occurs when a group of workers depart from an organisation. This is a form of mass turnover that leads to an exodus of a group of workers from the company. Functional turnover occurs when the departure of employees has positive outcomes for the organisation and its membership. Hence,

it is a managerial misconception to always assume that turnover is unjustified for organisational development (Allen et al., 2010; Bartunek, Huang & Walsh, 2008).

Turnover can also be dysfunctional for organisational development (Hancock et al., 2013). Besides the human and social loss associated with turnover (Hausknecht, 2017), collective turnover disrupts collective operations and functions within the organisation (De Stefano, Bonet & Camuffo, 2019). When employees exit an organisation, the existing workers are burdened with newcomer socialisation and training (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). Turnover can lead to reduced effectiveness and productivity among the remaining staff. Jha (2009) argues that a high rate of turnover is potentially detrimental to the knowledge of staff in knowledge-based firms. For example, some workers possess tacit experience, knowledge and skills; whenever they leave, they leave with their knowledge, which can damage the progress of the institution (Beaumont & Hunter, 2002; Gubbins, 2018). Similarly, Hancock et al. (2013) also acknowledged that turnover can be dysfunctional because it increases the risk of knowledge sharing with competitors – employees who leave the organisation with core knowledge, processes and information may join competitor organisations. Generally, turnover is considered dysfunctional since it is associated with a decrease in organisational performance (Darrat, Atinc & Babin, 2016). Turnover can also be viewed as unavoidable when it cannot be prevented, no matter how proactive the management; however, avoidable turnover can be stopped through preventive measures (Morrell et al., 2004). According to Morrell et al. (2004), management should not spend time and resources on theorised preventive strategies such as increasing pay and other inducements in order to retain employees because the loss of personnel through unavoidable turnover can be described as “necessary casualties”

2.3 Organisational Equilibrium Theory

Barnard’s (1938) seminal work, further developed by others such as Morell (2016), stressed that the most important management activity is how to motivate employees to continually contribute to the processes of the organisation. Barnard-Simon’s (1958) two-factor theory of organisational equilibrium serves as the theoretical framework

guiding this research. Beyond this theoretical benefit, it expands our understanding and explanation of the inducement–contribution nexus among academic staff in technical universities in the Ghanaian context. It also sheds light on the fitness of employee contributions, organisational inducements and turnover behaviour among academic staff of Ghanaian technical universities. It presupposes that situating this study within the organisational equilibrium theory can further equip organisational leaders with the requisite knowledge and understanding of how to adapt and respond to employee turnover (Morrell, 2016; Morrell et al., 2001). This model provides the theoretical lens to explore and explain how the academic staff levels of motivation and satisfaction with their conditions of service predict their turnover intentions and retention.

March and Simon (1958) are considered both the inheritors and promoters of the social system school of thought in employee turnover research. They attempted to integrate the labour market with individual decision making and behaviours. The central idea espoused in the theory of organisational equilibrium is that every action and motive of an organisation should seek to reach and maintain equilibrium (Lee et al., 2017; March & Simon, 1958). The following are the underlying postulates of an organisation's equilibrium:

- An organisation is a cooperative system that consists of different individuals with interrelated social behaviour.
- Each individual receives inducement for contributing towards the survival and existence of the organisation.
- Individuals continually contribute to the existence of the organisation when the inducements received are greater than their contributions.
- The contributions from various individuals are the source from which the organisation generates inducements to pay others.
- Equilibrium or solvency occurs when the organisation can continue to provide inducements to members for their contributions (Froese, 2017; Gazendam & Simon, 1998; Gazendam, 1997; March & Simon, 1958).

Maintaining equilibrium is the responsibility of management. A state of equilibrium is achieved when managers ensure a balance, fit between competing individuals and general interests or between organisational needs and the satisfaction of personnel within the organisation (Froese, 2017; Gazendam & Simons, 1998; Gazendam, 1997). March and Simon (1958) argue that job (dis)satisfaction determines employees' decision to stay and participate in their organisation. Lee et al. (2017) suggest that employees who are more satisfied with their jobs and do not have alternative jobs would rather stay and participate in the organisational activities and processes. March and Simon (1958) derived their conclusion from the model of influence processes in organisations. They argued that an organisation is an interrelated system, which comprises social behaviours of various subgroups of actors and participants such as customers, employees, suppliers, investors, the general community, lenders and managers. These subgroups co-exist in the organisation and work collectively in diverse ways and make different contributions to ensure the survival of the organisation (Matimbwa & Ochumbo, 2019). These subgroups make one of two decisions. The first is the decision to participate in the processes within the organisation. Employees' attitudes towards the job is the key factor that influences their decision to participate (March & Simon, 1958). Individuals' decisions to participate are based on a reasoned estimation of the exchange between their contributions and the inducements received from the organisation (Ghodrati & Tabar, 2013; Wang et al., 2017). Second, the theory of organisational equilibrium is based on the decision made by employees to participate in organisational activities as a result of the inducements received from the organisation (Finster, 2013; Morrell, 2016). Inducements are responsible for employees' decisions to continue contributing to the development of the organisation. Other evidence points to remuneration as responsible (Frye et al., 2019; Pienaar & Bester, 2008).

According to March and Simon's (1958) seminal contribution, organisational members presumably seek to optimise their net equilibrium of satisfaction over dissatisfaction in order to stay with their current organisation (Coles & Mortensen, 2016; Li, 2016). If the expectations of a member result in net dissatisfaction over satisfaction, the member is more likely leave their current position (Hom et al., 2017;

Morrell, 2016; Singh & Loncar, 2010). The theory emphasises the need to balance employee contributions to the organisation and the inducements received by the employees (Holtom et al., 2008; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 2013). Job satisfaction is derived from the organisational inducements and is a function of several factors. There should be congruence between contributions and inducements for employees to remain with the organisation.

In the theory of organisational equilibrium, organisational inducements refer to valued outcomes (both tangible and intangible rewards) that employees receive as exchange for their contributions to the organisational success and overall development (Yoon et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014). This exchange must benefit both the organisation and individual to serve as the basis for a stable organisation. Employees must prioritise inducements received from the organisation over their contributions to the organisation. In contrast, the organisation must place a higher value on the individual contributions received than on the inducements provided in exchange for the individual contribution (Hom et al., 2017). Organisations provide various forms of inducements to workers in reciprocity for actual and expected contributions from these employees. Employees, therefore, receive different levels of organisational inducements due to differences in jobs and in structural and relational positions, as well as the degree of managerial support (March & Simon, 1958; Morrell, 2016). These differences in the amount of inducements received by individual employees may breed different perceptions and organisational commitment (Jia et al., 2014; Shin, Taylor & Seo, 2012). Inducements are either material or nonmaterial and are developmental in nature (Fletcher, Alfes & Robinson, 2016). Material inducements comprise financial compensations and quality working conditions; nonmaterial inducements include promotions, provision of training and development opportunities, recognition and prestige, social interaction, and praise for personal values (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015).

Similarly, an organisation's compensation for employees' contributions can be categorised as either monetary rewards or nonmonetary compensation (Chiu et al., 2002). Noneconomic inducements for individuals may transcend economic

considerations such as wages, salaries and monetary rewards (Allen, 2008; Ellenbecker, 2004). These noneconomic inducements may be associated with motivation and job satisfaction, leadership, job characteristics, work environment, solidarity among group members, and provision of training and development opportunities (Morrell, Loan-Clarke & Wilkinson, 2001). Other researchers have also suggested that the absence of psychological support in the job, perceptions and actualities of disproportionate remuneration for employees, and an unfriendly organisational climate can create job dissatisfaction (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006; Dehlor, 2006). Thus both economic and noneconomic incentives significantly contribute to the inducement–contribution balance within an organisation.

This theory further argues that the survival of the organisation depends on its ability to and success in arranging payments for its employees as participants in order to motivate their sustained participation and contribution (March & Simon, 1958; Morrell, 2016). When the organisational inducements are greater than the individual's contributions to the organisation, then the individual worker stays with the current job (Lee et al., 2017; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 2013). Organisations can manage instances of turnover by ensuring a balance between the employee's contribution–organisational inducement equations (Bowen & Siehl, 1997; Morrell, 2016). Organisations estimate the economic values and the desired level of employees' contributions, reinvest their contributions, and consequently reward them to motivate their continued contributions (Subramony et al., 2008). This view corresponds with the theories on social exchange and reciprocity, which suggest that both the organisation and employees are engaged in a battle of exchanging inducements and contributions. Within this setting, management seeks to lure employees by maintaining a balance between the contribution–inducement mechanisms. The value and care shown by a supervisor to an employee for their contributions and well-being will result in the employee's commitment to the success of the organisation (Kang & Kim, 2014). Hence, a large body of scholarly knowledge supports the notion that organisational inducement may be either material or psychological in nature (Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Holtom et al., 2008).

The theory further indicates that the marginal propensity of moving out of the organisation will be mediated by two main considerations: the perceived desirability of leaving the current job and the perceived ease of mobility (mediated by the supply of jobs). These two factors constitute the main precursors to an individual's motivation to quit an organisation (Morrell, 2016; Singh & Loncar, 2010). The perceived desirability of quitting the current job is influenced by job attitudes such as satisfaction, organisational commitment, and the possibility of transferability within other organisations (Kim & Park, 2014; Weibo, Kaur & Zhi, 2010). Job satisfaction is positively and inversely related to employee retention and inversely related to turnover (Katsikea, Theodosiou & Morgan, 2015). Satisfied employees are less likely to seek alternative employment opportunities (Ellenbecker, 2004; Medina, 2012). When a person is highly satisfied with their job, they are less likely to intend to leave the current job. According to Peterson, McGillis Hall, O'Brien-Pallas, and Cockerill (2011), job satisfaction decreases the propensity of an individual to leave a job and thus reduces employee turnover in an organisation. Although the quit process in the organisation is caused by dissatisfaction with the job (Holtom et al., 2008; WeiBo & Zhi, 2010), a dissatisfied employee may consider the option of intra-organisational transfer. Where there is no possibility of transfer, the individual may leave. An intra-organisational transfer is affected by several factors, including organisational and work-unit size. Large organisations have the comparative advantage of pooling and absorbing larger number of employees (Dustmann & Glitz, 2015; Scott & Davis, 2015).

The number and availability of external alternative jobs (the perceived ease of switching from one job to another) is the second factor that disturbs the contribution–inducement balance (Hom et al., 2017; Morrell, 2016). According to March and Simon (1958, p. 100), “when jobs are plentiful, voluntary movement is high; when jobs are scarce, voluntary movement is small”. Voluntary movement is influenced by labour-market characteristics and conditions within the job market (D'Arcy et al., 2012; Kim & Park, 2014). Perceived job alternatives and high labour demands contribute to employees' perception of opportunities for external employment. Employees usually carefully consider these factors before leaving the organisation (Hofaidhllaoui &

Chhinzer, 2014). An employee who believes that there are more alternative job offers is more likely to move. Thus, the demand and supply of jobs influences the ease of employee mobility from one organisation to another (Morrell, 2016).

If the current job is perceived as superior to the alternative job, the dissatisfied job searcher will not leave (Holtom et al., 2013). Dehlor (2006) stated that those organisations that offer superior remunerations and better working conditions can pull other employees from analogous establishments, or from other organisations if they desire the skills of the employees. Personal characteristics such as job ability, attitude, risk aversion, sex, age and social status influence the perceived ease of movement. Similarly, skills, organisational culture, tenure and group cohesion can affect the perceived availability of external jobs (Ellenbecker, 2004; Holtom et al., 2008). Research further indicates that, among employees with the same level of job dissatisfaction, those with more job alternatives are more likely to leave than other employees with fewer job alternatives (Gagné & Howard, 2016; Lang, Kern & Zapf, 2016; Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). The theory, therefore, states that an employee's likelihood of leaving is mediated by desire to leave and the availability of external jobs. Trevor (2001) and Holtom and Burch (2016) concur with March and Simon's (1958) classical theory, arguing that job availability, movement capital and job satisfaction work co-jointly to determine employee turnover.

Winterton (2004) hypothesised that in periods of low job satisfaction employees perceive that the labour market holds better opportunities. The author further argued that low job satisfaction creates low organisational commitment. This results in perceived ease of mobility to other jobs, and labour turnover tends to be high. Allen et al. (2014) concluded that much of the literature on employee turnover suggests that job dissatisfaction pushes employees out of their organisation. Other factors such as alternative opportunities pull individuals into other organisations (Griffeth et al., 2005). A dissatisfied employee may have the propensity to leave but may remain with his or her organisation and participate in the processes of the organisation if they perceive that alternative jobs are not available. Thus, dissatisfied employees usually search for alternative jobs before quitting (Wei Bo et al., 2010).

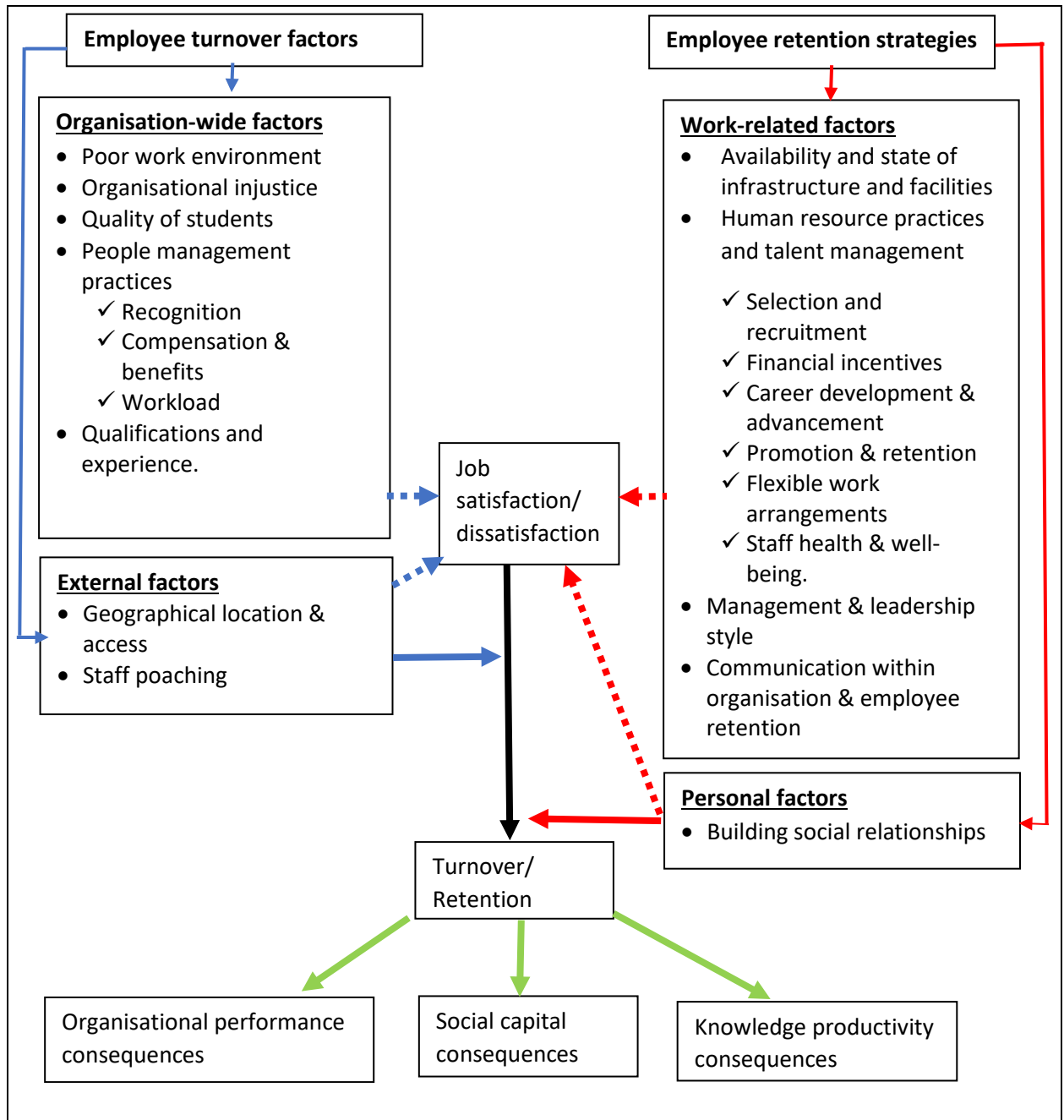
The literature espouses that the departure of employees follows the process of dissatisfaction → thought to quit, subjective utility analysis of benefits and costs of seeking alternative jobs and turning over → search intentions → evaluation of alternative job offers → comparison of job offers with the present job → intention to quit (after choosing a job offer) → actual quitting (Lee et al., 2017, p. 202; Mobley, 1977). Prior research lends support to the basic postulates of the theory of organisational equilibrium. For instance, Griffeth and Hom (1995) found that lack of alternative work opportunities for nurses prevented them from quitting. Despite the presence of possible inequities, nurses were invariably induced to stay. This means that quitting is the next alternative for dissatisfied employees and the perceived ease of mobility is the ultimate driver of turnover intentions among dissatisfied staff.

Though the theory has stood the test of time in the empirical literature, it assumes that inducements automatically incline employees to adopt positive work attitudes. This makes the motivation of employees one of a mathematical approach other than further capturing or moderating behavioural tendencies (such as employees' level of career dedication and professionalism) that may cause dissatisfaction despite inducements. Thus, creating an equilibrium as proposed by the theory assumes a stimulus-reaction approach in motivating employees, which is not realistic. The theory is inherently premised on psychological accounts to addressing labour turnover, with disregard to the dynamics in the trend of the labour market (such as the functionality of the current labour force, as well as the prediction and intricacies in search of prevailing employment opportunities). Inasmuch inter-organisational psychological phenomenon influence job satisfaction which translates to the perceived desirability of movement, labour market dynamics is likely to influence job satisfaction with its translational effect on perceived desirability of movement (Morrel, Loan-Clarke & Adrian, 2001). This implies that the theory should be extended to consider behavioural tendencies that militate inducement and labour market dynamics.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

From March and Simon's (1958) theory of organisational equilibrium and the existing literature on employees' job satisfaction–dissatisfaction, turnover and retention, the conceptual framework in Figure 2.1 was developed to depict the interplay among the factors of interest in the study.

Figure 2-1: Conceptual framework based on the theory of organisational equilibrium



Source: Adapted from Morrell et al. (2001) and Ellenbecker (2004)

Legend: Turnover factors: Blue Retention strategies: Red
 Turnover consequences: Green
 Direct relationship: Continuous line Indirect relationship: Broken line

Figure 2-1 is a modified conceptualised model by Morrell et al. (2001) to explain how employment conditions contribute to employee turnover and retention. The authors

identified two dimensions of employment conditions – employers’ inducements and employee contributions to the organisation – as the two mediating factors underpinning employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job. As previously argued by March and Simon (1958), disequilibrium between contributions made by employees and organisational inducements is based on conditions of employment. It has generally been argued that the interplay between incentives and contributions determines employees’ levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and their final decision to either stay with the current job or quit (Morrell et al., 2001; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Toker, 2011).

Ellenbecker (2004) suggests that intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors collectively contribute towards the overall satisfaction and retention of employees in an organisation. Therefore, there exists a direct correlation between management inducements and staff turnover rates and retention. For example, training and development opportunities for staff promote staff satisfaction and reduce turnover intentions (Boxall, Macky & Rasmussen, 2003; Long & Perumal, 2014). Singh and Loncar (2010) found that, although pay satisfaction affects employees’ turnover intent, employees’ job satisfaction is more crucial in influencing turnover intentions. Conversely, dissatisfied academics, particularly mature career academics, find career change difficult and tend to remain at their institutions. They feel reluctant to move to other institutions, perhaps due to their high level of attachment to their universities and other associated benefits (Pop-Vasileva, Baird & Blair, 2011). Other employees are more attached to their jobs because they see the job as a “calling”; these employees refuse to quit their jobs irrespective of their dissatisfaction with the organisation (Boughn & Lentini, 1999). The conceptual framework of this study as depicted in Figure 2.1 demonstrates that an employee’s turnover and retention decisions are largely determined by conditions of employment and satisfaction within their organisations. Academic staff satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the main force that affects employees’ perceptions of the desirability of movement.

The theory of organisational equilibrium posits that the propensity of employees to leave can be reduced by increased inducements.

Overall, employees' intention to leave is determined by two factors, "perceived desirability of movement" and "perceived ease of movement" (job satisfaction) and is based on employees' assessment of perceived alternatives or opportunities (Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Morrell et al., 2001; Singh & Loncar, 2010). Primarily, most people engage in job-search behaviour before leaving their current jobs, which involves initial evaluation and comparison of their current jobs with accompanying prospects and organisational inducements (Holtom et al., 2008; Morrell, 2016). Generally, authors have argued that the interplay between incentives and contributions determine employees' levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, as well as their final decision to either stay with the current job or leave (Toker, 2011; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Morrell et al., 2001). According to Subramony et al. (2008), financially successful organisations are more likely to provide competitive pay as organisational inducements, which will yield two organisation-level performance outcomes: customer satisfaction and labour productivity.

2.5 Job Satisfaction and Turnover and Retention

As noted, employee turnover is attributed to job dissatisfaction (Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012). Research has found that high workload, lack of opportunities for promotion, poor financial rewards and lack of career development opportunities are the major factors that influence employees to leave their jobs in search of new work schedules with better prospects (Naris & Ukpere, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). According to Naris and Ukpere (2010), employees with higher qualifications expect higher remuneration and better conditions of service. In the absence of these conditions, such employees tend to look for alternative jobs with better conditions. These authors also found that an organisation's inability to provide more opportunities for staff with newly acquired knowledge and skills (higher qualifications) was a major factor influencing employees' turnover intentions. Further, the literature highlights that managerial misconduct and styles are associated with employee turnover. For example, the quality of managers' interaction supports employee retention (Ohana & Meyer, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Yang et al. (2012) found job dissatisfaction in terms of salary and

benefits, inadequate opportunities for professional development, individual work style, emotional conditions and work content (including other work-related responsibilities) was responsible for staff turnover. Some scholars argue that although job turnover can remain high in the midst of job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction is often blamed as the root cause of employee turnover intentions (Holtom et al., 2017; Rothausen et al., 2015; Winterton, 2004).

Yang et al. (2012) found that employee frustration with the working environment caused turnover. They noted that employees became frustrated and exited due to poor financial structures, company systems, managerial leadership and teamwork atmosphere, lack of collaboration between managers and employees, and absence of camaraderie among colleagues. These findings suggest that workers who have a negative perception or feeling about their conditions of work may develop intentions to quit. In contrast, employees who have a positive feeling or perception about their working environment may have fewer or no turnover intentions. In addition, the relationship between working conditions and turnover intentions is mediated by other factors (Arnoux-Nicolas et al., 2016). Although employee turnover is caused by job dissatisfaction (Yücel, 2012), other factors moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Lam et al., 2016; Pietersen & Oni, 2014). Research shows that organisations can experience a surge in labour turnover due to abundant opportunities in the job market and poor organisational commitments (Winterton, 2004; Yalabik et al., 2017), unsatisfactory associations with seniors, spending limited hours on research, poor working conditions, ill-defined financial rewards, extreme workload, inadequate career opportunities, and limited work–life balance (De Vos, De Stobbeleir & Meganck, 2009; Metcalf et al., 2005). Gagné and Howard (2016) and Mitchell, Holtom, and Lee (2001) demonstrated that individuals with job satisfaction remain in their current jobs while employees with less or no job satisfaction depart. Their findings further indicated that, among employees with the same level of job dissatisfaction, those with more job alternatives are more likely to leave than other employees with fewer job alternatives.

Basak (2014) states that promoting job satisfaction serves as a good tool for managers in taking preventive actions against declining productivity and employee turnover. This, however, contradicts the results of an earlier study by Millán et al. (2013), which showed a limited relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. Mahdi et al. (2012) conducted a study to examine the influence of job satisfaction on turnover intentions among executives, non-executives and employees in Malaysian companies. The results showed that job satisfaction factors (intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction) inversely affect employee turnover intentions. Similarly, Bryant and Allen (2013) found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are the strongest predictors of employee turnover. Several studies show that organisational commitment is significantly connected with employee levels of engagement and career satisfaction (Kim & Min Park, 2014; Qazi, Khalid, & Shafique, 2015; Yücel, 2012). Although employees may leave in moments of lower job satisfaction, employees who are highly satisfied with or loyal to their organisations do not usually consider available alternative job opportunities (Hur, 2013).

2.6 Factors Contributing to Academic Staff Turnover

Generally, several factors contribute to employee turnover intentions and turnover. The factors contributing to staff turnover are categorised in this study into organisational factors and external factors. Organisation-wide factors are job context factors that are associated with the organisation and its work environment (Haque, Fernando & Caputi, 2019). This category of factors comprises the immediate work environment, leadership or management style, work allocation and arrangement, and the HRM practices deployed.

2.6.1 Organisation-wide factors

The term “work environment” is defined as workers’ perceptions of factors and characteristics of a work setting that affect professional practices (Lake, 2002; Nantsupawat et al., 2017). The work environment comprises the physical work setting and the myriad of psycho-social relationships that exist within the physical work

setting. Generally, academic facilities and resources constitute the materials that enhance the work of teachers and help students to learn effectively far beyond what is meant to be learned (Kurniawaty, Ramly & Ramlawati, 2019; Lawanson & Gede, 2011). In the education work context, terms such as “infrastructural”, “instructional”, and “school or academic facilities” are often used interchangeably. The state of these resources affects job-related stress among teachers (Issah, Abubakari & Wuptiga, 2016), which is often cited in the literature as a cause of job turnover (Lindfelt et al., 2018). Issah et al. (2016) and Kurniawaty et al. (2019) argue that in schools lack of sufficient classrooms, instructional learning materials, offices for academic staff, well-equipped laboratories and libraries, and sanitary facilities significantly influence teacher job stress. Simon and Johnson (2013, p. 1) argue “that teachers leave schools not because they are fleeing their students, but rather the poor working conditions that make it difficult for them to teach and their students to learn”.

Asegid, Belachew, and Yimam (2014) indicated that dissatisfaction with work environment, training and promotion influenced turnover intentions among nurses. Working conditions such as working hours, amount of wages, pay or salary conditions, employee autonomy, organisational culture and structure, and communication between employees and management collectively may impact job satisfaction among employees and subsequently affect their decision to quit or stay. Workers with difficult working conditions are dissatisfied and eventually quit their jobs (Lane et al., 2010), while a better working environment produces increased job satisfaction (Agbozo et al., 2017; Bakotic & Babic, 2013). Yang et al. (2012) argued that employee frustration with their working environment contributes to their turnover. Asegid et al. (2014) also acknowledged that a poor work environment (lack of facilities such as offices, chairs, internet and toilets) was the most frequently cited reason for turnover among academic staff, followed by poor management and leadership, and an inadequate salary and remuneration system.

Finster (2013) revealed that teachers left their school districts because they wanted considerable changes in their working environment. Other teachers also moved simply because they were dissatisfied with several organisational conditions and greatly

desired to change schools. Turnover among teachers was linked to greater economic prospects in other schools. Administrative challenges have been cited as the most prevalent cause of turnover among academics (Yimer et al., 2017). For example, poor management and leadership cause dissatisfaction among academics, which eventually leads to their departure. Arguably, therefore, the promotion of good management and leadership, such as being responsive to staff questions and decentralising power, will help to retain senior and skilful instructors in academic institutions.

Cummings et al.'s (2018) empirical study highlighted that the intent of nurses to stay was significantly higher with supportive leadership styles. However, a decentralised style of leadership lowered their stay intent. Similarly, abusive leadership and authoritarian leadership significantly increased nurses' turnover intentions. The results further showed that turnover intentions were lowered among nurses when their leaders engaged in relational transformational and charismatic leadership. Consideration and supportive leadership are highly associated with actual retention, which reflects better subordinate relations, positive leader–member exchange, and transformational leadership practices.

Management can also promote employee retention through family-friendly policies (Winterton, 2004). Kang and Kim (2014) suggested that supervisor support and employee-affective organisational commitment can be used as a specific strategy to potentially increase the capacity of the organisations to both attract and retain talented employees. The existing literature suggests that provision of social support is a useful mechanism for mitigating employees' intention to quit their current organisation (Jha, 2014; Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Moore, 2001). Supervisory staff who largely engage in more constructive than negative exchanges with employees can reduce employee turnover intentions and also increase their organisational commitment and career satisfaction (Kang & Kim, 2014).

Organisational injustice can cause turnover, with distributive and procedural injustice inversely related to employee turnover (Elanain, 2010; Loi et al., 2006). For instance, Fields, Pang, and Chiu (2000) found that distributive justice has a significant influence

on employee turnover intentions. Moreover, procedural justice is negatively related to actual turnover; employees who are given a sense of fairness in decision making are loyal to the organisation, which decreases staff turnover (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Kang & Sung, 2019; Levi, Shapiro, Fried, Markoczy, & Noghani, 2019). Hwang et al. (2014) suggest that occupational stress, especially unfair treatment, is the most significant cause of turnover intention. The literature supports the notion that inequitable distribution of rewards and compensations leads to employee turnover (Pohler & Schmidt, 2016). According to Agezegn et al. (2017), lack of good governance and management, non-transparent decisions, double appointments for various positions, and other nonfinancial factors contributed to turnover intentions among academic staff.

Over the years, higher educational institutions have long rivalled each other in attracting quality students (Naidu & Derani, 2016). Understandably attracting quality students is essential for promoting the reputation of colleges or universities as institutions of excellence. Quality is always a criterion that distinguishes an organisation from others, giving it a competitive advantage (Geraedts, Montenarie, & Van Rijk, 2001). Worldwide, higher education institutions are confronting the challenge of how to enable ever larger numbers of students with increasingly diverse characteristics to succeed (Owence, Pinagase & Mercy, 2014).

The quality of students can contribute to the turnover of academic staff. Academics prefer to teach students who challenge them to hone their areas of expertise and improve quality standards (Lamanauskas & Augienė, 2015). Quality varies between private and public universities (Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016; Cao & Li, 2014; Epple & Romano, 1998), especially in developing countries where access to most private institutions is driven largely by the ability to pay. Academic staff are likely to seek work in prestigious institutions that attract quality students and can maintain such standards. Institutions' images are affected by the quality of the graduates they contribute to the work force and how the graduates perform in the labour market (Jusoh et al., 2004). The respect and admiration associated with most public universities

regarding the quality of their students tends to draw academics from other private or low-performing institutions (Dužević, Delić & Knežević, 2017).

Top-ranked institutions undoubtedly attract good students and the quality of these students is ensured through admission criteria such as grading cut-off points (Gudo & Olel, 2011; Ajayi, 2014). This implies that, as more students apply for admission, their quality is sorted. Given the mass applications and the cut-offs for admissions, inherently quality is acquired and maintained (Akoojee & Nkomo, 2007). Students who failed to gain admission into prestigious public universities are presumably admitted to other institutions with lower cut-offs. Thus academic staff tend to strive for employment in public universities. Academics consider teaching good, demanding students easier than teaching average students. Hence the inherent nature of the admission system causes an imbalance in student quality across universities, which in turn reinforces the preference to work with high-quality students. Thus, the system promotes academic staff turnover because of the uneven quality (Chen et al., 2006).

Human capital is an organisation's most valuable asset and management needs to both attract and retain the best talents (Kossivi et al., 2016). Against this backdrop, organisations spend much effort, time and resources to devise mechanisms to retain staff (Mitchell et al., 2001). Without successful retention programs for staff, organisations that bring new staff "in through the front door" experience employees leaving "through the back door" of the organisation (Pritchard, 2007). The nature of HRM policies and practices deployed can influence employees' intentions to either remain with or leave the organisation. Therefore, HR managers must adopt effective HRM practices, including promoting a professional image and recognition; providing good compensation and benefits; discouraging discrimination, nepotism, and favouritism; and appropriate work allocation (Long & Perumal, 2014). The function of HRM is to develop and enact mechanisms that are aimed at attracting and retaining high-performing academic staff. Such mechanisms include nonmonetary factors such as realistic job previews, high-quality and consistent orientation, career development opportunities, and demanding work responsibilities. Researchers are now advocating

a system of differential rewards to retain high-performing academics (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013).

Long and Perumal (2014) examined how HRM practices affect employees' turnover intentions. The results revealed that performance management, benefits and compensation, employee relations and training and development directly and significantly influenced employees' turnover intentions. There is a direct correlation between training and development opportunities for staff and employees' turnover intentions (Long & Perumal, 2014). Other related studies also noted that higher education institutions experienced a surge in labour turnover due to unsatisfactory relationships with seniors; spending limited hours on research; poor working conditions; ill-defined financial rewards; extreme workload; poor professional image and recognition; discrimination and favouritism; insufficient compensation and benefits; inadequate career opportunities; and limited work-life balance opportunities (De Vos & Meganck, 2009; Metcalf et al., 2005).

As a self-concept, professional image refers to the individual's understanding of the social impact of the profession and the significance of the individual's work (Moore & Hofman, 1988). This image serves as an incentive for people to perform well and achieve organisational goals. The development of a professional image is a dynamic process that links the job role to clear self-perceptions, including professional interests, skills, aims and values. It gives meaning and orientation to one's profession (Hirschi, 2012). Poor professional image can influence turnover intention, while job satisfaction, work engagement and high professional image reduce turnover intention (Sabanciogullari & Dogan, 2014).

Çelik and Hisar (2012) demonstrated the positive effect of professional image on job satisfaction among nurses. Similarly, Bothma and Roodt (2012) found that professional image played a positive role in work engagement. Other studies have also found a positive relationship between employees' intention to remain and recognition for competent or satisfactory performance. For instance, Asegid, Belachew, and Yimam (2014) showed that nurses who were given recognition for their work

achievement had a higher rate of staying. Similarly, Yimer et al. (2017) identified that lack of recognition for achievements affected academic staff turnover. Valuing and recognising faculty members constitutes an important component of their job satisfaction. Morale is high among faculty members when they are valued, rewarded and recognised. August and Waltman (2004) and Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen, and Schutte (2018) also found recognition increases organisational commitment and reduces turnover intentions among employees.

The Australian Office of the Commissioner for Public Employment (2011) defines employee recognition as “a return on an employee’s effort, dedication at work and results”. The Human Resources Council of Canada defines employee recognition as “the acknowledgement of an individual or team’s behaviour, effort and accomplishments that support the organisation’s goals and values” (Mngomezulu, Challenor, Munapo, Mashau, & Chikandiwa, 2015). Employee recognition is important in organisations and is associated with several benefits (Tomic et al., 2018). When employees know that their work is appreciated and has value, their motivation is increased, as is their loyalty to the organisation (Dockel, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006; Luthans, 2000). Recognised employees have a sense of ownership and create a supportive and conducive work environment, which significantly improves the organisation’s staff retention (Kundu & Lata, 2017; Shahid, 2018). Bhatt (2015) suggested that managers should map and retain highly skilled employees by repeatedly reminding them of their value to the organisation. This practice avoids dissatisfaction and prevents employees from leaving the organisation (Raymond Andrew Noe, 2006; Raymond A Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2017). Organisations may need to reward and recognise employees in order to establish a balance between employees’ goals and organisational goals and keep the employees’ morale high (Selden & Sowa, 2015).

Pay, compensations and benefits are significant drivers of employee turnover in organisations. Larson and Hewitt (2012) indicated pay and benefits were among the main factors that influenced employees to stay with organisations. Employee loyalty to the organisation and intentions to stay can be encouraged through a good financial

reward system. (Hassan, 2013). Employee dissatisfaction with poor pay is consistently ranked first or second as the cause of employee turnover. Bryant and Allen (2013) found dissatisfaction with levels of pay the strongest predictor of job departures, although satisfaction with pay was a weak predictor of employee turnover. Similarly, others have found inadequate compensation and benefits packages positively associated with employees' intentions to quit in the hotel industry (Asamoah & Eugene, 2016; Reukauf, 2018). Osibanjo et al. (2014) argued that management and decision makers in an organisation should devise compensation packages for employees in different categories to increase their satisfaction and prevent high labour turnover. There is a positive relationship between compensation and employee retention. According to these researchers, all compensation packages should be made attractive to prevent employees from drifting away in search of better incentives such as bonuses, fringe benefits, wages or salary, career development and other opportunities. In contrast, Msengeti and Obwogi (2015) found that pay had a weak influence on employee retention in an organisation. Employees' satisfaction with their job, turnover intentions and retention can be influenced by the prevailing conditions of service and other forms of organisational inducement. Dissatisfied employees decide to either leave or stay with an organisation (Barnard, 1938; Pop-Vasileva, Baird & Blair, 2011; Robbins & Judge, 2013). Low wages that are not competitive with those of other firms also cause employee turnover (Ongori, 2007; Yimer et al., 2017).

According to Cox (1993), devaluing workers and discriminating among them because of gender and ethnicity affects their careers, job satisfaction and motivation, organisational involvement, and absenteeism, as well as retention. Tribalism and religious undercurrents are common in many African contexts (Oucho, 2002). This tendency has negative implications for employment relations (Ensher, Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001). People perceive it as their social obligation to provide jobs for relatives and friends. This breeds nepotism, discrimination and unnecessary tribalism (Nyambegera, 2002). Talent wastage is common in Africa because of ethnic discrimination and prejudices (Birdsall & Sabot, 1991). For example, some organisations refuse to hire an applicant because of unfavourable perceptions about people from that ethnic group (Zschirnt & Ruedin, 2016). Ethnic discrimination and

nepotism become an active force that denies members of a particular ethnic orientation equal access to societal rewards. Managers in charge of hiring employees may feel compelled to hire people from their ethnic group because of family pressure or coercion from friends (Saint, Hartnett, & Strassner, 2003). This is a major problem in many African countries, which leads to discrimination because people feel they have a social obligation to provide jobs for those who look up to them (Nyambegera, 2002).

Research shows that young academic staff exhibit different reasons to explain their turnover intention and actual turnover (Dorenkamp & Weiß, 2018; Joarder et al., 2015). For instance, Mayer (2006) conducted a study in Australia to examine the reasons academics resigned. It was discovered that young academic staff members left because of heavy workload, exclusion from decision making, desire for new challenges, inadequate autonomy, poor salary, and other personal issues. In addition, most left due to workload issues, while salary conditions triggered least resignation intent. This is consistent with the result of Yang et al.'s (2012) study that explored turnover and retention strategies in the hotel industry. The authors found that low salary was not a major reason for employee resignation. They also found that employees resigned due to undesirable working characteristics – working hours, limited development opportunities, etcetera. Yang et al. (2012) concluded that staff turnover was based on five broad themes: company factors, salary and benefits, individual emotional conditions, hospitality industry work style and responsibilities, and work content.

Dibble's (1999) study found that the major reasons for turnover were dead-end jobs and a dearth of career opportunities and opportunities for rising through the organisational hierarchical structure. Gialuisi and Coetzer (2013) explored voluntary turnover and retention among employees in small businesses and found the following reasons for actual and intended turnover of core employees: dysfunctional organisational conflict, limited career development prospects, job overload and work stress (unwanted work-related roles and responsibilities). Fraser and Ryan (2012) reported that turnover rate among directors in Australia was high, which signals that the system does not function well. High turnover rates among academics were

attributed to conflicting views among staff and senior managers, absence of career path following directorship, and lack of promotion. Although satisfaction with pay was a weak predictor of employee turnover (Bryant & Allen, 2013), studies by Óskarsdóttir (2015) revealed that the key reasons that ignited turnover intentions among preschool employees in Iceland were job stressors: role conflict, role ambiguity, overloaded work schedules, and deplorable salaries.

Prior literature suggests that high-level knowledge workers are scarce in many countries, which leads to competition among companies for talented workers (Ewing et al., 2002; Heng, & Quazi, 2003; Prusak, 2009). Grant (1991) argued that there is a high rate of turnover intention among highly skilled workers globally. Talent management in knowledge-based economies is crucial, and companies need to hire a high-value workforce to perform multifaceted roles that demand high levels of cognitive abilities and skills (Prusak, 2009). The retention and motivation of knowledge workers is key to talent management in organisations. The literature supports the notion that educational attainment influences job mobility. Studies show that higher qualifications influence job mobility by increasing the chances of attaining better job alternatives in the labour market (Ahmad & Rainyee, 2014). These authors found that a workforce that possessed higher educational qualifications and training had more resignation intentions than workforces with fewer qualifications and less training. Asamoah and Eugene (2016) conducted a cross-sectional study to examine the influence of employees' demographics on turnover intentions. They found that the presence of high-quality educational qualifications had a greater impact on resignation intentions among highly trained staff.

2.6.2 External Factors and Turnover

External factors relate to job availability, institutional location, and economic conditions (Wang et al., 2014). These factors include the location of the institution in relation to access to other opportunities, and labour poaching. Lee et al. (2017) suggest that managers can also control turnover by transferring reluctant stayers to better-fitting jobs or to different jobs, including changing the geographical location of the employee. Some employees also relocate from rural communities to urban centres for

other reasons. Matimbwa and Ochumbo (2019) argued that employees will avoid institutions located in areas with poor housing and transport services unless compensated with higher remuneration. This reduces the cost of related effects and considerably reduces turnover and increases morale and productivity. Job dissatisfaction precedes turnover intentions. A study by Dehlor (2006) showed that dissatisfaction with salaries is the main factor that undermines the level of commitment of academic staff to the institution, and consequently their turnover intentions. Contrary to this study, other studies noted that job dissatisfaction does not always generate turnover (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Holtom et al., 2013). These authors argued that dissatisfied workers remain with their current jobs because of several organisational benefits emanating from longevity, which they would lose through their exit. For instance, financial incentives such as investing in insurance or pension schemes are forfeited when a dissatisfied worker exit the organisation. Employees who stay likely assume a more central locus in an organisation and thus accumulate information, power and resources (Holtom et al., 2013).

According to Aguenza and Som (2012), employees can become dissatisfied with the performance of their organisation and begin to look for alternative job opportunities. Job dissatisfaction among employees is caused by the absence of opportunities for promotion, poor compensation policy, availability of better job offers, and poor working conditions (Pietersen & Oni, 2014). Mohrenweiser, Zwick, and Backes-Gellner (2019) and Okafor (2016) defined labour poaching as what takes place when a company hires an employee from a competing company. Employee poaching often occurs in industries in which there is a high demand for scarce talents, traits or skills (Amankwah-Amoah, Nyuur & Ifere, 2017). Hiring an employee from a rival firm can mean bringing in someone who already knows the industry and can bring valuable new knowledge (Mohrenweiser, Zwick & Backes-Gellner, 2019). Poaching of academic staff has emerged over the years in various countries (Okafor, 2016).

Academic staff are being poached by other industries and other renowned tertiary institutions within and outside the country. Academic staff, by virtue of their discipline, acquire spheres of knowledge applicable in many sectors. However,

institutions that poach academic staff should be aware that better opportunities might emerge elsewhere, cause the staff to relocate again. There is a growing industry need for human resources with knowledge in a variety of academic fields (Sheldon & Li, 2013). Academic staff can meet these criteria given their research background and field of expertise. Leading industries tend to use poaching more frequently to fill vacancies. Academic staff poaching is more frequent when their work performance is public and easily observed, such as through lectureships and publications. Academics who publish and engage with private-sector organisations are easily identified and are poached by industries with attractive packages (Sheldon & Li, 2013; Metcalf et al., 2005). The rise in labour poaching from universities is attributed to the lack of qualified and skilled human resources in specialised fields, which creates competition for a small pool of talents (Amankwah-Amoah, 2015). Although poaching may seem negative, it helps industries to acquire competitive intelligence (Combes & Duranton, 2006). Poached staff tend to contribute more new ideas to stimulate the thinking of others than do other applicants (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsedde, 2015).

2.7 Implications of Staff Turnover on Organisational Performance

Turnover is a double-edged sword with both functional and dysfunctional dimensions that depend on who is leaving, and on the organisational context and industry norms (Allen et al., 2010). According to Hur (2013), the traditional view that turnover negatively affects an organisation is premised on the human capital theory. However, other scholars contend that turnover does not always disrupt human capital. For instance, Meier and Hicklin (2008) hold the view that turnover in poorly performing organisations can increase organisational performance up to a certain point. But after the optimal point of turnover, a higher turnover rate is dysfunctional and can decrease organisational performance and competitiveness. Turnover can be more disruptive in an individualistic context because job processes are dependent on individual human and social capital uniqueness. The departure of such individuals is disruptive because they are difficult to replace (Israelsen & Yonker, 2017). However, in collectivist

environments where individuals operate in a complementary fashion within the group, it is easier to replace workers and integrate them into the work culture (Hancock et al., 2013).

Turnover can often be constructive within the organisation. According to Ingersoll (2001), underqualified, low-performing workers can be weeded out to pave the way for recruitment of new blood. Turnover can help cleanse an organisation of its low performers who do not fit well with the organisation's culture (Lee & Jimenez, 2011). This is consistent with Hesford et al.'s (2016) assertion that turnover among marginal performers can increase organisational performance. Yang et al. (2012) theorised that turnover can increase efficiency in hotel operations as well as encourage organisational activities. The authors further argued that turnover can stimulate the development of new management methods or new technologies to ensure employees' continued participation.

Conversely, other scholars believe that turnover impairs the performance of organisations (Shaw, 2011). Voluntary turnover has more devastating effects on organisational performance than involuntary turnover (Hur, 2013) because management anticipates the outcome of involuntary turnover and effectively plans to manage its impact on organisational performance. Involuntary turnover can yield positive benefits to organisations (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). When employees quit voluntarily, organisational management has not anticipated and planned for the disruptive consequences, and it significantly affects the implementation of business and organisational plans (Morrow & McElroy, 2007).

Turnover does inflict costs on the organisation but some studies (Hesford et al., 2016; Simmons, 2016) have found that turnover is beneficial to organisations by reducing costs and benefits and employee pay. These researchers further contend that organisations can use the period of turnover to reduce labour costs by delaying the replacement of a worker who has resigned or been fired. Hur (2013) asserts that trying to keep turnover rates low may increase management costs associated with retention. Thus, turnover can be used as a cost control mechanism (Hesford et al., 2016).

However, turnover is costly, detrimental and disruptive to organisational development in terms of expenses and revenue (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Estimating the cost associated with high turnover rates is complex and varies according to the job complexity, employee relations, location of the institution, experience and culture (Wambugu, 2019). The cost components of turnover include advertisement, hiring, orientation, training, learning and development, and time with unfilled vacancies (Daniels et al., 2013; Kirk, 2017). The cost of staff turnover often goes beyond 100% of the annual salary associated with a vacant position (Bryant & Allen, 2013; Kirk, 2017).

A 2011 study found that 79 clinical associates left an organisation with an estimated cost per person of \$10,500, a total cost of over \$800,000 per year to the organisation (Daniels et al., 2013). Among the direct costs associated with employee turnover, the affected organisations may need to make payments for unused vacation time, and to spend time, make administrative arrangements and incur additional costs to organise and conduct exit interviews (Hwang et al., 2014; Ongori, 2007). In addition, the organisation may also face the cost of hiring and using temporary workers or paying for overtime of co-workers who undertake the additional organisational duties and responsibilities (Holtom et al., 2005; Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). Companies must also meet the direct costs associated with employee replacement, such as advertisements, processing of new applicants, interviews, and selection of applicants (Brum, 2007; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). Finally, turnover creates additional training costs, which contribute to the overall burden of the organisation (Bartunek et al., 2008; Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). Bartunek et al. (2008) found that mass turnover may also be contagious to the organisational membership. An exodus of co-workers may imply the existence of greener pastures elsewhere, which can motivate other workers within the organisation to also move out of the organisation. Individual turnover may culminate in collective turnover consequential to the growth and development of the organisation, ultimately resulting in corresponding deterioration in organisational productivity (Khan & Aleem, 2014).

2.8 Impact of Turnover on Knowledge Productivity

Turnover in knowledge and skill-based firms can result in specific skill set needs, more advanced training and development needs for others, and increased salaries and wages for more educated, knowledgeable workers who remain with the organisation (Hancock et al., 2013). Both voluntary and involuntary turnover is more advantageous for the highest-performing employees. Departure of old, experienced employees may lead to increased motivation of new workers to work harder according to organisational standards, which can spike organisational growth and development (Hesford et al., 2016). Conversely, turnover becomes dysfunctional if too many employees are willing to quit (Jha, 2009). According to Ongori (2007), in the absence of effective management, turnover likely adversely affects organisational development and performance and the organisation's long-term liquidity. Further, turnover results in loss of morale among management and the existing labour force, as well as loss of organisational productivity (Hom et al., 2017; Li, Kim, & Zhao, 2017; Verma & Kesari, 2019). Institutions that succeed in retaining their core talented employees not only succeed in saving money but also succeed in protecting their intellectual human capital (Holtom et al., 2005). However, Holtom and colleagues maintained that not all turnover is bad for the organisation: turnover among high-performing employees can be devastating to organisational productivity while turnover of low performers is not a blow to the organisation. Sales organisations that notoriously have high turnover rates are potential recruiters of high-performing salespersons through informal social networks. This excludes these high performers from the application pool. Consequently, only salespersons of low talent are accessible to recruiters (Boles et al., 2012).

Prior literature suggests that turnover of key employees constitutes a source of great loss for industrial companies (Moon, 2017; Waldman et al., 2004). High turnover rates may metamorphose into high costs associated with labour recruitment, replacement and training (Gangwani, Dubey & Dasgupta, 2016; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011). Turnover results in a big loss of investment in human capital from organisations (Hesford, Malina & Pizzini, 2016; Hwang et al., 2014). Lee and Jimenez (2011) found that the turnover of well-performing employees can decrease organisational

performance. An employee who leaves usually carries away valuable knowledge and expertise developed within their work life. Turnover is linked with loss of the best and most talented employees in an organisation. Occasionally, the brightest and best employees leave organisations, which can damage the future potential of the organisation (Park & Shaw, 2013). Turnover creates advantages for organisations' competitors because employees who leave share the company's clients, methods and technology with its competitors (Gangwani, Dubey, & Dasgupta, 2016). This knowledge and expertise are valuable organisational assets that may be scarce and difficult to reacquire. In addition, Batt (2002) argued that, when some employees quit, more experienced and top-performing workers must retrain and socialise new entrants and inexperienced workers. This tends to slow the progress of organisational productivity until the novices become proficient.

2.9 Cost of Turnover for Social Capital

Turnover creates direct costs as well as the loss of both human and social capital (Aldatmaz, Ouimet & Van Wesep, 2018). Turnover among employees with high social capital affects the performance of an organisation. For example, employees' connections with customers and other clients are severed by their departure from the organisation (Wambugu, 2019). This indirect cost may be difficult to quantify. The established customer relationships created by employees are strained when they leave such organisations, and the companies exposed to either a potential decrease in revenue or a subsequent increase profitability of the company (Batt, 2002).

Turnover has implications for individuals who quit because they can become stressed when looking for a new position (Jha, 2009). The uncertainty and ambiguity associated with the job and labour market demand that the employee and their family members adjust to the new situation in diverse ways, especially if they need to relocate (Hesford et al., 2016; Schoenbaum, 2012). Associated challenges include obtaining new living accommodation and schools for children, as well as making arrangements for re-

employment of a spouse. Turnover also destroys the social capital base of individuals through loss of friends (Shaw et al., 2005; Shellenbarger, 2000).

2.10 Employee Retention Strategies (Organisational Inducements)

Poor employee retention equates to high employee turnover (Sutanto & Kurniawan, 2016). Employee retention refers to an organisational effort in designing strategies and initiatives that help current staff to stay with the organisation (Gangwani, Dubey & Dasgupta, 2016). It is a process of continuously engaging with and physically keeping or holding hired employees within the organisation (Aguenza & Som, 2012; Msengeti & Obwogi, 2015). Das and Baruah (2013) define retention as a process through which employees are encouraged to continue to do business with their organisation. Retention factors in this study are classified into work-related and personal factors. Work-related factors are factors that describe the association between the individual worker and the organisation (Kim & Park, 2014) and are responsible for job satisfaction and, consequently, staff retention in organisations. These factors include good infrastructure and facilities, good HRM practices, management and leadership styles, and communication, and building social relationships.

2.10.1 Work-related

A conducive working environment can be defined as a flexible atmosphere in which the working environment is enjoyable and adequate resources are provided (Wood et al., 2013). Poor work conditions must be improved to decrease potential turnover and increase retention among employees; the literature suggests that availability of resources is a determinant in the retention of employees (Kossivi et al., 2016). Arguably, good conditions of employment are associated with high recognition and low levels of stress (Kinman, 2016; Winterton, 2004). Employees stay in the job because of their sense of fit and attachment to their work and the community. People naturally like to stay in workplaces where they feel a sense of community and are a part of the decision-making process. These conditions foster high morale and positive

relationships, which contribute to job satisfaction and influence employees to remain in the organisation (Gagné & Howard, 2016; Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001).

Working conditions constitute both the working environment and the domain of terms and conditions of employment (Ali, Ali & Adan, 2013). Conditions of work play a key role in the life of an organisation and employees' satisfaction with their job. Factors related to the work environment of academics, such as the atmosphere of the academic institution, morale, sense of community, and interpersonal relationships, serve as useful predictors of job satisfaction (Kinman, 2016; Lacy & Sheehan, 1997). Employees who perceive that they have high-quality conditions of employment have fewer intentions of leaving (Al-Hamdan, Manojlovich & Tanima, 2017). Arnoux-Nicolas et al. (2016) examined the influence of perceived work conditions on turnover intentions among French workers. They revealed that adverse working conditions had a significant positive impact on turnover intentions. On average, the overall work environment positively and significantly determines staff turnover. Simon and Johnson (2014) posit that schools that want to retain their best, talented teachers should improve the teaching environment because a poor working environment causes teacher turnover. According to Yimer, Nega, and Ganfure (2017), mechanisms such as improving the physical work environment (offices, chairs, computers, internet and toilets), valuing and recognising deserving academic staff both socially and materially, providing feedback, and good management and leadership should be implemented to avoid high turnover rates. Improving the physical work environment constitutes an important staff-retention mechanism in institutions.

Since turnover intention precedes actual turnover behaviour, the best way to curb turnover is for management to understand the reasons that precipitate the intentions to quit (Hur & Hawley, 2019; Ng, Huang & Young, 2018). Management must resort to proactive measures to prevent actual turnover if it becomes aware of the reasons that have ignited turnover intention (Bergman et al., 2012; Jha, 2009). Management can deal with turnover if it understands the processes in individuals that cause them to consider turnover (Posthuma et al., 2013). Indeed, all measures to improve job satisfaction and staff retention relate to the adoption of sound HR practices such as

selection and recruitment, financial incentives for employee retention, opportunities for career development and advancement, promotion for retention, flexible work arrangements and staff health and well-being. This is consistent with Kundu and Gahlawat's (2015) study, which indicated that the potential of sound HR practices to create job satisfaction and embedment lies in the adoption of socially responsible HR practices. Socially responsible practices comprise all HRM practices that promote the humanisation of work. Examples include ensuring equity in HRM opportunities, increasing employee participation in organisational activities and processes, creating programs that balance work and leisure, and ensuring compliance with all related-labour laws. The authors further argued that when employees perceive that their organisations have adopted and implement such practices, employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the desire not to quit increase.

Hassan et al. (2013) investigated the effect of training on employee retention and found that participation in career progression and training opportunities directly affects employee retention. This finding is consistent with that of Villegas and Villegas (2006), who found that training has a direct influence on employee retention. Employees require the right working framework and employment to stay and work with their organisations. According to Tettey (2006), teacher satisfaction and retention are influenced by management policies of the school. Teachers who are employed in a setting in which they wield greater influence over school policies and have autonomy in their personal classroom are more satisfied and are more likely to remain at the post. Management should attempt to improve the working conditions of their organisations in order to retain core employees (Msengeti & Obwogi, 2015). HR managers can also retain the best staff by managing job-based shocks that precipitate turnover through vocational counselling, training and career progression. These strategies can lessen the effects of career-based shocks and alleviate shock-related turnover intentions among workers (Holtom et al., 2005). Mohsin, Lengler, and Aguzzoli (2015) also recommended that management should concentrate on providing personal development and building employee confidence through training and recognition in order to reduce turnover rates in industries. Similarly, management should hold regular reviews and informal discussions with their employees about employees' interests, job

performance, and career progression opportunities. This will improve management's effort to create loyalty among its employees and hence reduce employee turnover intentions (Mohsin, Lengler, & Aguzzoli, 2015).

Management support is particularly needed for talent management in organisations. Managers of higher education in Africa are encouraged to develop and implement talent development opportunities, suitable compensation, and recognition practices to keep young academics (Lesenyeh et al., 2018). Valuing and recognising faculty members constitute an important component of their job satisfaction. Morale is high among faculty members when they are valued, rewarded and recognised (August & Waltman, 2004). Although staff recognition is one of the least costly and easiest retention measures, it is rarely applied in many organisations in Africa. Asegid (2014) found that nurses who perceived a higher level of job recognition had fewer turnover intentions. Employees who perceive their jobs as challenging, gratifying and interesting, and full of opportunities for autonomy and self-direction are likely to develop a positive emotional state and subsequent feelings of commitment to their jobs and organisations (Sheldon et al., 2003; Singh & Singh, 2019). Kiazad et al. (2015) support the assertion of Mahdi et al. (2012) that establishing formal or informal ties with other people, either in the company or in the community, prevents employee departure. Employees become involved in and fulfilled by their work when they are satisfied with the work environment. Firms that attract and retain their best and brightest employees gain a competitive advantage while those that do not follow best practice will struggle. Organisational leadership must develop good strategies to combat job dissatisfaction in order to attract and retain talented employees (Holtom et al., 2005). The broad and specific measures that support organisations to encourage employees to remain with the organisation are collectively called "enablers" (Aruna & Anitha, 2015).

The emerging HRM literature recommends that staff retention should begin at recruitment and selection, job descriptions and orientation programs to serve as the foundations for developing effective and suitable retention strategies (Pregolato, Bussin & Schlechter, 2017). The selection and recruitment of staff is always a critical

factor in the cycle of managing human resources (Bokeno, 2011). The attraction and retention of effective teachers require management to select and recruit able people into the profession, and also to provide incentives, professional growth and support for ongoing performance (Dehlor, 2006). According to Ongori (2007) and Alatawi (2017), the process of employee recruitment and selection should be scientific, with the overarching aim of minimising employee turnover.

A substantial body of literature indicates that staff selection and recruitment play a role in their turnover intentions or the ability of the organisation to retain them (Hom et al., 2017; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Fair processes of selecting and recruiting employees exert a significant effect on their retention (Janjua, & Gulzar, 2014). Yang et al. (2012) also indicated that inappropriate recruitment and selection processes can degenerate into turnover. They argued that managing executives' failure to select suitable middle-level managers can cause inappropriate job placement and poor management of company staff. Therefore, the executives who select and recruit staff must have in-depth knowledge and understanding of the overall operations of the organisation (Ongori, 2007). For instance, they must understand the organisational culture, compensation policies and systems, requirements for positions, and required skills of employees in order to avoid selecting and recruiting unsuitable employees. Arguably, good employee recruitment programs can improve employee commitment, productivity and the quality of work performance within the organisation (Sutanto & Kurniawan, 2016; Yang et al., 2012). Sutanto and Kurniawan (2016) demonstrated that staff recruitment methods significantly improve labour relations through employee retention. Ongori (2007) examined employee turnover and showed that turnover among employees was due to management's poor selection and recruitment processes.

Organisational injustice can cause turnover. Both distributive and procedural justice are inversely related to employee turnover (Elanain, 2010; Loi et al., 2006). For instance, it has been found that distributive justice has a significant influence on employee turnover and retention intentions. Fairness and justice motivate employees to stay with organisations (Fields et al., 2000). Moreover, Cohen-Charash & Spector

(2001) found procedural justice was negatively related to actual turnover. Employees who perceive a sense of fairness in decision making are loyal to the organisation, which decreases turnover intentions and behaviour. Additionally, workers desire an inducement system that is perceived as both fair and commensurate with their contributions and expectations (Long & Perumal, 2014).

Employees who are poorly treated by their supervisors may consider leaving the organisation (Porter & Steers, 1973). Perceived fairness associated with outcomes, processes and procedures, and interpersonal relationships can influence the decision of employees to either remain with or quit their working relationship with the employer (Aquino, Griffeth, Allen, & Hom, 1997; Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2008). Consequently, Lewis (2015) argues that managers should strive to treat employees fairly to reduce turnover rates in organisations. Other management practices such as open lines of communication and decentralising decision making can also reduce employees' propensity to leave (Katsikea, Theodosiou & Morgan, 2015).

Many previous studies note the overriding role and influence of organisational leadership in promoting employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and reduced turnover intentions among academic staff (Lorber, Treven & Mumel, 2018; Voon et al., 2011). Apparently, the style of managerial leadership plays an important role in employee retention. For instance, a cross-sectional survey conducted by Ng'ethe (2014) found that providing training to academic staff did not influence their intention to stay. However, the presence of a favourable leadership style influenced them to stay. The findings further suggest that without a favourable leadership style, staff training, remuneration and promotions no longer determined academic staff intentions of either quitting or staying with institutions. Organisational leadership, which also represents the relationships with others, is a strong predictor of labour turnover (Azanza, Moriano, Molero, & Lévy Mangin, 2015; Sun & Wang, 2017). A poor work climate developed by the organisation's leadership may dampen or devastate employee attitudes and drive their turnover intentions (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Hur & Hawley, 2019). Organisational climate can influence the linkage between the intention to search for alternative employment opportunities and actual search

behaviour among employees. A good work environment positively correlates with employee retention (Boles et al., 2012; Gangwani et al., 2016). It also contributes to employees' sense of satisfaction and makes them feel happy and active in performing organisational tasks, allowing them to work freely without a sense of difficulty and frustration (Agbozo et al., 2017; Gangwani et al., 2016).

Although Alvesson (2000) argued that the best antidote to turnover problems is to develop organisational loyalty, other scholars contend that inducing a high level of organisational commitment and loyalty among employees is a challenging and difficult task (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Hur & Hawley, 2019). However, practices such as providing opportunities for career growth (Bulut & Culha, 2010), providing organisational support (He et al., 2011), ensuring employees' voices are heard and developing their trust in management (Farndale et al., 2011) can be used to build organisational commitment. Giauque et al. (2011) reported a study among knowledgeable workers in Swiss companies. They found that developing the organisational reputation, ensuring procedural justice (sense of fairness in decision making), and providing good support for employees were the only factors that contributed to organisational commitment. In contrast, the authors found that employee involvement in decision making, satisfaction with pay, and skill development did not influence organisational commitment.

In the current competitive business environment, retaining employees enables organisational success (Colakoglu, Culha & Atay, 2010). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) concluded that if employees are supported they will work towards organisation goals. They categorised organisational support under three principles: reciprocity, meeting employees' social needs, and fair performance appraisal. The reciprocity principle implies that organisations should provide the necessary support to enhance employees' performance. The second principle is ensuring the social needs of employees are met, thus appreciating their various roles. The third principle involves fairly assessing employees' performance for the purposes of reward and promotion so that they have faith in the process. If all these principles are applied in an organisation, it can positively influence productivity and encourage employees to give their best

(Demircan & Yildiz, 2009). Badu and Asumeng (2013) observed a positive relationship between the perception of organisational justice and the behaviour of employees. The study notes that the behaviour of employees is based on their perception of interactional justice rather than distributive and procedural justice. The findings of Agyemang and Ofei (2013) revealed that private-sector employees had higher levels of employee engagement and organisational commitment than those of public-sector employees. Scholars generally agree that organisational commitment increases with organisational support (Agyemang & Ofei, 2013; Demircan & Yildiz, 2009). It also reinforces the feeling of responsibility of employees towards the organisation in question (Lin & Tsai, 2019).

Geurts, Schaufeli, and Rutte (1999) conducted a study to test the relationship between the social exchange model and equity theory in the employee–organisation relationship regarding absenteeism and turnover intentions among professionals in mental healthcare. The study revealed that perceived inequity in the employment relationship has a significant association with both employee absenteeism and turnover intentions. The study further showed that employee feelings of resentment are positively related to poor organisational commitment, which is also positively associated with turnover intentions. This evidence suggests when employees perceive that there is organisational inequity in terms of their contributions and rewards, they develop a feeling of resentment and later resort to absenteeism and turnover. Therefore, providing fair treatment to employees increases organisational commitment and reduces turnover. Other studies also found a positive relationship between employees' intentions to stay at work and recognition for competent or satisfactory performance. For instance, Asegid et al. (2014) showed nurses whose work achievements were recognised had greater intentions to stay longer. Similarly, Yimer, Nega, and Ganfure (2017) found that lack of recognition for achievements affected academic staff turnover. Morale is high among employees when they are valued, rewarded and recognised (August & Waltman, 2004). Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen, and Schutte (2018) also found recognition increases organisational commitment and reduces turnover intentions among employees.

The nexus among monetary compensation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay has been empirically established (Banerjee & Nayak, 2018). The main objectives of pay level in the compensation system are related to both controlling the cost of labour and attracting, motivating and retaining employees. The merit pay system is effective for motivating and retaining workers. Chiu et al. (2002) showed that a review of the compensation system and a suitable remuneration package for individual employees who are dissatisfied and willing to quit can help retain them. Yang et al. (2012) showed that managers resorted to salary adjustment as a measure to retain workers in international tourist hotels in Taiwan. When employees are satisfied, they make significant contributions towards improving the quality of services.

Financial incentives are often considered the most common method of retaining qualified and experienced employees (Lewis, 2015). Providing cash bonuses or holiday pay can boost morale and help increase organisational commitment and retention. Kiazad et al. (2015) support this notion by asserting that all job motivation-enhancing tactics boost employee motivation to stay and contribute to organisational performance. Similarly, a study by Banerjee and Nayak (2018) revealed that multinational enterprises offer higher salaries to prevent turnover and also promote cooperation between workers and the employer. Generally, the compensation literature provides considerable support for the argument that paying higher wages can potentially prevent turnover (Banerjee & Nayak, 2018; Lewis, 2015). Selesho and Naile (2014) demonstrated that retention of academic staff by Vaal University was influenced by management's capacity to pay academic staff the requisite market-related salaries. However, academic leadership and the work environment also contributed to staff satisfaction and retention in the organisation. These researchers found that academic staff who received stagnant salaries for their contribution to teaching abandoned their profession, which has seriously affected the quality of teaching and administration in the institution.

The literature notes that money can retain some employees for specific purposes but cannot solely be used as an effective and sustainable reward system and motivator to

retain employees (Dibble, 1999). Winterton (2004) suggested that labour retention strategies should target decreasing employee mobility through providing financial incentives. Both Ongori (2007) and Yimer et al. (2017) posit that employees must be given adequate financial compensation to minimise their intentions to leave the organisational set-up because poor wages contribute to employee turnover. Other empirical evidence highlights that the morale and loyalty of hardworking and deserving staff increase when they are offered adequate and prompt payment of wages, allowances and other reward packages (Asamoah & Eugene, 2016).

The emerging HRM literature supports the link between job satisfaction, career growth and development, and organisational commitment (Selesho & Naile, 2014). According to Villegas-Reimers (2003), employees feel that the organisation has an interest in retaining them and that is why it is investing in their training and career development. Providing career development opportunities in turn improves employees' commitment and decreases their intention to leave. This correspond with the findings of Mapelu and Jumah (2013), who noted that employee development has a significant effect on their intention to leave. These researchers concluded that an increase in training opportunities for employee development would decrease turnover rates among employees. In consonance with the basic tenet and theoretical exposition of the social exchange theory, satisfying the training needs of employees will generate a state of fulfilment and meaning and employees will reciprocate by showing a greater degree of engagement (Scott et al., 2017). When employees are highly engaged, their propensity for leaving the organisation will be reduced. Other researchers have also found that organisations that invest in employees' career development provide opportunities for employees to develop personal and professional skills, which subsequently develops a sense of obligation and organisational commitment among employees (Memon, Salleh, & Baharom, 2016; Scott et al., 2017). Employee training satisfaction creates organisational commitment that collectively reduces employee's intentions to leave. According to Lang et al., (2016), the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is mediated by employee training and development. As such, promoting work satisfaction and training can be viewed by management as the most important factors for reducing employees' desire to leave.

Benson (2006) argued that employability policies are geared towards retaining committed employees when there is no guarantee of job security. Employees who believe that there are opportunities for career growth and advancement in the future are more likely to stay even in the midst of complete dissatisfaction with their present job circumstances. Management needs to identify and clearly communicate career paths for employees as a strategy to retain them (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Organisations can promote employee retention by providing training and signing staff development agreements (Winterton, 2004). This agreement requires succession planning, career paths and a staff development plan for employees who attend professional development programs. Employees are now highly aware of their career path and development and hence their career growth. Thus the failure of organisations to satisfy these personal career needs can cause management to lose valued employees (Foong-ming, 2008; Menezes et al., 2018).

However, providing training and development opportunities to employees does not necessarily increase employees' level of organisational commitment since there can be nonalignment between employees' perceptions about their job and the development opportunities offered (Cao, Chen & Song, 2013). For example, training employees in firm-specific skills reduces turnover more than providing generic training skills for employees (Flamholtz & Lacey, 1981; Winterton, 2004). Employees often receive a portion of productivity gains that accrue from firm-specific training, which further strengthens the bond between the employee and the employer. Workers trained in firm-specific skills have restricted movement compared to workers trained in transferable generic skills (Pang, Kucukusta & Chan, 2015; Winterton, 2004). Long and Perumal (2014) and Sajjad, Ghazanfar, and Ramzan (2013) also maintain that job-specific training limits alternative employment opportunities for trained employees.

It is well documented in the literature that training and development increases employee loyalty, retention and commitment (Bryant & Allen, 2013; Deery, 2008; Ellenbecker, 2004; Leidner, 2013). According to Hosie et al. (2013) and Long & Perumal (2014), training and development opportunities can reduce staff turnover

intentions as employees in organisations where opportunities for staff career growth and advancement are provided are less likely to quit. Benson (2006) found that employee participation in development programs had various outcomes regarding their commitment and turnover intentions. The author argued that employees who undertook on-the-job training and gained specific skills had more commitment and less propensity to leave the organisation than those employees who participated in tuition-reimbursement programs. Mapelu and Jumah (2013) contend that training is a tool that can be used to build and develop a committed labour force.

In addition, Rumman et al. (2014) stated that various conditions of employment influence job turnover: continuous development and training opportunities; provision of appropriate working tools and equipment, a housing allowance, a staff cafeteria, a good vacation and leave system, justice within the workplace, a health insurance system, a work shift system and a promotion system; and minimising the pressure of working hours. Asegid et al. (2014) indicated that dissatisfaction with the work environment, and opportunities for training and promotion influenced turnover intentions. Working conditions such as the number of working hours, pay rate, autonomy granted to employees, organisational culture, and communication between employees and management may collectively affect job satisfaction among employees and, subsequently, their decision to leave or stay (Agbozo et al., 2017; Lane et al., 2010). Workers with difficult working conditions become dissatisfied and eventually quit, while a good working environment increases job satisfaction. Muthukumaran and Lavanya Latha (2013) observed that, although retaining core employees can be difficult, employers should manage their employees by meeting both their monetary needs and their psychological expectations. This corresponds with the argument that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors collectively contribute towards the overall satisfaction and retention of employees in an organisation (Ellenbecker, 2004; Tarcan et al., 2017). According to Yimer, Nega, and Ganfure (2017), mechanisms such as improving the work environment, valuing and recognising deserving academic staff both socially and materially, providing feedback, and good management and leadership should be implemented to avoid high turnover rates among academics.

Employee promotion is often cited as a staff-retention mechanism that directly supports the achievement of employees' career aspirations and goals. The availability of opportunities for career advancement has been cited as a reason for employees staying with their employer (Hausknecht et al., 2009). Promotion of academic staff reduces their turnover intention in learning institutions. For example, unbiased policies on promotion help reduce turnover intentions among teachers and contributes to job satisfaction and reduces the rate of turnover. Busari et al. (2017) suggest that higher education institutions need to formulate flexible promotion policies for teachers in order to retain them. Sadiq, Barnes, Price, Gumedze, and Morrell (2019) examined the system of promotion of academic staff in South African universities. They found that the system provides a mechanism for staff recognition. Thus there is the need to address biases and inequalities in the promotion system that result in certain groups rising to the top more easily than others. The system of promotion should be fair to individual applicants and demonstrate equity for all academics. This demands an efficient and effective policy on promotion in higher learning institutions (Busari et al., 2017; Sadiq et al., 2019).

2.10.2 Personal factors

The psychological component of retention concerns job characteristics (Kelliher & Anderson, 2008). For instance, employees prefer flexibility and the autonomy to apply their initiatives and knowledge, with the ability to evaluate the results of their own efforts and knowledge (Giovanis, 2018; Shockley & Allen, 2010). In addition, the social dimension of retention is the social capital of workers and comprises both the internal and external contacts that the workers have built with others; the physical dimension comprises working conditions and pay and salary factors (Das & Baruah, 2013). According to Hausknecht et al. (2008, 2009), flexible work arrangements constitute an important determinant of employee decisions to stay with the organisation. Evidence suggests that employees yearn for flexible job design that gives them the opportunity to undertake both their personal and professional activities (George, 2015; Loan-Clarke, Arnold, Coombs, Hartley, & Bosley, 2010) Job autonomy and flexible work conditions are intrinsic job characteristics that promote job satisfaction and increase retention of employees (Ellenbecker, 2004).

There are increasing work demands on academic staff that call for effective mechanisms for the allocation of their workload. Although this may be challenging, management needs to effectively manage and avoid work overload among academic staff (Bellamy, Morley, & Watty, 2003; Houston, Meyer, & Paewai, 2006). For example, Kenny and Fluck (2014) explored the effectiveness of academic workload models and noted that academics are overloaded and frustrated with the workloads. Their findings have several implications for employee burnout and job stress as well as employee mental health and well-being. Houston et al. (2006) examined academic staff workloads and job satisfaction in New Zealand. They found that academics were relatively less satisfied with extrinsic rewards from their work such as their salary, chances for advancement, and the recognition received for good work, but relatively more satisfied with intrinsic factors such as flexibility, amount of responsibility, and variety in their jobs. This finding suggests that the exit and retention of academics from universities can be tied to dissatisfaction with career advancement and the recognition received for good work and satisfaction with job flexibility, amount of responsibility, and variety in their jobs.

Anakwe (2002) examined job duties and organisational relationships in Nigeria. The author found that traditionally organisations are solely responsible for employees' welfare; employees think that their welfare is the responsibility of managers and the organisation. They expect management to provide and foster relationships through instituting policies and practices that enhance their quality of life. Employees need structure and guidelines to execute job demands. According to Anakwe (2002), employees' expectations ranged from financial to nonmonetary rewards. Expectations around financial rewards included wage advances, transportation allowances, bonuses, vacation pay, pensions and end-of-service gratuities. Nonmonetary expectations included health insurance, vehicles, housing, and subsidised cafeterias.

Boreham et al. (2016) indicated that workplace transformations affect the social well-being of employees, their organisational commitment, and turnover intentions. Hence improving group cohesion and socialisation techniques can serve as an employee

retention strategy. Management can also improve the career satisfaction of employees by developing a supportive organisational culture as well as recognising individual employee differences. This motivates the workforce and increases organisational commitment. Developing a sound and supportive organisational culture may help reduce the turnover intention among employees (Joo & Park, 2010). Russel (2017) suggests that communication can be used as a tool to increase cohesion and promote socialisation. The absence of open communication between management and employees can potentially create unhealthy tension, stress and fear among the organisational membership. Studies have shown that organisations that deploy motivational activities such as socialisation activities (Yang, Wan & Fu, 2012), organisational mentorship (Long & Perumal, 2014), and opportunities for personal growth and career development, as well as creating a conducive work environment, can minimise employee turnover (Kossivi et al., 2016). Winterton (2004) argues that job satisfaction among employees' results from several factors that affect their quality of work–life balance as employees seek out for job satisfiers. Similarly, prior literature argue that employees' intentions to leave or remain are strongly influenced by their job satisfaction (Li et al., 2016; Stryker, 2016).

In his study of the leadership–member exchange, Finster (2013) indicates that leadership quality can also influence employees' motivation and commitment. The author found that leadership styles in schools play a core role in teachers' intent to stay. Similarly, Bryant and Allen (2013) observed that people do not leave their companies but leave their bosses. The authors argued that employees quit because of the leadership, supervision and employer–employee relationship as well as the conditions that surround their employment. Drawing from social psychology literature through the lens of leader–member exchange theory, some argue that some leaders have extensive trust in their members and often interact with their subordinates as part of their “in-group” while holding a more transactional relationship with the “out-group” (Jain, Duggal, & Ansari, 2019; E. Y. Zhao, Thatcher, & Jehn, 2019). Positive leader–member relationships reduce employee turnover and hence contribute to the retention of workers within the organisation (Kim & Park, 2014; Ng'ethe, 2014). Positive relationships increase positive job attitudes and employees' sense of

belonging, trust and commitment, which can decrease the likelihood of employee turnover.

De Lourdes Machado-Taylor et al. (2016) showed that institutional leadership can play a vital part in promoting job satisfaction among employees. Institutional leadership can help identify the factors that contribute to low job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and subsequently use the information to devise techniques to improve satisfaction. Management must seek to understand the sources and causal processes of employee turnover so that they can work towards retaining employees (Ongori, 2007). Ahmad and Rainyee (2014) concluded that the use of sound management strategies and promoting a good match between employees and the organisation will ensure that employees develop job commitment and satisfaction, which in turn will improve their retention attitudes. Ongori (2007) and Pietersen and Oni (2014) suggest improving the quality of monitoring and supervision, which they posit plays a key role in reducing job dissatisfaction and employee turnover.

Houston et al. (2006) raised concerns about the fairness and transparency of work allocation processes and suggest that providing fair treatment to employees increases organisational commitment and reduces turnover. Mitchell, Holtom, and Lee (2001) found that changes in family situations (e.g. relocation of a spouse), a desire to learn a new skill or vocation, an unexpected job offer, observing a co-worker being ill-treated, the denial of a promotion, and the demand to do tasks against one's belief system were the external shocks that often caused turnover intentions among employees. Gialuisi and Coetzer (2013) demonstrated that retention of key employees can be improved by promoting a flat management structure, a democratic working environment, and varying the duties and responsibilities of employees.

All forms of communication activities within an organisation create opportunities for advancing employee voice. Successful organisations are those that have developed effective mechanisms to advance open communication and employee voice. Employee voice supports the building of trust, loyalty, and commitment. Communication ensures the flow of information, policies and resources. It also serves as the bloodstream of the

organisation and provides the means through which groups of people and individual employees within the business environment meet and interact (Femi, 2014). Employees who lack clear information on their task performance likely face a high degree of frustration and job stress (Shonubi & Akintaro, 2016). Ngozi and Ifeoma (2015) found that effective communication reduces organisational conflict and misunderstandings and hence ensures the overall performance of the staff. Nwagbara et al. (2013) showed that the near absence of effective communication led to turnover intentions among employees. These researchers noted that effective communication promotes fruitful relationships among organisational members.

Collegiality and mutual communication remain an important conduit for advancing cohesion and solidarity, thereby contributing to lowering turnover intentions (Abugre, 2011; Husain, 2013; Nwagbara et al., 2013). Communication not only motivates employees but also helps build trust and organisational commitment and reduces a sense of job insecurity among employees (Ashfaq, Ur Rehman, Safwan, & Afzal Humayoun, 2012; Husain & Nazim, 2013). Femi (2014) has recommended that management should develop an effective communication system with employees in order to improve employee commitment and productivity. Stryker (2016) contends that information flow can strongly influence employees' perceptions and evaluations of the employment situation.

Porter and Steers (1973) reviewed evidence in previous research and argued that employee retention may be influenced by co-workers because they can provide psychological support and encouragement to workers and help them adjust to the job environment. This improves the attachment of employees to the organisation. Loan-Clarke et al. (2010) observed that providing social support to employees helps keep them in the organisation for an extended period. Group cohesion among peers in the workplace promotes staff retention in organisations (Ellenbecker, 2004). Gialuisi and Coetzer (2013) argue that employees naturally dislike working with others with whom they have problematic relationships. If the parties cannot reconcile, then one or other may decide to leave the organisation. Previous studies suggest that quitting a job is most often intended in moments of low levels of job satisfaction (Bray & Williams,

2017; Msengeti & Obwogi, 2015). Bray and Williams (2017) suggest university management must invest both time and resources to satisfy the needs of employees. This will ensure a high sense of organisational commitment and satisfactory communication among their professional staff. The interaction between faculty and staff can also cement members in their organisation.

Fraser and Ryan (2012) argued that high turnover rates among academics can be attributed to conflicting views between academics and senior managers, absence of career paths and lack of promotion. According to Finster (2013), building collegiality among employers and employees can improve group cohesion and staff retention. The author recommends the creation of professional learning communities, which involve collaboration and teamwork among teachers that is aimed at improving the instructional practices of teachers. Teachers value working collaboratively with their colleagues and would like to form part of such cooperative, supportive and productive work teams (Dauksas & White, 2010; Simon & Johnson, 2015; Waddell, 2010). Msengeti and Obwogi (2015) generally found the work environment has a significant positive influence on staff retention. An employee sense of attachment, as well as fit with their job and the entire community, leads to the intent to stay. They concluded that fit, links, and sacrifices are the main drivers of employees staying with their organisations.

Organisations seek to retain their workers by employing measures that promote employee organisational satisfaction, commitment and engagement. According to Memon et al. (2018), highly engaged employees have fewer intentions of leaving their jobs. These authors found that promoting employees' level of engagement decreases the rate of voluntary turnover. Highly engaged employees tend to have a high-quality relationship with their employers, which helps to develop more positive attitudes and a stronger emotional attachment to the organisation. Work prestige is frequently cited as a key reason why employees stay at their workplaces (Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2008). Lewis (2015) found that the absence of recognition and appreciation were the most important factors cited as reasons for a high turnover rate. Their findings

highlight the need to institute intrinsic reward schemes such as “employee of the month” to acknowledge contributions to the organisation.

2.1 | Implications for Employee Retention

Overall, various organisational inducements have diverse implications for employee retention. They promote employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and, in turn, retention. According to Locke (1976), many factors promote retention: mentally challenging work that an employee can undertake effectively; individual involvement in the job; work that is not physically tiring; reasonable, fair and insightful incentives for task results; and adequate working conditions. Further, Das and Baruah (2013) and Winterton (2004) found these factors foster workforce retention: high worker self-esteem, organisational encouragement to achieve job values (e.g. enjoyable and interesting work, opportunities for increased pay and promotion), other core values aligned with their personal values, and reducing position uncertainty and conflict. Teacher satisfaction and commitment can be attributed to administrative support, which directly predicts job satisfaction among teachers (Tickle et al., 2011). Support from administration and teacher job attitudes (job satisfaction, pay satisfaction and organisational commitment) are strongly associated. This suggests that institutions that provide administrative support to their teaching staff promote teacher job satisfaction and overall organisational commitment (Stryker, 2016). For example, supervisory support yields a positive impact on both employees’ organisational commitment and their career satisfaction. Employees with affective commitment to their organisation have reduced turnover intentions. For Kang and Kim (2014), the link between supervisory support and intent to quit was mediated by organisational commitment.

Postmes, Tanis, and De Wit (2001) also assert that effective communication can lead to job satisfaction, commitment and reduced turnover. Ng’ethe (2014) emphasised that management should communicate with staff precisely regarding institutional policies on promotion and training. According to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013), open communication can be enhanced when line managers provide regular feedback and

clarify their expectations to employees. Moreover, open, easeful communication can reduce conflict between employees, and improve both employee relations and their performance (Sutanto & Kurniawan, 2016). Prior studies have found that pay level and pay satisfaction are relatively weak determinants of employee turnover (Chiu et al., 2002; Kuo, Lin & Li, 2014). In a study on determinants of job satisfaction and turnover intentions of public employees in federal agencies, Kim and Park (2014) revealed that employees are not satisfied with good salaries alone; other nonfinancial reward systems had more effect on management's effort to retain employees. In addition, employees crave individual satisfaction and a sense of purpose in their work. Nevertheless, financial compensations remain effective in retaining employees. However, Msengeti and Obwogi (2015) argue that pay systems may produce negative outcomes due to increased conflicts among workers and pursuits of personal employees' goals to the detriment of organisational objectives. Group-based contingent pay systems may breed free riders who are low or nonperformers but earn an equivalent reward to their hardworking colleagues in the organisation. Apart from financial incentives, employees expect timely recognition for their contributions to the organisation. In summary, employee turnover and the development of retention strategies are influenced significantly by contextual organisational drivers.

2.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the literature that relates to determinants of academic staff turnover and retention in Ghanaian technical universities. It presented theoretical and conceptual issues as well as results of previous studies that are relevant to the topic under investigation to help understand the relevance of employee contributions, organisational inducements and turnover behaviour among academic staff of Ghanaian technical universities. The theory posits that an individual worker continually participates by making contributions to the existence of the organisation when the inducements received are greater than their contributions. Beyond this theoretical benefit, the theory expands our understanding and explanation of the inducement–contribution link in technical universities in the Ghanaian context.

The chapter highlighted that employees' turnover intentions, satisfaction, and retention can be influenced by the prevailing conditions of employment and other forms of organisational inducements; dissatisfied employees make decisions regarding their plans to either leave or stay with an organisation. Based on the evidence from previous research, the determinants of employee turnover and retention can be categorised into five dimensions: personal factors, organisation-wide factors, external factors, work-related factors and personal determinants of turnover and retention. The chapter further presented factors that contribute to turnover in organisations. The review documented that turnover among academic staff is influenced by a constellation of factors ranging from compensation policies to opportunity for promotion, workload, working conditions, administration and management practices, management and leadership style, and facilities. These factors represent organisation-wide factors and external factors. This has managerial implications for the leadership of the technical universities. Most importantly, the management of technical universities needs to adopt retention measures that address work-related, economic and individual contextual factors.

Finally, the chapter also showed that several organisational inducement strategies can be used to retain employees in the organisation. The chapter discussed talent management as the sole responsibility of the organisation. Management should design strategies that are broadly based on work-related economic conditions to promote talent management in Ghanaian technical universities. Within the context of the study, employee retention represents organisational efforts in designing strategies and initiatives that encourage current staff to stay with the institution or organisation. The process is one of continuously engaging and physically keeping or holding hired employees within the organisation. These organisational inducement strategies should use both financial and nonmonetary rewards targeted at encouraging employees to stay with the employer.

CHAPTER 3. THE STUDY CONTEXT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the study context with reference to the development of education in Ghana (particularly higher education) and the relevant labour market conditions, public-sector employment conditions, staff recruitment and selection, work environment and organisational support systems in Ghana. Ghana's Education Strategic Plan (2018–2030) is aligned with the African Union Agenda 2063 and the fourth goal of the Sustainable Development Goals. This is not only imperative for Ghana's development but for human capital development in order to champion the advancement of education in Ghana. Of note, the strategic education blueprint outlined in the Education Strategic Plan is yet to influence public education management –it is currently shrouded in secrecy and public knowledge of its existence is limited.

3.2 The Geography and Economy of Ghana

Ghana is situated towards the western side of Africa. The country shares borders with Ivory Coast to the west, Burkina Faso to the north and Togo to the east. On the southern side Ghana is bounded by the Gulf of Guinea, contiguous with the Atlantic Ocean. Ghana attained independence from the United Kingdom in March 1957.

Ghana's economy continues to expand. According to the World Bank (2019), the first quarter of gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated at 6.7%, compared with 5.4% in the same period in 2018. The increase resulted from growth in the services sector, which improved from 1.2% in 2018 to 7.2% in 2019 (World Bank, 2019). As at the end of 2018, the World Bank report on Ghana's profile estimated its GDP at \$65.56 billion, with 6.3% as the estimated annual GDP growth rate (World Bank, 2019). In 2019, the government continued its effort on fiscal consolidation, despite challenges in attaining its revenue targets. For the first of half of 2019, the fiscal performance showed an overall budget deficit (on a cash basis) of 3.3% of the GDP, higher than the

target of 2.9%. This resulted from a shortfall in revenue, which was 1.6% of GDP compared with the expenditure reductions of 1% of GDP. As a result of the well-capitalised banking sector, the private sector improved and inflation continued in single digits in the second quarter of 2019 (World Bank, 2019). The World Bank (2019) overview of Ghana estimated a surplus of 0.1% of GDP in the first half of 2019; however, due to favourable trade conditions, there was trade surplus of 2.8% of GDP. This resulted largely from the country's three main export commodities: oil, gold and cocoa. The present account surplus, coupled with relevant capital and financial inflows, led to an overall balance of payments surplus equivalent to 1.9% of GDP (World Bank, 2019). Generally, economic growth of the country was estimated to increase to 7.6% in 2019 (World Bank, 2019). The non-oil growth is estimated to rise to 6% due to the government's new policies in the agriculture sector and if the promotion of agribusiness begins to take effect (World Bank, 2019). In the medium term, inflation is projected to remain within the Central Bank's target range of 6–10% (World Bank, 2019). Improvements in the Ghanaian economy are reflected in the education sector, including increased access, infrastructure development and quality improvement. These improvements can be attributed to the development of human capital across the various education levels.

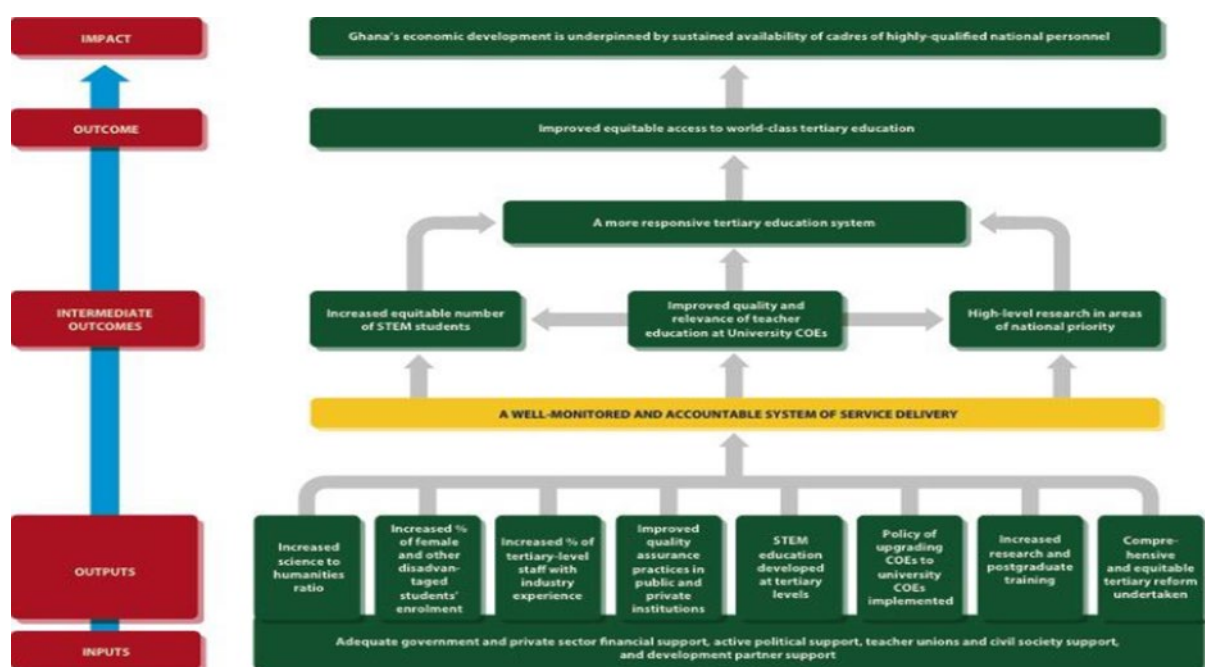
3.3 Education Strategy in Ghana

Ghana's Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2018–2030 is the latest in a succession of Education Strategic Plans (e.g. 2003–2015 and 2010–2020). The ESP 2018–2030 was designed to situate Ghana's education expectations relative to education priorities that are shared and recognised internationally and are linked to the Sustainable Development Goals. This initiative confers on Ghana's education sector an overarching goal to ensure the delivery of education throughout the education system. The ESP framework prescribes strategies and goals for the various education subsectors in Ghana. These proposed strategies result from transformed policy objectives that provide clear initiatives on the direction of Ghana's education system.

Within this prescribed system of education management, the tertiary education subsector is expected to improve equitable access to, and the quality of, its offerings, in an overall effort to advance tertiary education in the country. This calls for academic staff of tertiary institutions to obtain qualifications that will ensure these goals are achieved (McCowan, 2007). While planning and administrative efficiency are key to the successful translation of the education strategies, these goals are currently mere aspirations shared by Ghana's education system that reflect the needs of society in a context of limited political will (Naboth, 2014). These strategic aspirations support the training of graduates who will contribute to the socioeconomic growth of Ghana. This new paradigm of education development requires specialised training through suitable pedagogical approaches and opportunities for industry exposure. This will develop a labour force that will increase the productivity of the Ghanaian economy (Peretomode & Chukwuma, 2012). The paradigm supports a new tertiary education funding model with attention on mobilising funds to support academic staff in research that promotes the interests of the nation.

The Theory of Change for tertiary education that guides the design of the education strategy requires a more supportive and conducive work environment to foster academic excellence in teaching and research. This will create a knowledge-based economy in which the use of knowledge drives economic growth and employment across all industries (Davis, Evans, & Hickey, 2006). This medium- to long-term outcome will contribute to the development of responsive higher learning institutions and, eventually, social and economic development in Ghana (Figure 3-1).

Figure 3-1: Theory of Change for tertiary education



Source: Education Strategic Plan 2018–2030

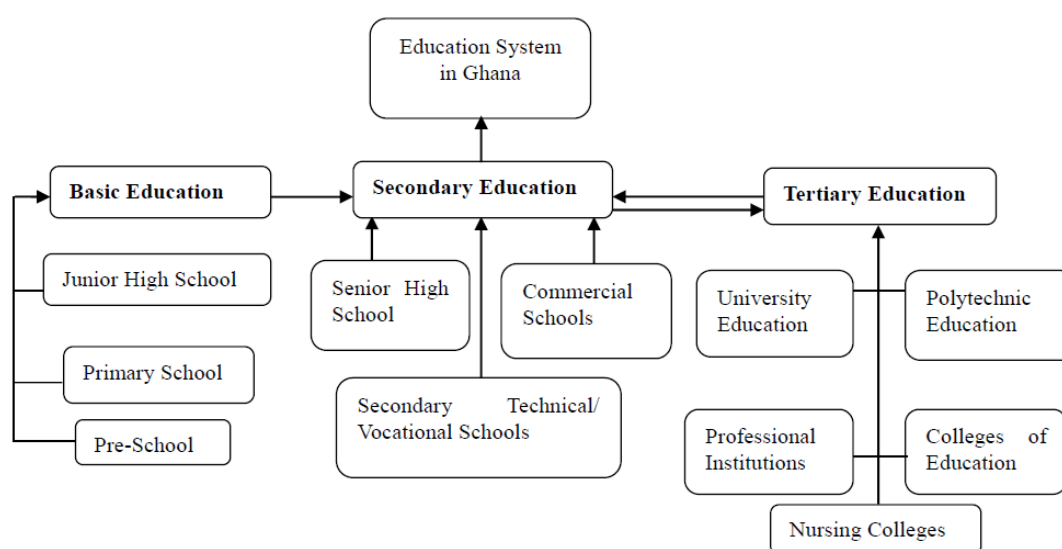
3.4 Development of Higher Education in Ghana

The history of formal education in Ghana can be traced back to the colonial period (Boampong, 2013; McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975). In the mid eighteenth century, the European merchants and Christian missionaries established schools aimed at tackling the high level of illiteracy and to spread the gospel to the local people (Boampong, 2013). According to Quist (2003), some historians recorded that the Portuguese started a mission school at Elmina Castle in 1529; however, the Dutch are believed to have opened their own school in 1644 after they evicted the Portuguese. The Basel and Wesleyan Christian missionaries largely contributed to the provision of formal education in the Gold Coast (now Ghana). The Basel Mission built 47 schools and the Wesleyans 84 schools. By 1874 the British government had total control of the Gold Coast colony (Quist, 2003). In 1892 the British government, noticing the inconsistencies in the education system initiated by the various missions, mapped out its first plan, which guided the development of education in the country thereafter.

Quist (2003) asserts that two models of secondary school education were established in Ghana in the colonial era – the Mfantshipim (founded in 1876) and the Achimota (established in 1927) schools. The junior and senior secondary school model was introduced by the Provincial National Defence Council (PNDC) in the post-colonial era.

Since independence in 1957, successive governments have made significant efforts to advance formal education. The prioritising of education saw Ghana’s education system regarded as one of the best in West Africa by the 1980s. However, the education system has remained inconsistent, with changes in government resulting in different education ideologies. There have been education reforms to provide Ghanaians with a workable education system, including the Accelerated Development Plan of 1951, the *Education Act of 1961*, and the reforms of the National Liberation Council. The New Structure and Content of Education of 1974, the 1987 education reforms and the new Education Reform of 2007 were among several reforms aimed at shaping the education system of Ghana (Anamuah-Mensah, Asabere-Ameyaw, & Dennis, 2007).

Figure 3-2: Ghana Education System



Source: Bingab et al., 2016

In 1948, tertiary education was introduced in Ghana by the British as a great initiative. Based on the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Oxford and Cambridge Universities, the University College of Gold Coast was established in Ghana to enrol students for undergraduate, graduate, certificate and diploma programs in various academic and professional fields (Anamuah-Mensah et al., 2007). As at 2019, there are nine public universities (**Table 3-1**), eight technical universities and two polytechnics (**Table 3-2**) in Ghana.

Table 3-1: Public Universities in Ghana

Name	Location
University of Ghana at Legon-Accra	Legon-Accra
Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology	Kumasi
University of Cape Coast	Cape Coast
University of Education	Winneba
University of Development Studies	Tamale
Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (Greenhill College)	Accra
University of Energy and Natural Resources	Sunyani
University of Health and Allied Sciences	Hohoe
University of Mines and Technology	Tarkwa

Table 3-2: Technical Universities and Polytechnics in Ghana

Name	Location
Tamale Technical University	Tamale
Kumasi Technical University	Kumasi
Accra Technical University	Accra
Cape Coast Technical University	Cape Coast
Koforidua Technical University	Koforidua
Ho Technical University	Ho

Takoradi Technical University	Takoradi
Sunyani Technical University	Sunyani
Wa Polytechnic (not converted yet)	Wa
Bolgatanga Polytechnic (not converted yet)	Bolgatanga

3.5 Practices for People Management in Ghana

Although the literature on HRM is limited within the Ghanaian context, several transitions have occurred in the management of human resources in Ghanaian organisations that were influenced by economic growth, technological advancement and emerging industrial developments (Anakwe, 2002). Abraham, Kusi, and Mensah (2018) state that major changes in recent Ghanaian HRM practices have occurred in selection and recruitment, career development, performance management, and administration of pay and benefits. Abraham et al. (2018) and Boxall et al. (2007) argue that there is no consensus on limited sets of practices associated with the functions of HRM. However, Dwumah (2014) asserts that there are practices that form the basics of HRM, including selection and recruitment, career development, performance management, and reward schemes, but these may differ among organisations.

In the context of Ghana, the Public Service Commission has the sole responsibility for regulating the HR policies and programs in the country's public-sector institutions (Public Service Commission, 2015). The government has also mandated to recruit, promote and appoint to office suitable personnel, and to establish the terms and conditions of employment in Ghana (Public Service Commission, 2015). The Public Service Commission derives its mandate from the *Public Services Commission Act 1994* (Act 482) of the constitution. The commission also rolls out HR policy frameworks and provides training manuals on corporate governance in the public sector. Aryee (2003) argues that, due to the high levels of unemployment and graduate rates, organisations no longer recruit from campuses as they did in the 1980s.

Regarding employee recruitment, particularly in public-sector organisations, human resource managers commonly recruit on recommendations from family and friends (Affum-Osei et al., 2019; Aryee, 2003; Dwumah 2014). This method of recruitment is commonly known as “employment by whom you know” (Affum-Osei et al., 2019; Zakaria, & Alhassan, 2019). Although this practice is common, it does not conform to the overarching goal of strategic recruitment and selection in the HRM literature (Dwumah, 2014). In most cases, the recruitment and selection processes are biased (Aduse-Poku, 2012). According to Aduse-Poku (2012), Ghanaian employees are mostly recruited through family ties or friends and associates, while employers rarely use electronic media. Although successful candidates may have the requisite qualifications, they may not fit the role in question. This indicates that most Ghanaian employers are passive in the recruitment and selection process, rather than seeking to attract qualified employees who will best fit the job and the organisation.

In most cases, Ghanaian organisations adopt foreign training and development programs for their employees (Ayentimi, 2017). The intended aim is provide training and development for employees who may not meet the standards due cultural differences (Affum-Osei, Asante, Forkouh, Aboagye, & Antwi, 2019). However, this practice may result in placing unqualified personnel in positions if there is no appropriate needs assessment and situational analysis by the employer. According to Opoku and Arthur (2015), most employees who seek to develop themselves pursue further studies despite not receiving the support of their employers. In addition, some employers do not recognise certificates or qualifications acquired without prior approval (Agyemang, 2012).

Ghanaian institutions previously trained and developed employees through apprenticeships, with apprentices learning a vocation from a master craftsman. The apprentices are expected to increase their expertise with experience (Appiah-Opoku, 1999). Profit-oriented firms have now realised the relevance of training and developing employees to improve performance. Appiah (2010) noted that Ghanaian firms now have training and development departments that focus on programs to optimise the HR

base of their organisations. In the area of performance management within the public sector in Ghana, reforms have aimed to attain efficiency and effectiveness in public sector management. Some of the performance management initiatives include the Annual Confidential Reporting System introduced in Ghana's public-sector institutions in 1974. In 1992, the Performance Evaluation System was introduced; in 1997, a new performance management program known as the Performance Agreement System was introduced. In spite of these reforms, employee performance and productivity in the public sector has been declining (Asamoah, Osei-Kojo, Yeboah-Assimah, 2013), attributed to several factors that include poor conditions of service, cultural attitudes, lack of supervision, poor performance, and the absence of proper performance appraisal systems. The declining workforce performance in the public sector has led to agitations for the privatisation of most state-owned enterprises. Since 2019 the Public Services Commission of Ghana has been running the New Performance Management Policy Framework, a framework based on four principles: accountability, transparency, equity and ownership (Public Service Commission, 2015). The framework aims to outline the various roles and direction of employees, to complement organisational objectives and to promote constructive discussion of the duties of employees (Asamoah, Yeboah-Assimah & Osei-Kojo, 2013).

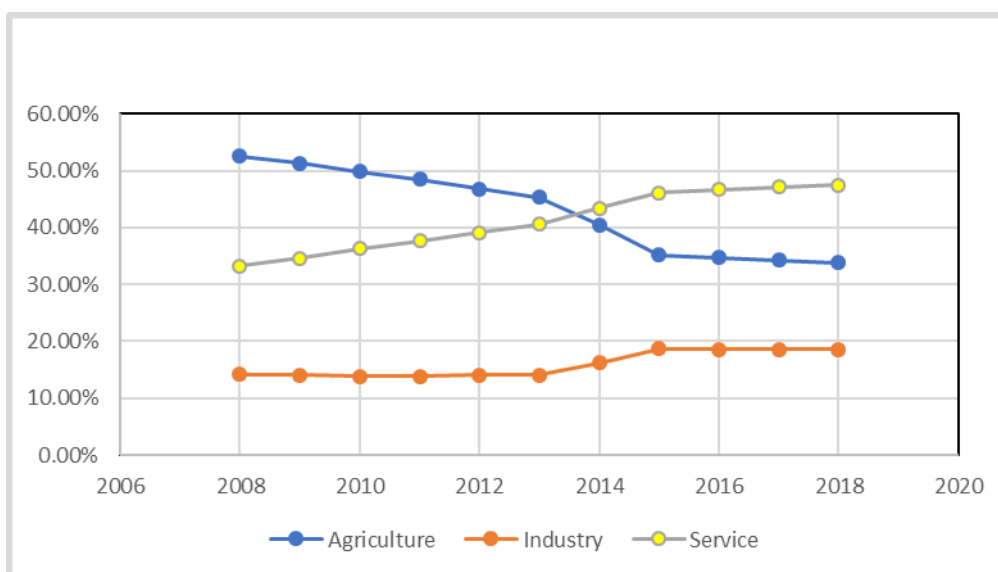
3.6 Labour Market Conditions in Ghana

The Ghanaian labour market undergone relevant changes in the past few decades. Baah-Boateng (2004) asserted that this was due to the withdrawal of government control in terms of supporting economic activities through economic liberalisation and emerging globalisation. In spite of the slow developments in Ghana's labour market, the informal sector continues to dominate, with most people self-employed and almost 50% of the workforce within the agricultural sector (Affum-Osei, Asante, Forkouh, Aboagye, & Antwi, 2019; Aryeetey, & Baah-Boateng, 2015; Baah-Boateng, 2009). Due to the dominance of the informal sector in the Ghanaian workforce, formal employment relationships between employees and employers are often absent (Ayentimi et al., 2018). According to Otoo, Osei-Boateng and Asafu-Adjaye (2009),

the informal economic dominance makes it challenging to support employees with legal and social protection within the labour market. Similarly, Darvas and Palmer (2014) and Affum-Osei et al. (2019) observed that the informal sector is home to about 82% of the low-skilled workforce (who have limited formal education) and the formal sector represents 18% of the workforce categorised as high-skilled. This situation has several HRM implications, including the demand and supply of skilled labour to the emerging industrialisation agenda. Considerable HRM literature about Ghana has found that the informal sector is characterised by underemployment, poor working conditions, undefined work relationships, and low wages, with most workers experiencing high income insecurity (Baah-Boateng, 2004; Osei-Boateng & Ampratwum, 2011; Otoo et al., 2009).

The Ghana Statistical Service (2015) generally categorises the sectors of employment into agricultural, industrial and service sectors. However, based on economic activities, it is further divided into the formal and informal sectors. The informal sector consists of economic activities that are not included in the official calculation of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), whereas the formal sector entails economic activities that are recorded and form part of the nation’s GDP calculation (Farrell et al., 2000).

Figure 3-3: Employment distribution by economic sector



Source: Plecher (2019)

Employment sectors in Ghana are grouped into subsectors (Baah-Boateng, 2015). **Table 3-3** shows the vacancies notified by the respective subsectors for employment between 2015 and 2016.

Table 3-3: Distribution of Vacancies Notified by Subsectors to the Labour Department

Subsector	Private Employer		Public Corporations		Central Government		Local Authorities	
	2015	2016	2015	2016	2015	2016	2015	2016
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	911	90	99	830	0	1	0	0
Mining and quarrying	38	332	0	0	0	0	0	0
Manufacturing	145	36	6	0	0	0	0	0
Electricity, gas and water	36	6	0	0	0	1	0	0
Construction	315	318	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wholesale and retail trade, Restaurants and hotels	324	126	4	0	0	0	0	0
Transport, storage and communication	22	25	0	6	0	0	0	0
Finance, insurance, real estate and business services	51	68	0	0	0	0	0	0
Community, social and personal services	1,052	239	6	1,194	0	19	4	0
Activities not adequately defined	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	2,894	1,242	115	2,030	0	21	4	0

Source: MELR (2016)

The contribution of private-sector employers to economic development in Ghana should not be underestimated (Agyei, Kumi & Yeboah, 2016; Osei-Boateng & Ampratwum, 2011). The dominance of small- and medium-scale enterprises (SMEs) in Ghana has been a key contributor to employment growth in Ghana. The private sector can be seen as the basis for growth in most developing countries in the sub-Saharan African region (Agypong, 2010). The thriving of SMEs is subject to political, socioeconomic and technological advancements. When given a viable environment for growth, they can reduce unemployment more than the growth of large-scale businesses (Safiriyu & Njogo, 2012; Snodgrass & Biggs, 1996).

3.7 Administration of Labour Remuneration and Benefits in Ghana

The daily minimum national wage is set by the National Tripartite Committee, which has representation from labour unions, government and employers. The national minimum wage is applicable to all employment sectors in Ghana except for the free trade zones, which enables workers to negotiate and develop employment contracts based on agreements with the International Labour Organisation. The daily minimum wage is usually published in the public media by the sector Minister. The minimum wage may also be established under a collective agreement if the rate is higher than the national daily minimum wage. Further, the Chief Labour Officer may order an extension of a collective agreement that is appropriate for a segment of employees and an area of work when there is evidence of suitable representation. A notice must be gazetted at least three months before the agreement is extended (Boateng & Ofori-Sarpong, 2002; Sanséau & Opoku, 2019). According to the *Labour Act 2003* (Act 651), remuneration refers to the salary or basic or minimum wage and any supplementary benefits that payable directly or indirectly by the employer to the employee. According to the act, the working hours and working conditions include 8 hours work per day and 40 hours work per week (Akorsu, & Cooke, 2011). Overtime is normally paid at 150% of the normal hourly rate. Under the act, an employee may not be given additional duties unless such firms or corporations require additional time

for economic viability. This also applies in cases of emergencies that require workers to work extra hours to save lives and property (emergency reason).

Data from the Ghana Living Standard Survey 6 (2014) estimated that taxes were not deducted from the earnings of 73.9% of workers. In addition, Otoo et al. (2009) estimated that over 70% of employed persons are either not entitled to social security or do not receive any pension upon retirement, and over 80% do not receive subsidies for medical care from their employers. Social security is mandatory in Ghana, but few employees benefit from pension contributions, especially in public-sector organisations. According to the Ghana Living Standard Survey (2006), 67.7% of workers in the real estate and financial sectors had access to social security, followed by the mining and utilities sectors. In the construction sector, 12.4% had access to social security, and 12.2% in the communication and transport sector; the trade and commerce sector recorded the lowest figure (11%) (Otoo et al., 2009). This has been attributed to the absence or low presence of trade unions in the construction, trade, transport and communication sectors (Osei-Boateng & Torgbe, 2012; Otoo et al., 2009), which highlights the importance of trade unions in advancing the welfare and well-being of workers in Ghana. Prior studies consistently affirm that non-union workers receive less remuneration than those in unionised workplaces (Baah-Boateng, 2004; Baah-Boateng, 2013; Osei-Boateng & Torgbe, 2012; Otoo et al., 2009).

Osei-Boateng and Ampratwum (2011) affirmed that the proportion of organised workers in the informal sector falls short of the total number in the sector. The Trade Union Congress (2012) highlighted that workers in the informal sectors are recognised as associates and do not have full affiliate status. The congress also noted that it is more difficult to organise the activities of workers in the informal sector than in the formal sector. It is seen as not financially viable to organise informal sector workers considering the cost involved and the expected returns in terms of accrued dues (Trade Union Congress, 2012). Although required by law to provide particular benefits to employees, employers flout this statutory requirement, especially those operating in the informal sector and in some formal sector organisations. For example, a finding from the Ghana Living Standard Survey 5 (2005/2006) suggests that only 31% of

Ghanaian workers have access to social security. The *Labour Act 2003* covers a variety of issues regarding the management of employment relationships. For instance, the act (Act, 651) gives employees the right to join or form a union and establishes legal regulations making it compulsory for employers to invest in training and retaining employees. Despite these regulations and standards, workplace training still receives little or no attention in most Ghanaian organisations (Osei-Boateng & Ampratwum, 2011). The administration of employee benefits programs for public-sector workers is centralised according to various institutions, with guidance from the National Tripartite Committee. The committee was established under the *Labour Act, 2003* (Act 651) to negotiate for wage increases. Some public-sector institutions have additional benefits based on their internal arrangements, particularly within the higher education sector. The variation in employment benefits among workers in public-sector institutions is attributed to the absence of centralised structures in the administration of employee benefits (Otoo et al., 2009).

3.8 General Public Sector Employment Conditions in Ghana

According to the International Labour Organization (2010), persons aged above 15 years and engaged in any activity to produce goods or services for profit are deemed to be in employment. Passaris (2011) noted that the opportunity to work is both a human rights issue and an economic condition; as such, the right to work is a basic requirement for social justice in any society. Those of working age in Ghana include all persons aged 15 years and older. More than half (67.9%) of the working age population are employed. Elder and Smith (2010) note that in most countries women are less likely to be employed than their counterparts. However, the proportion of females employed in the Ghanaian Civil Service (68,725) is higher than that males (56,092). Similarly, females dominate in the private informal sector (4.6 million cf. 3.8 million males). Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers constitute the largest occupational group: 2.9 million of the currently employed, including 2.5 million in rural areas (Ghana Statistical Service 2015 Labour Force Report, 2016).

However, more females (1.9 million) are engaged as service and sales workers than in any other occupation. In addition, service and sales is the main occupation for those in urban localities, engaging over 1.7 million. More than half of females (52.2%) in urban localities are engaged in service and sales work. Previously, female labour force participation was lower than that males. However, in Ghana today more women than men (4.9 million vs 4.2 million) are currently employed (Ghana Statistical Service 2015 Labour Force Report, 2016).

According to Agbozo et al. (2017), an attractive working environment is a major determinant for attaining job satisfaction among employees. These authors state work environment has many characteristics which can affect the well-being of workers and keep them working on their tasks effectively. A healthy environment is characterised by competitive wages, equity and fairness, and mutual relationships between employees and management. The authors classified work environment into three different but related forms: the psychological, social and physical work environments. They found that 62% of the participants ranked physical environment as very important for job satisfaction; thus the physical environment should be maintained or improved. Important factors included the ambiance, office layout and temperature of the working area. Passaris (2011) drew on Herzberg's two-factor theory to argue that hygiene factors and motivators are both relevant and the absence of one can lead to dissatisfaction in the workplace. Hygiene factors suffice in making workers satisfied while the motivators provide increased job satisfaction and the motivation to perform better. Because of the culture and societal norms in Ghana, most managers focus on bureaucratic practices and rules and regulations without providing any constructive criticism – akin to the popular military slogan of “do before you complain” (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011). This practice especially predominates in the civil and public sectors, which does not create a conducive environment for achieving organisational goals since it promotes lack of initiative in employees. Employees may also direct their efforts towards their personal needs rather than those of the organisation (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011). Managers in the public sector who adopt these bureaucratic practices are often interested in exercising absolute power over their subordinates than in achieving organisational goals.

As Kanungo (1990) stated, managers who exhibit a patronising attitude towards their employees and criticise them openly create both psychological and interpersonal relationship constraints with workers. They also adopt a legalistic, rigid and coercive style of management in their interactions with employees. In this case, employees working under such environments are less motivated to perform their duties. They also tend to feel reluctant and find it difficult to take personal initiatives. This management style has been prevalent in most public and informal sector organisations in Ghana (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011). Opperman (2002) divides the working environment into three sub-environments: the technical, human and organisational environments. The technical environment refers to tools, equipment, technological infrastructure and other physical or technical elements. The human environment entails the peers, that is, those whom employees work with and the whole team. It also includes the level of interaction and related issues, the leadership and the management. The organisational environment involves the systems, procedures, practices, values and philosophies of the firm in question. Stringent procedures and systems can hamper employee productivity while a friendly system builds confidence and productivity (Opperman, 2002).

The Fair Wages and Salaries Commission of Ghana is the sole body instituted by the Government of Ghana to regulate salaries (Government White Paper, 2009). The commission is mandated to ensure the implementation of the Single Spine Pay Policy. This policy's purpose is to ensure fairness, transparency and equity in public-sector employment. Consequently, for universities conditions of service such as salary levels and book and research allowances remain the same for work of equal value, regardless of the employing institution. Other allowances may vary among institutions if they depend on internally generated funds. To relieve the financial burden on staff, universities may provide accommodation to senior members (Atuahene, 2014). Most employers provide accommodation or pay for rental accommodation for academic staff similar to that provided by other public or civil services. Although the Ghana Universities Superannuation Scheme (GUSS) provides support pensions for academic

staff, technical universities do not benefit from a similar scheme and employees are still enrolled with the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT).

3.9 Union Movement and Industrial Relations in Ghana

Trade unionism in Ghana existed in the Gold Coast era before independence. Trade unionism contributed significantly to the development of Ghana's independence and influenced government policy and the establishment of employment regulations. Anyemedu (2000) narrates that several of the union leaders of the Trade Union Congress participated fully in the activities of the Conventional People's Party led by Dr Francis Kwame Nkrumah, which became the first political party to win elections in Ghana. The unions' participation in the political struggle contributed to the events that led to Ghana's independence in 1957 and later becoming a republic in 1960 (Anyemedu, 2000). The assumed bond between the Trade Union Congress and the party manifested when, on gaining independence, the government passed the *Industrial Relations Act 1958* (Act 58). This act was enacted to extend the legality of the Trade Union Congress. It also gave the Trade Union Congress the right to collectively bargain, which was not possible before independence (Anyemedu, 2000).

Trade unions have been influential in the negotiation of wages and general conditions of employment with employers, the facilitation of dispute resolutions, and collective bargaining in various industries (Kumi, 2013). Generally, trade unions in Ghana are established along industrial lines or professional practice. Although the fundamental expectation of a trade union is unity, Ghanaian unions are fragmented and characterised by smaller unions with lower memberships. The 1990s and the early 2000s saw many unions evolving as breakaways from larger trade unions (Gokel & Vormawor, 2004; Parku & Lamptey, 2018), mostly because the members disagreed with their leadership. For example, the formation of the Textiles, Garment and Leather Employee' Union in 1992 resulted from some members leaving the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU) due to a disagreement (Parku & Lamptey, 2018). Another major division occurred in 1996 when the National Association of Graduate

Teachers was formed from the Ghana National Association of Teachers (Parku & Lamptey, 2018). In 2003, the Union of Industry, Commerce and Finance was established by prominent employees of the financial sector who at the time were members of the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (Gockle & Vormawor, 2004).

Ghana's *Labour Act 2003* (Act 651), which succeeded the *Industrial Relations Act 1958*, provides a clear framework for the country's industrial relations system. The government, trade unions and employers are the key actors within the industrial relations framework. The government plays a dual role as an employer and a referee in the industrial relations system (Trade Union Council, 2012). The referee role of the government comprises its regulatory and policy formulation and the enforcement of rules to ensure industrial harmony. The practice of industrial relations includes but is not limited to collective bargaining (working conditions, wages and salaries), dispute prevention and resolution, and preventing unfair labour practices. Employers, employees (organised groups or trade unions) and the government (agencies and policies) are outlined in the *Labour Act 2003* (Act 651). The collective bargaining certificate is fundamental in giving trade unions the authority to agree on a collective agreement with employers. In relation to the act, a collective agreement should provide for settling any disputes that may arise between parties to the agreement. Setting the minimum wage and advice on general working conditions is the major function of the National Tripartite Committee, which also sets the basis for collective bargaining among employers and employees. Thus collective bargaining may be considered as politically inspired, with socioeconomic impact on the employer–employee workplace relationship (Baah & Reilly, 2009).

Under the *Labour Act 2003* (Act 651), parties to a dispute are authorised to settle such disputes through formal procedures. When labour disputes remain unresolved, employees likely resort to strikes, whereas employers may institute lockout (Nimoh, 2015). According to Baah and Reilly (2009), negotiation is the first option for settling disputes among parties, followed by mediation if the former is ineffective, with arbitration the final approach. The law then allows for 7 days of strike or lockout. The

most prominent Ghanaian strike, although illegal, was that of the University Teachers Association, which lasted nine months (Baah & Reilly, 2009). In its efforts to settle industrial disputes and maintain a good industrial relations system, the National Labour Commission also examines issues of unfair labour practices. Unfair labour practices manifest as discrimination in provision of employment and working conditions, interference of employers in employees' union activities, and intimidation of employers by workers, among others (Baah & Reilly (2009).

The subject of employee voice has generated debate in organisations because of its effect on performance (Dwomoh, 2012). Considering the importance of employees in determining productivity, management ignores workers' voice to its detriment. Dwomoh (2012) affirms an increasing shift from unions to privately in how employees voice their concerns. This implies that even if government or private employers do not encourage employees to air their voices or views, the workers will find a private way to do so. In spite of the benefits of encouraging employee voice in an organisation, unfortunately this does not occur in most public and private firms in Ghana (Baah & Reilly, 2009; Dwomoh, 2012). In some cases, employees risk losing their jobs for airing their voices or views in workplaces. Thus they remain silent even if their views might benefit the organisation.

In Ghana, employee voice and participation are less prominent in the private sector than in the public sector, especially within multinational corporations (Ayentimi, Burges & Brown, 2018). Ayentimi et al. (2018) compared the HR practices of local firms and multinational enterprises. They reported that culture plays a significant role in the convergence or divergence of HR practices among organisations. However, the public sector mostly tolerates employee voice better than the private sector (Dwomoh, 2012). In spite of the positive relationship between employee voice and organisation performance, this voice is rarely encouraged in the private sector. Nevertheless, private-sector employees perform better than their public-sector counterparts (Ayentimi, Burges & Brown, 2018). Initiatives and innovations from employees in the public sector are rare in comparison with those in the private sector where they are valued by superiors and management. Williams and Yecaló-Teclé (2019) affirm the

phenomenon of employees' voices in the public sector not heard or their ideas implemented in most cases. The employees withhold their ideas for fear of hostility from superiors. In the authors' view, despite the general stereotype of bureaucrats in developing countries, the officials often have useful ideas for improving performance. However, the resistance and hostility from supervisors to new ideas from subordinates silences their voice. This also affects the establishment of employee unions or workers joining unions, especially in private industry. Dorkenoo (2006) highlights the difficulty for workers in the informal sector to establish any form of trade union or to join one to voice their concerns to prospective or existing employers. Hence the informal sector is worst affected in terms of the existence of employee voice, followed closely by the private sector, whereas employee voice through trade unions is widespread in the public sector because it has existed since independence (Dorkenoo, 2006). Regarding conditions of employment, instances of delayed allowances, especially book and research allowances, predominate in universities. The failure of government to even occasionally improve employment conditions has resulted in the establishment of labour unions across various institutions. The two major unions within the higher education sector in Ghana are the University Teachers' Association of Ghana and the Technical Universities Teachers' Association of Ghana. These independent unions protect the interests of the members and, serving as the mouthpiece of academics, have been instrumental in negotiating for better conditions of service among their members. Industrial strike actions have become an effective approach to influence government to improve employment conditions (Banerjee, Tetteh-Dumanya & Apea, 2007).

3.10 Chapter Summary

The chapter outlines the study context with reference to the development of education, particularly higher education, labour market conditions, public-sector employment conditions, staff recruitment and selection, work environment, and organisational support systems in Ghana.

CHAPTER 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This study explores both the factors underlying turnover of academic staff within Ghanaian technical universities and how to develop appropriate retention strategies to minimise academic staff turnover. This chapter discusses the methodology followed and the procedures and techniques that were used in the data collection and analysis. The study uses the interpretivist paradigm, a qualitative approach that fundamentally seeks to provide detailed knowledge and understanding of issues in the social world through participants' explanation and interpretation of events, rather than by providing their perspectives through numerical values. Pursuant to the interpretivist approach, the qualitative case study serves as an ideal design to enable researchers to study complex situations within their context by using multiple sources of data. Four technical universities (Accra, Kumasi, Sunyani and Tamale) were chosen from the eight Ghanaian technical universities to serve as the study sites. This selection provides a balanced representation of north–south institutions in the country. The chapter serially discusses the research philosophy and paradigm; the research design and rationale; the historical background of technical universities; the selection of case study sites and participants; ethical considerations; issues of validity and reliability; documents, instruments and data collection; and data processing procedures.

4.2 Selection of Research Paradigm

The qualitative paradigm nested within the interpretivist research paradigm was employed to conduct this study. The methodological stance employed by researchers is largely influenced by the research rationale and theoretical perspectives, and by the epistemological stance adopted by the researcher. Knowledge and understanding of research philosophy guide researchers in recognising which designs will work well for a particular study (Gray, 2013; Yin, 2017). Thus the overall goal of a particular study

and the research paradigm adopted should be congruent. A research paradigm may fall within one of two broad approaches, quantitative approaches and qualitative approaches (McChesney & Aldridge, 2019; Ramlo, 2019). However, if the range of possible approaches is viewed as a continuum, between these extremes is the mixed-method approach, which blends the methods and epistemological stance of both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). While quantitative designs are mainly premised on the positivist philosophical orientation (Bryman, 2004; Harrison et al., 2017), qualitative researchers follow the epistemological belief that is connected to constructivism and interpretivism as its single theoretical perspective (Idowu 2017; Yin, 2017). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) posit qualitative research possesses five key attributes:

- i. minimising the use of positivist or post-positivist perspectives
- ii. accommodating postmodern sensibilities
- iii. grasping the individual participant's perspective
- iv. investigating the limitation of everyday life
- v. obtaining rich descriptions.

Yin (2011) and Harrison et al. (2017) contend that qualitative research characteristically:

- i. studies and interprets the contextual meaning of people's lives under their real-world conditions
- ii. emphasises the views and perspectives of the participants and focuses on the contextual conditions within which people live
- iii. constructs insights into existing or emerging concepts that may help to clarify human social behaviour
- iv. seeks meaning and understanding by using multiple sources of evidence rather than focusing on a single source.

A qualitative research approach usually emphasises meaning rather than measurement and quantification in data collection and analysis (Bryman, 2004). It facilitates the interpretation of relationships between factors (Ary et al., 2018; Idowu, 2017). A qualitative researcher may adopt three key theoretical approaches: inductivist,

constructivist and interpretivist. However, not all qualitative researchers subscribe to these three broad approaches. Some suggest that both quantitative and qualitative researchers attempt to meaningfully capture and interpret events in the real world based on the available data. Interpretivism as a philosophical tradition has greatly and meaningfully contributed towards the development of social science research (Idowu, 2017; Putnam & Banghart, 2017). This is supported by the assumption that real-world events must be interpreted through the perspectives of the participants being studied (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Idowu, 2017). This assumption presupposes that the interpretivist qualitative approach is more appropriate, meaningful and useful for studying and interpreting cases in the social world (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

In the domain of an interpretivist paradigm, it is assumed that reality is subjective and that human beings construct meaning based on their understanding and the social reality within their local context (Boeije, 2005; Warmelink et al., 2015). Moreover, the interpretivist philosophical orientation is premised on the idea that a particular phenomenon has multiple realities and meanings, depending on the researcher, and that these realities and meanings are co-created by the researcher and the participants. Researchers hold the view that qualitative interpretivist research is a source of rich, “well-grounded” description and explanation of events and processes that prevail in a particular local context (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011; Yin, 2015).

The interpretivist approach attaches importance to the investigator’s interpretations and understanding of the event being studied. The use of the interpretivist approach was essential in this study, since a quantitative approach would limit in-depth analysis of the studied phenomenon. Without recourse to an interpretivist approach, the researcher could not obtain a rich knowledge and understanding of the topic under consideration. Therefore, this study subscribed to the interpretivist paradigm as a philosophical approach, in order to meaningfully examine academic staff turnover in technical universities in Ghana. Other reasons for using the interpretivist paradigm are that it allows researchers to conduct in-depth studies relating to a broad topic and offers flexibility for selecting issues of interest. The choice of a qualitative research paradigm

was also influenced by the limited literature available on the basis of which to develop a hypothesis within the study context (Yin, 2017). Because qualitative research is concerned with the meaning of events or situations in the social world, this approach helped to shed more light on academic staff turnover towards theory building (Bryman, 2004; Bryman & Bell, 2015).

4.3 Methodology and Research Design

4.3.1 Case Study Design

Research design serves as a blueprint for data collection and analysis in research projects. It provides advance planning of the methods to be used so that research projects can be executed in an efficient and effective manner. Appropriate research design is necessary because it facilitates the efficient operation of research procedures in terms of collection and analysis of relevant data. Using suitable research design enhances the research and helps yield “maximal information with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money” (Kothari, 2004, p. 32). Researchers who choose a design without due consideration may implement futile projects (Kothari, 2004; Mayer, 2015). Case study research supports an inductive research paradigm, especially in research contexts characterised by limited theoretical and empirical literature (McLaren, 2010). Contextually, there is limited prior literature on turnover and retention, necessitating the interpretation of human meaning, which is a characteristic of the interpretivist research paradigm. On this grounds, the researcher investigated the social phenomenon of academic staff attrition and academics’ experiences within the context of technical universities towards developing appropriate retention strategies.

The study employed an exploratory qualitative case study design to examine academic staff turnover. Case studies are widely used in the field of HRM and support rigorous investigation of a particular single social unit as an integrated totality for study. Yin (2011) noted that case studies favour identification and explanation of the behavioural patterns of a given unit. This form of qualitative analysis allows for a relatively

exhaustive and intensive study of a particular phenomenon in order to obtain details about that phenomenon from which generalisations and inferences about the case data can be drawn. Case studies focus on depth rather than breadth (Jagdale, Hude & Chabukswar, 2018; Mayer, 2015). According to Yin (2011), participants' original perspectives as studied and reported by a researcher inevitably subsume the researcher's external views and perspectives of the same real-world event. The use of the case study method is underpinned by the following assumptions:

- i. Basic human nature is uniform, despite human behaviours that may vary according to situations.
- ii. The natural history of the unit concerned will be studied.
- iii. A comprehensive study of the unit concerned will be undertaken (Kothari, 2004, p. 114).

The field of HRM research is dominated by quantitative design, which suggests that the HR field has reached its peak of theory testing (Batt & Hermans, 2012). Nonetheless, the varying nature of HRM and labour-market conditions has made deductive–quantitative design in HRM research too optimistic. The research within contemporary HRM and labour-market settings needs to employ more inductive–qualitative research design to help discover new insights in HRM perspectives and theory development (McAbee, Landis & Burke, 2017; Spector & Pindek, 2016). This new methodological attention may help to broaden understanding of the application of contemporary HRM within the context of less-developed countries.

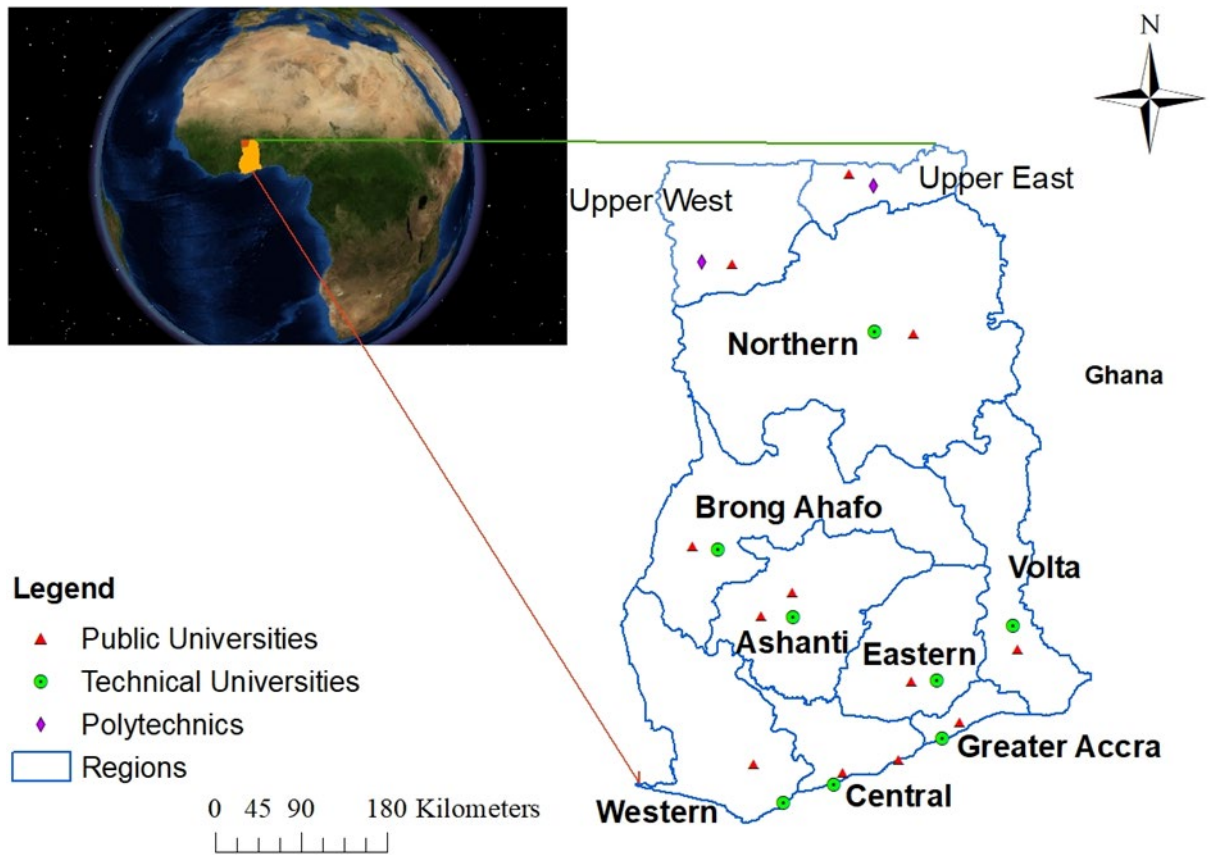
Merriam and Tisdell (2015) argue that a case study is a complete analysis and description of a defined frame of reference. For this study, each technical university represents an important unit of analysis. An exploratory qualitative research study design can produce a holistic understanding of rich, contextual, nonnumeric data that is generally unstructured by engaging in an interaction with participants in a natural environment (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Mason, 2017). Myers (2019) argues that the key feature of case studies is their focus on the “why” and “how” questions. Additionally, a case study research strategy supports theory building (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Dubey, Gunasekaran & Deshpande, 2017). Yin (2017) suggests that

a case study's methods support theory building in areas where existing concepts and theories are insufficient. Thus qualitative research and case study design can be conducted within the interpretivist research paradigm. This qualitative case study design was employed to create space in which to deeply investigate and holistically interpret participants' views from multiple perspectives towards minimising academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities.

4.3.2 Criteria for Case Study Selection

Ghana has eight technical universities located across the country. Of these, four technical universities were selected to serve as the social unit for the case study analysis: Accra Technical University (ATU), Kumasi Technical University (KsTU), Sunyani Technical University (STU), and Tamale Technical University (TaTU). Among the selected sample of technical universities, TaTU has the least number of academic staff (144), followed by STU (167), KsTU (213) and ATU (224). Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1 present the location and staffing of all eight technical universities in Ghana.

Figure 4-1: Map of Ghana



Source: Author's construct (2019)

Table 4-1: Characteristics of Technical Universities in Ghana

Name of Institution	Location	Year Established	Academic Staff	Management Staff	Total
KsTU	Ashanti Region	1963	213	103	316
ATU	Greater Accra Region	1963	224	134	358
HTU	Volta Region	1986	154	48	202
TTU	Western Region	1992	207	97	304
CcTU	Central Region	1992	231	102	333
TaTU	Northern Region	1992	144	43	187
STU	Brong-Ahafo Region	1997	167	56	223
KTU	Eastern Region	1997	212	106	318
Total			1552	689	2241

Source: Technical University Planning Units (2016)

KsTU = Kumasi Technical University; ATU = Accra Technical University; HTU = Ho Technical University; TTU = Takoradi Technical University; CcTU = Cape Coast Technical University; TaTU = Tamale Technical University; STU = Sunyani Technical University; KTU = Koforidua Technical University.

In qualitative research, cases are usually chosen for investigation not because they are extreme but because they provide a context suitable for answering the research questions. The selection of cases depends on the researcher's assumption of the appropriateness of these cases (Bryman, 2004; Idowu, 2017). The justification for selecting four cases to represent the northern and southern sectors was to ensure a balance in establishment date and geographical representation. For example, ATU and KsTU were established in the 1960s while TaTU and STU were established in the 1990s. The selection of the cases was also influenced by the development divide (i.e. uneven development) between the north and south of the country. Technical universities located in the southern part of the country are perceived as more resourced than those located in the northern part of the country. This uneven development paradigm may trigger different drivers of academic staff turnover and may require different retention strategies. Although qualitative studies are not geared towards generalisations as is quantitative research, the selection of cases to represent the north–south divide and establishment phases was to allow and safeguard the rigorousness and generalisability of the findings (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.4 Historical Background of Cases (Technical Universities)

This section presents the historical background of the four technical universities that constituted the case study units. These institutions were polytechnics before their conversion to technical universities.

4.4.1 Accra Technical University (ATU)

ATU is located in Accra and first served as a technical school, becoming known as Accra Technical Institute in 1957. It became a premier polytechnic as Ghana's first polytechnic. Accra serves as both the regional capital of Greater Accra and the national capital of Ghana. Alongside the craft courses, the polytechnics offer technician courses and ordinary diploma and sub-professional courses. Following the enactment of the Polytechnic Law, 1992 (PNDC Law 321), ATU's polytechnic status was elevated to a tertiary institution in 1992. Tertiary institutions are mandated to train middle-level

manpower in higher national diploma programs. The *Polytechnics Act 2007* (Act 745) replaced the old PNDC Law 321. The former polytechnic was elevated to a technical university in 2016. The act also gave the institution accreditation to offer undergraduate and postgraduate programs similar to traditional universities.

4.4.2 Kumasi Technical University (KsTU)

KsTU, which is located in Kumasi in the Ashanti Region of Ghana, started as the Kumasi Polytechnic in 1954. Initially, it was known as Kumasi Technical Institute but was later commissioned as a non-tertiary polytechnic under the Ghana Education Service in 1963. Following the enactment of the PNDC Law 321 in 1992, the polytechnic status was elevated to a tertiary institution in 1992 and mandated to offer both higher national diploma and degree programs. The *Polytechnics Act 2007* gave the polytechnic mandate to award certificates in higher national diplomas and diplomas. With the *Technical University Act 2016* (Act 922), Kumasi Polytechnic was elevated to a technical university, known as Kumasi Technical University, with the overarching intention of promoting higher education in applied arts, engineering, and science and technology-based disciplines, among others. This Act gives recognition to KsTU to award degrees with approval from the National Accreditation Board.

4.4.3 Sunyani Technical University (STU)

STU is a formal public tertiary institution and is located in Sunyani, the capital of the Brong-Ahafo Region of Ghana. Its establishment dates back to 1967 as Sunyani Technical Institute, a non-tertiary institution under the Ghana Education Service. Following the promulgation of the PNDC Law 321 in 1992, the institution's status was raised to Sunyani Polytechnic in 1997. With the replacement of the PNDC Law 321 with the *Polytechnic Act 2007* (Act 745), Sunyani Polytechnic, like other polytechnics in Ghana, was mandated to award certificates in higher national diplomas, diplomas and other awards accredited by National Accreditation Board, and degrees subject to the approval of the Polytechnic Council. In 2017, Sunyani Polytechnic was elevated to Sunyani Technical University with the core mandate to provide technical and vocational courses in entrepreneurship and training to meet Ghana's manpower needs. The institution offers undergraduate and postgraduate programs. STU was mandated

to augment the efforts of the other seven technical universities in meeting the middle-level manpower needs of the country.

4.4.4 Tamale Technical University (TaTU)

TaTU is regarded as the premier polytechnic in the Northern Region of Ghana because of its location and training of middle-level technical and managerial personnel to support the development of the northern part of Ghana. It is located in Tamale, the capital of the Northern Region of Ghana. TaTU started as a Technical Training Centre in 1951 and later became the Government Training School in 1954. In 1960, it was transformed into a Junior Technical Institute. Since it became a Technical Training Centre, its catchment area comprises mainly the three northern regions. With the 1987 Educational Reform Program and PNDC Law 321 in 1992, the institute was elevated to a polytechnic in 1992. Tamale Polytechnic became a tertiary institute alongside Accra, Cape Coast Kumasi, Ho and Takoradi polytechnics. Currently, the institute provides training to students to the higher national diploma and degree levels. Tamale Polytechnic gained the status of a technical university in 2017.

Of note, among all the technical universities in Ghana, the elevation of Tamale polytechnic to technical university is without legal backing.

4.5 Selection of Participants

Case study design places great emphasis on the complete analysis of a restricted number of cases, conditions or events and their interactions (Kothari, 2004; Yin, 2017). In light of this, non-probability sampling methods were employed to select the cases for this study. The target population comprised academic staff, ex-academic staff, union members, and heads of HR who, by virtue of their positions, have a role in administering HR functions. The rationale for selecting specific units to serve as the participants for research is to obtain sampling units that help generate the most pertinent and rich data based on the topic under investigation. Following a recommendation by Yin (2017), the purposive sampling technique was employed to

select the four technical universities. The purposive sampling technique was also used to select two heads of HR. In total, 45 face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The exclusive attribute of qualitative research is the use of purposive sampling, in which a researcher handpicks the cases as “sample[s] on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 114–115). The heads of HR were purposively selected because they had in-depth knowledge and information about the phenomenon under investigation. Moreover, the snowball method was used to select seven academic staff, two ex-academic staff, and two union members. Snowball is a form of convenience sampling in which a researcher makes initial contacts with a small number of individual participants who are typical and relevant to a research topic and then uses them to contact other potential participants (Bryman, 2004; Yin, 2011). The researcher contacted academic staff who served as key informants and requested their help in contacting other staff to participate in the study. This sampling technique is preferred when a researcher is dealing with sensitive issues as well as an unknown population of possible participants.

4.6 Data Collection Procedure and Instruments

4.6.1 Gaining Access to Research Sites

The process of collecting data for qualitative studies mostly involves interacting with people and situations in the real world as the research setting. Researchers, therefore, need to gain access to participants and documentary records (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Researchers need to demonstrate their investigative skills and maintain some familiarity to gain entry (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Yin, 2011). Gaining access to the research sites required approval from the vice-chancellors or registrars as heads of the technical universities. The researcher followed a set of steps to gain access to the four technical universities. The first step involved was to officially contact the institutions where the research was to be undertaken. This paved the way for the researcher to obtain the necessary official permission to conduct the study at the various technical universities. This was done by sending introductory letters, which

explained the purpose and addressed issues of anonymity and confidentiality. The selected institutions replied by indicating their acceptance and readiness for the researcher to carry out the study. Second, phone calls and email messages were used to inform the selected institutions about the dates for conducting the face-to-face, semi-structured interviews and obtaining the necessary documents from the institutions. Upon arrival at the various technical universities, the researcher visited the central administration to personally introduce himself to the institution. This helped the researcher gain the support of the vice-chancellor and HR managers and provided access to the academic staff. The HR manager informed the various heads of departments (HoDs) about the nature and purpose of the research. With support of the HoDs, academic staff were invited to be interviewed. As previously stated, the academic staff, union members and the HR managers were purposively selected to participate in the research and the snowballing method used to select ex-academic staff. Data was collected through the face-to-face, semi-structured interviews from multiple sources: heads of HR departments, newly recruited staff, long-serving academic staff who were on renewable contract employment every six years, ex-academic staff, and union members.

4.6.2 Semi-structured Interviews

The use of the semi-structured interview is premised on the concept that knowledge should be constructed between participants in a study. Interviews comprise a form of discussion and interaction between a participant and an interviewer that enables the participant to interpret and express their perspectives regarding situations in the social world (Yin, 2011). Through this process, the researcher attempts to understand the world of the interviewee by asking a similar set of questions in identical demeanour to the various participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The use of semi-structured interviews offers a number of practical advantages over other methods of data collection. Their major advantages are adaptability for obtaining supplementary information (follow-up and probe responses) and flexibility, enabling multisensory channels to be used (verbal and non-verbal). Moreover, semi-structured interviews can yield rich and detailed information, provide space for spontaneity, and the interviewer

can press not only for complete answers but also for responses about complex issues (Bell, 2014; Kothari, 2004).

Four sets of semi-structured interview guides were used to obtain data from HR managers, trade union executives, current academic staff and ex-academic staff. Each set of interview guides consisted of semi-structured interview questions (see APPENDIX III). The semi-structured items were mainly used to elicit participants' background information while the unstructured interview items were used to collect the important information that was needed to address the various research questions of the study. The in-depth, face-to-face interviews allowed the researcher to probe and gain detailed insight into the participants' experiences, opinions and views about academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. Before administering the actual interviews, the selected participants were made aware of the venue, date and time schedules for the interviews. Besides the date and time of the interview, the participants were informed of the nature of the interview questions and the process to be followed and were asked for their consent. During each interview session, participants were again given an introduction to the study and a copy of the information sheet. At each institution, the interviews were conducted with one head of the HR department, seven newly appointed or long-serving academic staff, two ex-academic staff and one union member. Because the union members of the technical universities did not want to give conflicting perspectives on issues around academic staff turnover, they authorised one union member to speak on behalf of all union members from each technical university. In one instance, two union members were interviewed, one national executive and one member selected to represent the local union. Each technical university has one HR manager who provides administrative support to the registrar; these four HR managers from the four technical universities were interviewed. In total, 45 face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 45 participants. All interviews were conducted in English and all interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Table 4-2: Technical Universities and Number of Participants Interviewed

Name of Technical University	Academic staff	Ex-academic staff	Union member	Heads of HR	Total
ATU	7	2	1	1	11
KsTU	7	2	1	1	11
STU	7	2	1	1	11
TaTU	7	2	2	1	12
Total Interviews	28	8	5	4	45

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

ATU = Accra Technical University; KsTU = Kumasi Technical University;

STU = Sunyani Technical University; TaTU = Tamale Technical University

4.6.3 Document Analysis

The case study made use of documents in the form of written materials. Documents are useful means for producing a clearer picture of phenomena under investigation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Most documents in the public realm may or are usually written by qualified professionals. Moreover, documents may hold more valuable information and insights about a phenomenon (Prior, 2003) According to Yin (2011, p. 159), besides conducting observations and interviews, “a third common source of field notes comes from written materials”. Documents used in this case study comprised secondary sources of evidence. The documents provided the means for re-analysis and interpretation of primary documents. The documents selected included strategic plans, technical university planning units, and organograms of the technical universities. These are public documents not personal documents. Permission was sought to collect these relevant documents from the institutions. The institutions were assured that the documents would be used purely for the case study, although they were not created for research purposes.

The selection criteria for these documents were based on Scott's (1990) suggested four criteria:

- i. authenticity: the documentary evidence is genuine and not of a questionable source
- ii. credibility: the evidence is free of errors and distortions
- iii. meaning: the evidence is clear and comprehensible
- iv. representativeness: the evidence is typical of its kind.

Documents collected from the four technical universities, such as HR metrics, institutional profiles, reports, internal records and newsletters were thoroughly read and employed as secondary research evidence (Table 4-3).

Table 4-3: Documents Collected from Technical Universities

Technical University	Documents collected
ATU	University website, newsletters, reports from appointments and promotions meeting (academic), policy document on staff development, list of academic staff on scholarship and study leave with pay (Accra Technical University Planning Policy, 2018).
KsTU	University website, newsletters, memos on appointments and promotions boarding meeting for senior lecturers, policy document on staff development, memo on scholarship and staff development, list of academic staff on further studies, list of academic staff on scholarship and study leave with pay (Kumasi Technical University Planning Policy, 2018).
STU	University website, newsletters, Memorandum of Understanding between PoliMI under the Ministry of Education, University and Research in Italy and Sunyani Technical University on collaborative activities, Memorandum of Understanding between the University of East London and Sunyani Technical University to establish a collaborative arrangement for the delivery of approved programs, list of academic staff on training at KNUST School of Business, memo on workshops organised for vice-chancellor, pro-vice-chancellor, deans and senior members (Sunyani Technical University Planning Policy, 2018).
TaTU	University website, newsletters, policy document on staff development (Tamale Technical University Planning Policy, 2018).
TUTAG	Conditions of service for senior staff and senior members of the teachers association, appointment and promotions criteria for senior members – academic (Technical Universities Teachers Association of Ghana, 2018).

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

ATU = Accra Technical University; KsTU = Kumasi Technical University;
STU = Sunyani Technical University; TaTU = Tamale Technical University;
TUTAG = Technical Universities Teachers Association of Ghana.

The documents provided information on the profile, strategic plans, core mandates, priority areas and concerns, human resource capacity and the core values of the technical universities. This relevant information could not be obtained through face-to-face interviews; hence, the documents were used to augment the field data that was collected through the face-to-face interviews.

4.6.4 Time Horizon

Case-study researchers mostly conduct an intensive examination of a single case, but others may conduct longitudinal studies over extended periods. In longitudinal study design, data is collected about changes within the same population, changes in a cohort group or subpopulation, or changes in a panel group of the same individuals over time (Creswell 2012, p. 379). Due to time and cost constraints associated with longitudinal research design, this case study was an intensive analysis that sought to examine academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. This qualitative case study was therefore situated within a cross-sectional design. It used a snapshot study design, that is, the investigator collected data at one particular point in time.

4.7 Issues of Validity and Reliability

Qualitative researchers prefer using semi-structured interviews to other methods of data collection because interviews promote standardisation in asking questions and recording responses, which in turn reduces errors due to interviewer variability (Bryman, 2004; Voltolini & Eising, 2017). Although researchers cannot be completely objective in qualitative research, the discussion of validity and reliability should be paradigm bound. The principle of fidelity as used by Blumenfeld and Jones (1995) demands the researcher is authentic when self-reporting whatever is being researched. Murphy (2017) argued that the exhaustive personal involvement of the researcher and the in-depth responses of individual participants is sufficient for securing validity and reliability in qualitative data collection. Some steps were taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the method employed were consistent and to address both validity and reliability concerns. For example, content validity was achieved by developing the

items in the semi-structured interview guides to cover the key domains of the study. To ensure the reliability of the data-collection method, the developed instruments were scrutinised by the principal supervisors and other colleagues to ensure that the wording of questions was clear.

Validity in this qualitative research was ensured by the interview schedules and the questions therein were measuring what they intended to measure. The researcher's supervisors and other colleague researchers were also requested to examine the fit between the purpose of the study and the interview questions. The researcher ensured both descriptive validity and interpretive validity were achieved by maintaining a truthful stance in the interpretation and providing a factual account of the research report. The interview questions developed were based on the specific objectives of the study to ensure theoretical validity, which deals with the extent to which the research explains the phenomenon under investigation (Coats et al., 2018; Maxwell, 1992). In qualitative research, reliability can be considered as the fit between the data that is recorded by the researcher and what actually and naturally prevails (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Yasuda, 2017). Reliability deals with the credibility and dependability of the findings obtained. Developing a highly structured interview guide with the same questions and word format for each participant is one way of controlling reliability in qualitative studies (Silverman, 2015). In this regard, the four sets of interview schedules were structured and the questions, word format and sequence were the same within each category of respondents. In addition, the interview schedules were designed in a manner such that, if repeated on different occasions by the same or different researchers, participants would provide similar responses (Bell, 2014). In analysing and interpreting the data, the researcher constantly kept to the interview transcripts and the research questions that guided the study in order to provide credible findings and draw valid conclusions based on the findings.

4.8 Data Analysis

The data collection and analysis were carried out simultaneously as new information emerged. Data analysis is the process of simplifying data to make it comprehensible (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). It involves reducing accumulated data to a manageable size, developing summaries and looking for patterns using thematic analysis techniques (Saunders et al., 2009). The analysis of qualitative data involves making meaning out of how participants define events and situations, taking note of categories, patterns, themes, and regularities in the dataset, as well as organising and explaining the data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). According to Silverman (2015), qualitative data analysis does not follow a straight path and no clear-cut rules have been developed for the analysis of qualitative data. Thus, qualitative data lacks a single correct fashion of analysis and presentation. The data should be analysed and presented in a manner that corresponds to the purpose of the study. Although there are no “agreed-on canons” or shared ground rules for analysing qualitative data (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2017), there are some procedural guidelines and suggestions for conducting qualitative data analysis to maintain the reliability of the findings. The process of data analysis is considered as “iterative nuisance” owing to the forward and backward stages in the process (Bryman, 2004). Yin (2011) advocated that during qualitative data analysis researchers apply rigour by following three precautions: “(i) checking and rechecking the accuracy of your data; (ii) making your analysis as thorough and complete as possible rather than cutting corners; and (iii) continually acknowledging the unwanted biases imposed by your own values” (p.177). Qualitative interviews usually generate a huge corpus of rich data that is difficult to analyse. In this study, the data analysis was conducted in a manner that corresponds with the purpose of the study and the coding was carried out in phases.

4.8.1 Phase One

The first step in the data analysis involved the transcription of audio data into text. The documentary records were digitalised and converted into a textual Microsoft Word™ document format, coded and managed together with the interview data using Nvivo™ software. Creswell (2012) defines data transcription as the process of converting audiotape recordings into a textual Microsoft Word document and subsequently into

Rich Text format files. Transcripts were prepared immediately after each interview was completed. The interview tapes were transcribed into the textual format using the verbatim statements of interviewees. The transcription was done without recourse to the researcher's meaning and interpretations of the views of the interviewees. After each transcription, the researcher played the audio recordings several times to grasp a complete sense of the participants' perspectives, as recommended (Holmes, 2017). The data was imported into Nvivo computer software, which is a standard software designed to help researchers in retrieving, describing and developing rich data in dynamic documents, and supporting a code-based inquiry. The software also assisted the researcher in searching and theorising as well as annotating and editing data documents.

4.8.2 Phase Two

Coding was the next step of the qualitative data analysis. Coding is a stage in the process of qualitative data analysis that corresponds with indexing (Bryman, 2004; Mason, 2017). It is the process of "making sense out of what people have said, looking for patterns, putting together what is said in one place with what is said in another place and integrating what different people have said" (Patton, 1990, p. 347). The transcripts were reviewed and coded. Coding involves segmenting and labelling text to build categories and broad themes. This stage involves breaking down or disassembling the compiled dataset into smaller fragments or pieces. The procedure involves assigning new labels, or "codes", to the fragments or pieces (Creswell, 2012; Yin, 2011). The coding was done by writing marginal notes and sometimes placing labels on the interview transcripts to indicate portions of the data that could be categorised and "thematized". In essence, coding is the process of categorising and sorting data into themes (Bruner, 2017; Gibbs, 2018). The codes assisted in summarising, synthesising and sorting the numerous observations teased from the data. Coding is generally used in qualitative data analysis as the next step after transcription for fitting data and concepts together for thick descriptions. During the coding process, a large volume of textual interview transcripts was reduced to capture only critical information. Coding helped to generate clusters of meaning, which provided the means for determining general themes from the textual data. The coding

was carried out systematically without “forcing the data into ready-made categories”, as suggested by Bowen (2009, p. 411).

4.8.2.1 Procedure for Coding

Coding in qualitative research is characterised by constant comparison, revision and fluidity; data are treated as potential indicators of concepts, and these concepts may form the main themes and subsequent minor themes. Coding was done as soon as possible after transcription to sharpen the researcher’s knowledge and understanding of the data and theoretical sampling. Coding also involved turning the data into fragments by writing marginal notes and reviewing and refining the notes into codes (Bryman, 2004). Three types of coding have been distinguished in the literature: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Gibbs, 2018). Open coding is a “process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising” (Straus & Corbin, 1990, p. 61). As part of the coding process, labels were assigned to responses that have the same meaning in order to yield concepts, which were later grouped into categories. Core categories were formed to serve as central issues, around which other minor themes revolved. In axial coding, data is converted into new forms after the open coding in order to make connections between concepts and to relate codes to contexts. Selective coding involves selecting major categories and further refining and developing them (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

The task of the researcher in qualitative data analysis is to produce findings that answer the research questions of the study. The processes of constant comparison and theoretical saturation were followed throughout the analysis procedures. Constant comparisons were made to achieve complete analysis and ensure that important pieces of information were not missed. Constant comparison refers to continuously checking and refining the data, which helps to strengthen the level of accuracy in coding and category generation (Gibbs, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). It involves the concurrent process of generating and connecting categories by comparing incidents to incidents, incidents to themes, and themes to themes (Corbin & Strauss, 2014), and maintaining a close link between data and concept formation. Constant comparison also helps to ensure that any correspondence between concepts and categories is not

missed. It involves reviewing codes and concepts, and checking whether more than one code is used to represent the same phenomenon. Where there is overlap, the researcher should remove the redundant codes (Bryman, 2004). In this study, the concepts and categories were closely examined, re-examined, compared and grouped for convergence and divergence. Theoretical saturation implies continuous coding of data until a point is reached when there is no need for further coding and reviewing of the data for new concepts and categories. To achieve saturation, the data were coded and re-coded continuously into concepts, categories and, finally, higher categories until a point at which new information, concepts and categories no longer emerged from the data (Bryman, 2004). The initial number of themes obtained was 326, which were subsequently merged into 18 themes and 67 subthemes.

The process of the data analysis was also influenced by theoretical sensitivity. This term refers to the researcher's capability to differentiate between what is essential and what is not pertinent. It also refers to the personal ability of the researcher to familiarise themselves with the data and make sense of it, their knowledge of the relevant literature, and their experience with issues that relate to the topic under investigation (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Whitley, 2004). In this study, the researcher was able to observe, understand and gain insight into the data in the context of the phenomenon being studied.

In addition, memos were used to aid the process of generating concepts and categories. These memos were written notes concerning coding and concepts. Memos serve as reminders of the meaning of terms used and also as building blocks for reflection. They further helped in crystallising ideas and prevented the researcher from losing track of the various themes.

4.8.3 Phase Three

The final step in the process of the data analysis involved the comparison of codes, concepts and categories with the extant literature and the theoretical framework. Such comparisons help to identify relevant concepts and avoid the tendency of forcing data into preconceived concepts and categories during the data analysis stage. Bryman

(2004) recommends that researchers consider more theoretical knowledge and ideas that relate to the data and codes. Throughout the coding process, prior literature on turnover and retention served as a guide for the selection and development of concepts and categories. Common responses and related phrases that expressed similar meaning were assigned to the same factor. Additionally, the theoretical framework was followed as an organising framework for analysing the data.

By critically examining the data, various cases of convergence emerged in the main response categories among the participants from the four cases. The analysis yielded no or little divergence of the four cases because the selected technical universities are public institutions set up by the Government of Ghana with the same core mandate to train technical personnel to meet the manpower needs of the country. Hence, the underlying issues around turnover and retention of academic staff are more likely to demonstrate convergence than divergence. For Research Question One, which concerned the factors that contribute to academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities, the main themes and subthemes that emerged from the data analysis process were categorised into three primary dimensions (categories).

In the early part of the data analysis, a myriad of informant terms, codes and categories emerged and were labelled as first order concepts. As the research progressed, similarities and differences among the many categories emerged. This process eventually reduces the relevant categories to a more manageable number, similar to Strauss and Corbin's (1998) axial coding notion. These categories were labelled second-order themes (subthemes). In the second-order stage, labels or sentence descriptors are issued for these groups, with a focus on emerging concepts that do not seem to have adequate theoretical references in the existing literature. The second-order themes were distilled into third order themes, which were then aggregated into categories. The categories in accordance with Research Question One were:

- i. personal factors
- ii. organisation-wide factors
- iii. external factors.

The process of the data analysis also yielded first order concepts and second-order themes that were aggregated into work-related, economic, and health and well-being factors in accordance with Research Question Two, which concerned current organisational inducement strategies used to support the retention of academic staff.

4.8.4 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis is the most common technique used in qualitative data analysis and forms a core element of the analysis. This approach involves undertaking a search for themes in the interview transcripts or field notes (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2012). The frequency of occurrence of certain words or phrases serves as a common metric for generating themes. The researcher examined the various codes that depicted central patterns and these themes were presented for further expansive qualitative interpretation. Thus, the themes provided the basis for organising, presenting and interpreting the remaining data in the study. Thematic analysis is an alternative approach to analysing qualitative data that allows for subsuming minor themes into broad themes, as well as interconnecting various themes with others for proper description and explanation. The first step in this approach involved noting themes that were common to all or most of the interviews conducted (Creswell, 2012). In the next step, the researcher noted whenever themes occurred only in a single interview or in a minority of the interviews in the four case study sites. Similar themes are usually fused together into a main concept. Using this procedure may account for the prominence given to some themes over others (Bryman, 2004). This approach was widely used in both the within-case and cross-case analyses.

4.8.5 Within-case and Cross-case Analyses

The interpretation of qualitative data in multiple case-studies supports within-case and cross-case analyses. First, each case in the research was treated as a single case. The data in every bounded case was carefully examined and organised into a comprehensive description that is a unique and holistic entity. Second, after giving a complete account of each individual case, a cross-case comparison was performed (Chmiliar, 2010; Khan & VanWynsberghe, 2008). Within-case and cross-case analysis techniques were applied to both facilitate the explanation of the individual cases of

each technical university and develop a comparison of commonalities and differences in academic staff turnover and retention strategies. The use of this two-stage analysis provided an in-depth description and understanding of academic staff turnover. Within-case and cross-case analyses were also employed to strengthen the content validity and reliability of the findings (Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2010).

The within-case analysis consisted of organising, comparing, presenting and interpreting the themes and patterns that related to the individual technical universities. In contrast, the cross-case analysis involved organising, presenting and interpreting the findings across the four technical universities for the purpose of comparison. The within-case analysis involved continuously coding, categorising and comparing the data within all the interview transcripts from a particular university. Comparing individual cases constitutes the second level of analysis that allows noting themes, shared responses and pattern of responses, as well as agreement and disagreement. The purpose is to compare the individual cases and issues raised and summarise the data (Cohen et al., 2011).

The cross-case analysis mainly seeks to identify both similarities and differences within the themes and subthemes across all cases (Ayentimi et al., 2017; Kyngäs, 2020). During the cross-case analysis phase, the researcher made comparisons between transcripts from participants from the four universities to find differences in the data. The cross-case analysis also adopted continuous open coding and asking questions that related to the data from different technical universities. Comparing cases within and across transcripts helped reduce and narrow the data for the discovery and emergence of new concepts and categories. Both techniques enhanced the generation and modification of concepts and categories where necessary. Moreover, categories with similar issues and meaning were subsumed to help the analysis and interpretation of the data. These themes represent a thick description of the participants' responses. According to Denzin (1989, p. 83), the thick description "does more than record what a person is doing. It goes beyond mere facts and surface appearances. It presents detail, context, emotion, and the webs of social relationships that join persons to one another."

4.9 Ethical Issues

Ethical issues may stem from the kind of information being sought, the research design, and the methods of data collection. Researchers, therefore, must ensure that all ethical standards are met. In this study, the researcher ensured high ethical standards were met, including respect for participants' norms, values, and corporate social responsibilities; anonymity; and confidentiality. Moreover, the researcher followed all due processes in gaining access to and acceptance by the technical universities. These essential and obligatory standards were maintained throughout the research process. The research was conducted in accordance with the guidelines and procedures of the Curtin University Human Ethics Committee. As such, ethics approval was sought from the Ethics Committee using Form C and an ethical clearance certificate issued. The researcher sought the informed consent of the participants because it is unethical to involve people in research without their knowledge or consent (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013). The participants were given full information about the case study and had the right to either participate or withdraw voluntarily from the process of the case study. The participants were also assured of non-maleficence, beneficence and human dignity. The researcher guaranteed and maintained the participants' anonymity, confidentiality and privacy. All researchers must adhere to this set of ethical standards in the process of research (Daley, Martin & Roessger, 2018).

4.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a brief introduction to the study, which was followed by a discussion of the research paradigm and methodology. It presented the case that knowledge and understanding of research philosophy guide researchers in recognising a specific research design to use. The chapter also advanced the appropriateness of using a qualitative paradigm nested within the interpretivist research paradigm. Qualitative research involves studying and interpreting the contextual meaning of people's lives under their real-world conditions, emphasising the views and perspectives of the participants, and constructing insights to clarify human behaviour. The chapter further highlighted the research design used and justified the selection of

this design. The four individual cases selected for study comprise Accra Technical University, Kumasi Technical University, Sunyani Technical University and Tamale Technical University. These technical universities were selected to represent the northern and southern parts of Ghana. The researcher followed various processes to gain access to the four universities to collect relevant data for this study. Relevant documents and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the participants. The chapter also discussed issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research and described the procedures followed in analysing the qualitative data. Further, the chapter outlined (and justified) the steps in the process of data analysis: data transcription, coding and thematic analysis, as well as within-case and cross-case analytical techniques. The study employed theoretical saturation to generate concepts and categories that relate to academic staff turnover and retention in Ghanaian technical universities. Finally, issues related to ethical considerations and ethics clearance were discussed.

CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Organisations strive to achieve their goals by minimising turnover intentions and increasing retention of experienced and talented employees. Organisations need to create a positive work environment and demonstrate a commitment to reducing employee turnover (Bouckenooghe, Raja, Butt, Abbas, & Bilgrami, 2017). The failure of management to satisfy the motivational needs of workers may lead to turnover intentions. Research has shown that both monetary and nonmonetary factors can help retain staff. For example, affective commitment, promotional systems, job content, salary and perception of the selectable jobs are important factors that influence employee turnover intentions and retention (Liu, Liu, & Hu, 2010).

This chapter presents the findings that emerged from the data analysis. The findings are based on responses generated from four categories of participants: human resource (HR) officers, trade union executives, academic staff and former academic staff. The chapter is organised into three sections based on the specific research questions. Each section has been categorised into main themes and subthemes. The first section presents the findings on the causes of academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. The second section presents the findings that relate to current retention strategies (organisational inducements) used, and the final section of this chapter discusses the impact of the retention strategies used by management to retain academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities.

5.2 Factors Contributing to Academic Staff Turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities

The main themes and subthemes that emerged from the data analysis are presented in Table 5-1 in accordance with the research questions of the study as follows.

Table 5-1: Summary of Findings Influencing Academic Staff Turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities

First order concept	Second-order themes (subthemes)	Third order themes	Aggregate dimensions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Personal</i> • <i>Spousal pressure</i> • <i>Proximity to the family</i> 		Family-related issues	Personal factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Elimination of boredom</i> 		Age of academic staff	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Poor employees' sense of belonging</i> • <i>Hatred</i> 		Social relationships	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Lack of physical infrastructure</i> • <i>The inadequacy of office accommodation</i> • <i>Deplorable lecture rooms</i> 		Poor work environment	Organisation-wide factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Limited staff involvement and engagement</i> • <i>Lack of transparency</i> 			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Poor leader-member exchange.</i> • <i>Rude supervision</i> • <i>Unfairness in the award of scholarships and appointments</i> • <i>Tribal and religious discrimination</i> • <i>Lack of equity and parity in terms of salaries and allowances</i> 	Procedural injustice	Issues of governance and managerial leadership style	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Mismatches between qualification and courses taught</i> • <i>30 credit hours with a large class size</i> 		Workload and skills misalignment	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Occupational hazards</i> • <i>Poor ventilation in most classrooms</i> • <i>Lack of air-conditioning</i> 		Occupational health and safety standards	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Limited number of staff with terminal degrees</i> • <i>Poaching by traditional universities</i> 		Qualification and experience	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Admission criteria</i> • <i>Student engagement</i> 		Quality of students enrolled in technical universities	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Entrenched public notion about promotions</i> • <i>Professorial ranks disregarded</i> 		Professional image and recognition	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Lip-service to staff needs</i> 	Work performance and recognition		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Not well remunerated</i> • <i>Differences in compensation and salary placement</i> • <i>Differences in allowances between academics in technical and traditional universities</i> • <i>Additional allowances</i> • <i>Child education support</i> • <i>Life insurance policies</i> • <i>Subsidised accommodation</i> 	Compensations and benefits	People-management practices	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Uneven national development</i> 		Geographical location and access	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>'National call' to serve their country</i> • <i>Better remuneration in politics</i> 		Political appointments	External factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Demands of National Accreditation Board</i> • <i>Demand for academics by private and newly established universities</i> 		Staff poaching	

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Employee turnover is occasioned by several organisation-wide and personal factors. The relevant data on factors contributing to academic staff turnover was grouped into three categories:

- i. Personal factors
- ii. Organisation-level factors
- iii. External factors.

The findings are based on two main dimensions of organisational equilibrium theory: contribution (e.g. work-related/organisation-wide factors) and organisational inducements (Table 5-1). The first dimension concerns organisational contributory factors, whereas the second dimension concerns organisational inducements. Other factors that were identified as causes of academic staff turnover but not captured within the lens of organisational equilibrium theory are also presented.

5.2.1 Personal Factors

The exit of academic staff from Ghanaian technical universities was linked to personal factors such as family-related issues and the age of academic staff. The participants also cited interpersonal relationships within the work environment as another source of disaffection that caused academic staff to terminate their employment. The specific individual factors that emerged were family-related issues, age and poor social and interpersonal relationships.

5.2.1.1 Theme: Family-related issues

Family and personal issues serve as external shocks that often cause turnover intentions among employees in an organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001). Participants noted that sometimes academic staff intended staying with the organisation; however, family pressure combined with job dissatisfaction caused employees to resign. Thus, family-related issues and not necessarily the employee's conditions of service acted as the underlying cause of academic staff exiting.

One former academic said:

"I would have stayed with my qualification and training in engineering. I would have stayed with it in the polytechnic. But when the personal issues

came in I went out looking for it and once I set out to look for a job and I got it. The personal issue played out much more than conditions of service.” [Ex AS ATU 01]

In many instances, partners of academic staff were constantly pressuring their spouses to quit and relocate closer to the family. For example, in all four cases, either the wife or the husband who was an academic complained that their partners were living separately, and it was having a negative impact on the welfare of the children. The family would usually suggest that the academic staff member leave and join an industry or other institution to fulfil the desire of the partner and the children.

A key participant explained:

“My wife complains that we have been working a lot and you bring home nothing. All the time a lot of work. ‘You come and sit and mark thousands of scripts. There is nothing that comes with it. You just do sacrificial jobs and the rest of them. Why don’t you leave and join the industries?’ And you know, when your family begins to push you in that direction, you are likely to be thinking twice.” [AS ATU 07]

Working in technical universities made it difficult for academic staff to solve their personal problems and family issues. This placed strain on their family relationships. Generally, academic staff had both family and nonfamily issues to deal with, although they always prioritised their family issues over external issues. Academic staff work because they want to earn income to help meet the daily needs of their families; as such they will not hesitate to work in other industries if the conditions of service help them meet their personal and family needs. Thus, an employee can be pressured to quit their job if the financial reward is not enough to meet their personal and family needs and wants. Some academic staff wanted to stop working in academia and move into industry, where the conditions of employment were better, one stated:

“These are the core issues that we work. Am working because I have a family, I have to feed them. I have other external issues that I have to handle. You find yourself in an institution that cannot even enable you to solve your personal issue, how much more your family issue. So, if I can

access most of these things in a different industry I will run to those places.” [AS TaTU 04]

Another reason employees quit their jobs was that they wanted to move and join their spouse and children who were living elsewhere. This occurred when one of the spouses was working in a distant location. This is not only associated with travel risk but is also expensive and stressful for the individual to commute regularly to join the family. This was especially common among female academic staff, who may have to return home to assume family responsibilities.

“Yeah. It can. Again, some also leave as a result of joining a spouse. If the spouse is not in Kumasi but in another city, they would want to join them. And also, some want to move into the industry. They just want to stop academia.” [AS KsTU 02]

Proximity to extended family was also a key concern for academic staff. Some academics terminated their engagement with technical universities not because of poor conditions of service but because they wanted to be close to their ageing parents who lived elsewhere in the country so that they could care for them. In Ghana, caring for the aged is generally the responsibility of family members, especially the adult children of older people. Academic staff explained that there were instances in which some of their colleagues quit and took up other jobs with similar conditions of service because they wanted to be close to their families living in other parts of Ghana. A key participant said:

“Another reason is maybe for the closeness to family. Some have their family in other parts of the country and their family is finding it difficult to join them so they will normally try and get a job even if the job is not paying higher than this one, but if it is given them relatively similar pay they will leave. Recently we have two staff that left to join other technical universities because of closeness to their ageing parents that could not move here but they were the breadwinners to take care of them. So, we have a few instances where people leave not because of enhancing pay but family-related issues. Yes, I know about four, five people who left the

institution to either Kumasi or Accra because they have their family staying over there and it was difficult. Some go out because they don't have the entire family of theirs in Tamale here.” [AS TaTU 06]

5.2.1.2 Theme: Age of academic staff

Both current and former academic staff identified age as a factor that contributed to the exit of academic staff. Academic staff highlighted that they became bored after staying with a particular university for some time and would like to explore other opportunities in industry or similar higher education institutions in different locations. These employees quit because they wanted to experience a new life in a different institution elsewhere in the country. For instance, a former academic said:

“Yes, probably I would say my age because as you grow you want to, the reason why I would also want to leave is probably am even bored with Accra; that is why am about leaving.” [Ex AS ATU 02]

In contrast, the study also showed that a young age was related to turnover and retention intentions. Older academic staff and their families are usually well established within the job environment and the neighbourhood. They have accumulated social capital and are therefore more attached to their organisations than young academic staff who are yet to be settled in the organisation. Thus, young qualified academic staff below the age of 40 easily cross over to the traditional universities, while older staff may feel reluctant to quit and take up fresh appointments with other universities. A participant stated that:

“Those who are young, those who are below the age of 40 with the requisite qualification, try to move away, maybe to the traditional universities but those above 40–45 going you don't see any signs in moving.” [AS KsTU 03]

5.2.1.3 Theme: Social and interpersonal relationships

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Fallatah, & Syed, 2018), the need to belong and have interpersonal relationships constitutes a lower-order need. Academic staff

want to work in a cohesive work environment where they can develop a sense of belonging and identification. They feel the need for belongingness and to identify within the work environment. Such needs are met through the opportunity to interact with others, to be accepted and to have friends. It is not easy to build social relationships in technical universities because the nature of some work environments is characterised by social segregation between the in-group and the out-group, which is further deepened by tribal and ethnic diversity across the country.

The socio-cultural factors in Ghana encourage strong cordial relationships among people, and some employees consider respectful leader–member exchange or relationship more important than remuneration and other conditions of service. However, the evidence suggests that the social environment of some Ghanaian technical universities is characterised by poor leader–member exchange. This created negative job attitudes and reduced employees’ sense of belonging, trust and commitment, thus lessening the likelihood of employees staying with such institutions. Several participants noted that cordial employee–manager relationships, which are needed to promote organisational commitment and reduce turnover were absent in some work environments. Disrespectful supervision contributed to job dissatisfaction and in the midst of poor social networks, employees decided to leave.

A participant indicated: “When you have a rude supervisor and poor service conditions. But I would give to rude supervision. If you are working with a rude supervisor, you don’t have job satisfaction and so, you will always want an opportunity to leave. And I consider that one paramount more than service conditions.” [AS ATU 02]

Conflictual social relationships between managers and academic staff breed disunity, mistrust and divisions among staff. This behaviour leads to unhappiness and dissatisfaction. Participants reported experiencing hatred directed at them and unhappiness due to poor social relationships, which contributed to academic staff leaving the universities. Employees who received inhumane treatment from their superiors felt unhappy and sought to move to alternative jobs.

For instance, a former academic staff stated:

“You know I have come from somewhere. You know some hatred so is like certain ... People started framing me saying all sort of things about me. The management of the polytechnic knew my hands were clean. The rector, the former registrar, I wrote to them to investigate certain things. You know some personalities were involved and they feared that if they opened up the matter some people would have to be suspended or they kept the matter. On a personal note, I was also very much unhappy, and on that point, I started now running out. So previously I was just waiting for the opportunity to come but when it got to the personal level where hatred started, because when did he come, this is that, he is doing this, he is doing that, he is part of this, he is part of that, and then framing. And when I thought the system would help correct things and help me find some justice, the system failed me.” [Ex AS ATU 01]

5.2.2 Organisation-wide Factors

Organisation-level factors are responsible for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and consequently staff turnover in organisations. Participants argued that the poor work environment, management and leadership style, workload and skills misalignment, occupational health and safety concerns, and the nature of people management influenced academic staff intentions and actual exit. In all, seven themes and five sub-themes emerged under organisation-level factors responsible for academic staff turnover.

5.2.2.1 Theme: Poor work environment

Participants highlighted some challenges with their work environment that contributed to many of them leaving their institutions to join other public or private universities across the country. Some of the technical universities were still in their early stages of development and lacked physical infrastructure and the resources required to create a conducive workspace for academic staff. The study noted some differences in the level of facilities and resources based on the geographical location of the universities. The poor physical infrastructure and lack of facilities were more evident in technical

universities in northern Ghana than those located in southern Ghana. Participants noted they needed a work environment that allows them to work freely without a sense of difficulty and frustration and they asserted that the physical work environment did not support effective teaching and research activities. A participant specifically noted that the unattractiveness of his work environment, together with poor physical infrastructure and a lack of teaching and learning resources, was a drain on his effort to impart knowledge to his students and contribute to research. Several participants described how they had to share a small office space designed to accommodate one person with three colleagues. They further noted that the poor ventilation and lighting systems posed serious occupational health and safety hazards. A participant said:

Yes, I would consider leaving this institution. And one of the reasons that would make me consider leaving this institution is because of the environment. The physical environment doesn't befit the status of a technical university. I think that even if you walk into a place like Tamale College of Education, it looks more organised than our institution. And so, one is that the physical environment it doesn't look attractive."

[AS TaTU 03]

Another participant also noted:

"Well you talked about the classrooms, you go there it is an eye-sore, and you can go to the classrooms and see. You look at the windows, louvres blades broken, sockets not working, nothing. I have to buy my projector. It's here; I bought it with my own money to teach the students. We don't have the laboratories; I go to teach refrigeration air condition. I talk of first change, students don't see it, I don't have a lab, and the best is to demonstrate. The sockets are not working. This one you can see for yourself, as for the environment the little said about it, the better."

[UM TaTU 01]

The evidence further points to inadequacy of office accommodation for lecturers and decent classrooms for students. All categories of participants bemoaned the inadequacy of office space to carry out their academic work appropriately. In some

institutions, all of the lecturers were provided with one common space known as the “staff common room”. This kind of workspace does not support any meaningful research or academic work – some staff frequently engaged in private conversations, which directly affected the work of other colleagues. In instances where staff require privacy and a quiet environment to focus on research activities, movement of colleagues into and out of the staff common room becomes a nuisance and is even destructive. This situation influenced many academic staff to leave technical universities to join public or private universities where the infrastructure and facilities were considered better. Some former academic staff revealed that they left due to the lack of office space and other facilities they required to effectively carry out their work.

A participant noted:

“As lecturers, you go to school and you don’t have a place to sit. Most at times, we hang [about] under trees and the fact is that you don’t even have a shade where you can park your vehicle. The places where are convenient to park are very few, and so once you get there and somebody else has already park then you have to park in the sun. So your vehicle is parked in the sun and there is no place for you to sit, you either has to wait there or find under a tree and then sit down [and] wait for your lecture. The issue is that the department office is so small with just few furniture perhaps to just sit about three people and so if you get there you are compelled to stand so that makes us sometimes to just wait around your home and when it is time for your lecture you move and go and teach and then you leave the campus.” [AS TaTU 03]

Further, the lecture rooms of some institutions were small and student numbers were constantly increasing, making it difficult to accommodate more students. When enrolling students, the management of these institutions did not consider whether the available infrastructure and resources, particularly lecture rooms and office space, could meet the needs of both students and staff. In general, technical universities are under-resourced compared with traditional Ghanaian universities.

A key participant revealed:

“The infrastructure and lecture halls were inadequate. We had big numbers. Sometimes a class of say 400, 500 and they have to all congregate in one room. Sometimes people will stand outside [and] peep through the window to partake in the lecture. So, it was a problem at the time. Lecture theatres were a problem. And there was no office accommodation for individual lecturers. We all shared one big room we called a staff common room. There were no individual offices for the lecturers.” [Ex AS STU 01]

Another academic staff member described the situation as follows:

“We are in a staff common room, it’s just like primary school. It’s just like primary schools and secondary schools. When you go to the traditional universities, two lecturers share an office but here, apart from the HODs and the deans who have offices, and these offices are not even their private offices. It’s a duty post office. And then when you go to our classrooms, there is nothing to write home about. Classroom situation is very terrible, toilet facilities very horrible and so on and so forth.” [AS STU 03]

Generally, the facilities in the technical universities were in a poor state and largely inadequate compared with the conducive work environment and adequate facilities and structures in traditional universities.

Most participants bemoaned the deplorable state and the inadequacy of infrastructure by frequently making such comparisons:

“That one can be a factor because, let’s say the infrastructure is not adequate, but if you go to the traditional universities you could see big structures. The traditional universities have a very good environment. It is very conducive and well structured.” [AS KsTU 03]

A union executive also indicated:

“You can’t sit in your office to do any work, apart from the resource centre that some past students have donated. The whole university internet connectivity, if you want internet you have to buy your own modem. And I know if am going to do official work it’s with my money. So, the guy said he is not going to use his money to do research, and management will go and sit down to consider it. And at each of their sittings, they will take fat, fat allowances and those who develop it will not be given anything. This is a current issue; it is about two days ago. I am still pleading with the guy to do it, but he said he will not do it.” [UM TaTU 01]

5.2.2.2 Theme: Issues of governance and managerial leadership style

Participants noted the managerial leadership styles of the technical universities were contrary to their expectations of academic institutions of higher learning, which they felt should demonstrate contemporary management and leadership styles. The evidence points to limited involvement and engagement of academic staff members in work-related issues that affect staff. The general notion was that academic staff have limited voice in the management of these institutions. The leadership styles exhibited in these institutions occasioned many early exits among academic staff, as asserted during the interviews with former academic staff. For example, a participant noted that several collective decisions taken at the department level regarding the application of university resources were vetoed by top management without recourse to university policy or guidelines. Staff were not given explanations for the veto. Participants expected institutions of higher learning to be governed with the proper application of rules, policies and guidelines, and that managers should exhibit democratic leadership styles. However, these characteristics were absent in their managerial styles.

A participant said:

“So, for me in our institution, because it is a public university, the discretionary powers are in the hands of management. So, they can do anything to achieve their own expectations and personal interest.”

[Ex AS ATU 02]

The poor leadership styles exhibited by senior managers of these technical universities occasioned the early exit of young and talented academic staff. Participants further bemoaned the lack of transparency in management decision-making processes. They asserted that strategic decisions were made in secrecy without the knowledge and opinions of academic staff. The absence of appropriate managerial behaviour and leadership by the executive led to the early exit of academic staff.

A former academic confirmed:

“Another push factor from the technical university is the lack of effective internal leadership. Yes, we have a situation where leaders are saying they would do certain things and they wouldn't do it. For example, lecturers in most of the technical universities and where I am coming from do not have office accommodation. Almost all the lecturers do not have offices unless maybe you have other functions to perform like HOD or dean.”

[EX AS KsTU 02]

The normal practice of senior management was to make and influence decisions without involving academic staff at the departmental levels. The participants bemoaned the absence of transparency and engagement of staff during the formation of committees. Committee members were mostly hand-picked without following institutional guidelines prescribed for the formation of committees.

A participant stated:

“Of course, we do agree for a tertiary institution to be run on the committee system. The committee should be allowed to function as a committee not only one officer somewhere exerting or using his powers on the rest of the other committees. We do have instances where sometimes a

committee will make a decision and by the time a letter or a document comes out it would have been different from what the committee members met and discussed. So basically, I will say we should just allow the system to work, if we allow the structures and systems to work, they will retain a lot.” [UM TaTU 02]

In addition, injustice within Ghanaian technical universities contributes to the exit of academic staff. Both distributive and procedural justice are inversely related to employee turnover (Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Pasupuleti, Prior, & Allen, 2012). Participants argued that the lack of fairness and perceived inequity with which some academic staff are treated causes dissatisfaction.

5.2.2.2.1 Subtheme: Procedural injustice

The study also found academic staff highlighted administrative and procedural injustice, particularly in awarding scholarships for PhD programs, study leave, and appointments to headship and professorial ranks. Sponsorships were awarded to individual academic staff who were in the “good books” of management and some managerial decisions were based on the principle of “who you know”. Management did not treat academic staff based on seniority, which constitutes a critical criterion for progression in academia. Most academic staff who went on PhD studies without full support of management were not promoted. Some noted the lack of equity and parity in allocating allowances. This implies that academic staff were not given equal and fair treatment, which was a source of dissatisfaction. If staff perceive that they are adequately rewarded, they are both motivated to perform better and less likely to leave the service.

An academic staff member explained:

“But what I am trying to say is that most of the time here if you are not in their good books you can’t be sponsored, that is how I feel. Yes, that is it. Most of our colleagues who went on the PhD program have one or two issues in terms of favours up there. I have tried it; I was told that I did not inform them so I can’t leave. So, if it is a very important thing for me; if I have my own money, what will happen? The turnover will happen. So, that is what I have seen here. That is the issue because I feel that I have not been treated well. Someone who came to meet me has gone for a PhD while I am still here. And I know for the academic or education industry it is by seniority.” [AS ATU 06]

The study also found disparity among institutions in salary packages for academic staff with similar qualifications. Participants described the level of disparity as “pathetic” and unreasonable. Lack of equity and parity in salaries and other allowances were identified as a source of resentment. In addition, a gulf exists between traditional and technical universities in terms of incentives. For example, staff in traditional universities are paid 114% of their basic salaries as market premium while the technical universities receive 94% of their basic salaries. An academic indicated:

“These are the things people look at. So, they see it as a huge incentive, and apart from that when it comes to salary-wise, the entry point for the university is a PhD to be a lecturer and the same thing too now the entry point for the technical university is PhD to be a lecturer. However, when it comes to salary-wise the traditional universities have a higher premium, they’re put on 114 premiums the polytechnics are put on 94 premiums, so the gap is huge. So, if you are a lecturer, a senior lecturer or professor, and the rest and you found yourself in a traditional university compared to the same counterpart in the polytechnic, technical universities it is pathetic. So, at the end of the day what puts food on the table?” [AS KsTU 01]

The disparity between technical and traditional universities extends beyond salary packages to pension schemes. Academic staff of technical universities are by law placed on the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT) pension scheme, which exists for all workers in Ghana. However, the law allows traditional universities to establish their own pension scheme, known as the Ghana Universities Social Security (GUSS). The superannuation scheme of the traditional universities offers a better retirement package, almost double the package that staff of technical universities are entitled to after retirement. A participant noted:

“I just said; look if you go on pension currently, we are on SSNIT and the traditional universities like Tech and Legon they are not on SSNIT. And if you look at the amount of money been given to a traditional university lecturer, when the person goes on pension, and the amount of money given to a technical university lecturer when he goes on pension, the difference is very huge, you see, and all borders to how they planned their retirement, how they planned their pension. So, I will appreciate if they are able to study how it works over there so that they can replicate the same over here. Because the difference is very huge in terms of the lump sum that one receives from here and the one received from the traditional universities when the person goes on pension.” [AS KsTU 04]

Discrimination, nepotism and favouritism also emerged as a cluster of factors that made academic staff want to leave. Procedural injustice manifested in the form of tribal and religious discrimination; perceived preferential treatment and opportunities were given to academic staff based on their perceived ethnicity and tribal identity.

A participant argued:

“For me, one other thing that would make me want to leave is the issue of tribalism. It is so glaring that sometimes once you are not from here, you have to be very careful in whatever you say in campus because there are people who will always want to hear what you have to say and then go back to say what you have said. And then even sometimes for elections, just simple union elections on campus, you find that people will have to

vote on tribal line. We do not even think the person is competent enough to represent us but the fact that you are from here or belong here then you stand a chance of being voted for. But those of us from the minority tribes, even if you have one who is very competent, people are not level-headed enough to look at competence, but then they are interested in getting their own people there. I don't know what agenda they have that they want to fulfil that every position held in the institution must be occupied by an indigene. So that is one of the things that would make me want to leave.”
[AS TaTU 03]

The findings revealed that technical universities did not ensure equity and fairness when giving opportunities to employees with similar experience and qualifications. Employees who perceived inequity in terms of their contribution and rewards developed a feeling of resentment and later resorted to absenteeism and seeking work elsewhere. Academic staff who felt that they were being discriminated against chose to leave rather than continue working in their institution. This situation arose mainly because technical universities in Ghana are established on regional basis. Regionalism has, therefore, become a major factor affecting their employment and people-management practices. Some academic staff left in search of institutions where there is fairness and organisational justice, provided they had the required qualifications.

A participant concluded:

“Once I have the qualification, and the opportunity comes I will not be put aside and somebody who perhaps doesn't even get it, will be given the opportunity no, I will be looking forward to a place where there is fairness.” [AS TaTU 01]

The study also revealed that favouritism was a “normal” phenomenon in dealings with academic staff. Favouritism was obvious in managerial decision making that was based on managerial discretion. A former academic said:

“It is a natural factor especially when you are dealing with academics. You don't think that somebody is down even if the person is not

complaining. He knows exactly what is happening. So, if you are fair to everybody, everyone will know. If you are favouring others, those who are not favoured may not talk, but they know that you are not treating them fairly. So, when opportunities come, they will leave. And that is even the more dangerous thing. They may not complain at all.” [Ex AS KsTU 02]

A former academic staff member lamented:

“If it was across the board, but that discriminatory way of rewarding staff. Sometimes they would say who is the best and they would give something to that person at the expense of the generality of the staff. If something was like that it was across the board in that case if it were across then, I don’t have any problem. But if it will be discriminatory giving some, leaving some out, then that wouldn’t have influenced my decision to stay.”
[Ex AS STU 02]

5.2.2.3 Theme: Workload and skills misalignment

Issues around workload, course allocation and skills misalignment triggered the exit of many academic staff from the four technical universities. The *Labour Act 2003* (651), sub-part II, on hours of work stipulates that a worker shall not exceed 8 hours per day and 40 hours per week, yet in Ghanaian technical universities generally, academic staff workload exceeds 8 hours per day. Many academic staff had to teach in three streams – day classes, evening and night classes, and weekend programs – because technical universities are seeking to make learning more flexible and accessible to the working class, and also to increase their internal revenue base. Technical universities assign 12 credit units as the maximum course load per semester, which is equivalent to 36 hours per week for teaching and excludes other academic responsibilities.

Notwithstanding the provision of a maximum course allocation ratio, the findings showed that in all four universities many academic staff were assigned between 15 and 24 credit units per semester, which is equivalent to between 45 and 72 hours per week teaching load, contrary to the maximum hours of work per week as enshrined in the

Labour Act. The overloading of academic staff with extra hours in Ghanaian technical universities is always blamed on the lack of or inadequate academic staff. Regarding skills misalignment, some academic staff argued that there was a mismatch between their qualifications, competencies and knowledge and the courses they were assigned to teach as part of their work allocation. Employees seek to work in organisations where they can apply their knowledge and skills appropriately.

However, some staff felt that they were given courses to teach which were not commensurate with their professional training and competencies. For example, a participant noted that his area of expertise and qualification was agricultural economics, yet he had been asked to teach courses such as crop science, animal science and horticulture. Other academic staff bemoaned the fact that, while some of their colleagues were teaching few courses, they were allocated many courses to teach, which affected their research output and their prospects of gaining promotion. For example, some lecturers asserted that they were teaching over 30 credit hours per semester, with the university's excuse that it had limited staff. A key participant said:

“Now, I have found myself in a place where I was really trained for. Previously, I used to teach some courses that I really was not trained for, but now I found myself in the department of agricultural economics where I teach courses that I really learnt in school. I remember I used to teach courses in crop science, animal science and horticulture. Over there, once you have a degree in BSc agriculture, they expect you to be able to teach everything, but here it is not like that. Nobody will allow me to teach such courses. So, I was motivated by the fact that now I found myself in a place where I am very comfortable. And then, more importantly, another area that I really wanted to develop myself had to do with the area of grantsmanship. The area of grantsmanship, for the five years that I worked there, I don't remember anybody in that school winning any grant. You know grantsmanship is an integral aspect of our lecturing profession.”

[Ex AS KsTU 01]

Another participant noted:

“If I were practising my public health that could have been fine, but again we are all limited, you do public health and you come back and you are teaching in a management-related department. Anytime I wanted to go to a conference on public health, management would tell me that I am not contributing to the development of the Department of Public Health, so no funding for me. Once I have a place that I could go, nothing would have changed my mind.” [Ex AS ATU 02]

In contrast, some staff were underutilised and not given enough courses to teach or student projects to supervise or opportunities to serve on committees. This was apparently done to make some staff appear redundant or to isolate them in the department, compelling them to seek opportunities that were challenging and enriching enough to keep them occupied. A participant indicated:

“So, I realised that I was not giving of my best. Even, in fact, I had a few periods to teach at the time. So, I realised that if I had the opportunity to go elsewhere where I would get a challenging job. By way of, I would have a minimum or maximum teaching requirements in the contact hours. Yes, and if I would have the opportunity to meet university students to teach them. I thought that would be enriching. That would add to the quality of my work. So that was why I left.” [Ex AS STU 02]

5.2.2.4 Theme: Occupational health and safety standards

The study found the work environment of the institutions was not conducive to effective performance. Some of the buildings and other facilities were in deplorable condition and posed occupational safety and health risks. Many classrooms had no closed windows or doors, walls were dirty and, during training sessions, the classrooms were flooded with water, making it difficult to conduct lectures. Some lecture halls had insufficient furniture to accommodate the class size. The furniture in some lecture halls was broken and posed hazards for students and staff. Respondents described many instances where they had slipped, and some had dislocated their ankles due to the wet floors during heavy rains and the open windows and doors. For students,

slipping in classrooms is a regular occurrence during the rainy season. Participants noted that some of the classrooms were not fit for purpose. The lighting system in some classrooms did not function. Participants ranked the poor ventilation in most classrooms as the worst problem – the lack of air-conditioning or ceiling fans made it difficult for staff and students to concentrate during lectures. Academic staff frequently resorted to handkerchiefs to wipe sweat from their faces, while students used their books to fan themselves during lectures. Former academic staff all alluded to these undesirable conditions, which prompted their early exit and their choice of taking up appointments in traditional universities, where the situation has improved over the years. A former academic said:

“And you see some of them are even internal. In terms of cleanliness, I always question my management then. You have employed Zoomlion staff, you have employed your own labourers and your walls are dirty, your compound is disorganised, and people are talking about it.”

[Ex AS KsTU 02]

5.2.2.5 Theme: Qualification and experience of academic staff

Qualified academics with terminal degrees and teaching experience at the tertiary level form the core of higher education institutions and are in great demand in traditional universities across the country. The inability of traditional public universities in Ghana to offer sufficient doctoral programs means a continual shortage of qualified labour within the higher education labour market. Therefore, traditional universities with better conditions of service have resorted to labour poaching from other institutions. Participants without terminal degrees alluded to employment opportunities in mainstream traditional universities and that when they completed they might take up such offers if the situation in the technical universities remained unchanged. Former academic staff noted that they could leave because of their qualifications and work experience, unlike their colleagues who did not have the qualifications demanded by traditional universities. The traditional universities demand applicants with terminal degrees for appointments, creating a real need and many opportunities for staff from technical universities. Without better reward systems, recognition and appropriate

work environments, academic staff with terminal degrees leave technical universities for traditional universities.

“Yes, it [experience] can influence you to leave or stay. I have experience. I have been in academia for quite a long, I have got experience. Then they are looking for people with that experience, and then probably tempted. For example, you have ten years teaching in the tertiary institution, and they want those who have got eight years, ten years and others then probably you be tempted to leave.” [AS STU 01]

Another academic staff member stated:

“Actually, the turnover in this particular institution is very, very high. A lot of people are leaving, especially those who acquire higher certificates, precisely PhD, because they feel that when they get this particular certificate and return to this particular institution, what they get in return doesn't worth the certificate or the toil that they have to get the particular kind of certificate. So, his main target is either to move to the traditional university or any other industry where he feels he can get something better to match his qualification.” [AS TaTU 04]

Union members validated the views of academic staff by emphasising that the level of experience and qualifications possessed by academic staff supported their decisions to quit and take up rewarding employment opportunities. A union member explained:

“The number of years that you have served when you feel like, oh, it is okay let me just stay here and finish my working life, others will also say let me get to industry and see what is there. One guy actually left to Standard Chartered Bank: he was in the statutory department. Others too have gone for a political appointment, am not sure, but for that, they have left. But they make the emphasis that because of their experience in academia they stand a better chance been appointed to serve in those positions or political positions.” [UM TaTU 02]

5.2.2.6 Theme: The quality of students enrolled in technical universities

Participants argued that the quality of students admitted to technical universities is lower than that of students admitted into traditional universities. Although the programs offered in technical universities have similar admission requirements, they tend to attract students with poor academic records because many of the students with good academic records prefer to pursue university degrees rather than higher national diploma or diploma qualifications. Another important dimension of the problem is the public perception that students with poor academic records attend technical universities to pursue technical programs, which has been a historical problem for technical education in general. That most students in technical universities are perceived to have weak academic performance does not inspire other students to enrol in these universities. Participants admitted that some of their students failed to demonstrate any serious engagement in classroom discussions, making teaching uninspiring. Some participants argued that, as they make significant efforts to move away from a teacher-centred teaching model to a student-centred approach, they are constrained by the comparative lack of student involvement to that experienced by their counterparts in traditional universities. Students admitted to technical universities tend to have low grades and poor academic standing and lack basic knowledge and skills. A former academic staff member commented:

“Another factor I will talk about is the kind of students that are actually admitted into the technical universities, yes, they don’t seem to inspire me, and most of them seem to lack the basic knowledge and skill of a university student. So, I used to complain a lot about the calibre of students that are admitted to the technical university. If we are taking anybody, then most of them may just start from certificate and diplomas level. But where we give admissions to degree programs to people who have very low grades, it affects the quality. So basically, these are some of the push factors.”

[Ex AS KsTU 02]

5.2.2.7 Theme: Professional Image and recognition

The public perceive academic staff who are promoted to the rank of professor in technical universities as having low prestige. This perception is strong among academics in traditional universities. The assumption among academic staff in traditional universities and the public has long been that it is easier for academic staff in technical universities to be promoted to professorial rank than it is for their counterparts in traditional universities. This entrenched public notion casts doubt on and undermines the recognition of professors in technical universities. For example, some former academic staff considered that recognition of senior staff of technical universities is low.

An ex-academic staff member said:

“Exactly, because some of them were there and they were doing part-time in some of the traditional universities, and as a matter of fact if you are a professor there and then you are going to teach part-time anywhere it is expected that you are regarded as such. But some professors in technical universities that teach part-time in the traditional universities are paid as lecturers. And it boils down to the fact that it’s because of where they are coming from, where their promotion came from.” [Ex KsTU 01]

Participants argued they were not accorded the same status as their colleagues from traditional universities during conferences, seminars and other programs because they had obtained their promotions from technical universities. They found such disregard embarrassing. To some extent, this disregard is not surprising to the researcher; the structure of technical universities, the courses offered, and the qualifications of some academic staff have probably contributed to the poor public perception and lack of recognition of senior staff from technical universities.

An academic staff member asserted:

“We have drawn their attention, but up to date we still don’t know anything. Look, we came to this school, people have been teaching at this school for fifteen to twenty years with the same rank without promotion. It

is just around 2010 that the document was done for lecturers to be promoted. You come with your PhD: you are a lecturer, you come with masters you are a lecturer. You can't get a promotion to senior lecturer and what have you. We got senior lecturers only in 2010." [AS ATU 07]

In the words of another former academic staff member:

"Promotion even though I have a few difficulties, but the few promotions that I got, I struggled but I got them. But like I said, I felt that was normal because I don't have anything to compare. It was difficult, but eventually I got some number of promotions because I remember I started as an assistant instructor and then I got promoted to senior instructor, and eventually I became a lecturer before I left." [Ex AS TaTU 01]

5.2.2.8 Theme: The nature of people-management practices

People-management practices was a prominent theme that emerged from the data analysis. These practices include the professional image and recognition of academic staff, performance and rewards, and compensation and benefits. People-management practices remained a significant component of the employment relationship and influenced many academics to leave the technical universities.

5.2.2.8.1 Subtheme: Work performance and recognition

While the management of technical universities were expected to demonstrate some interest in employee welfare and to provide regular and timely feedback, as well as recognition of dedicated and hardworking academic staff, the participants alluded to many instances in which management provided "lip-service" towards staff needs. Participants argued that recognition for the contributions of academic staff to advancing the universities was not forthcoming. Although the academic staff did not expect financial rewards for such contributions, they did expect management to at least acknowledge their efforts. A participant noted:

“As academic staff, what will make you leave is when hard work is not rewarded. When a system allows people to cut corners to rise and those who are working are not acknowledged; that is one thing.” [AS ATU 04]

Similarly, another academic staff member indicated:

“When you are in an institution and you are recognised for what you do, [and other] people don’t take glory for the work you do, you will be motivated to stay. But when people take the glory for the work you do, people want to marginalise you, people want to discriminate against you and, definitely, you will not be happy and might want to leave. These are the situations that normally cause people to leave.” [AS ATU 07]

Participants noted that it was a common practice for management not to recognise and reward them for their hard work and accomplishments. Several academic and former academic staff members highlighted that their time and the services they rendered to their schools were never recognised by management. A participant stated:

“Yes, exactly, basically it is not about money, it just about an environment where you are really recognised and then of course where I can practise what I love. What I love is public health, so you have an atmosphere where there is an avenue for you to go and present at conferences, and so you go and you are recognised that you are from the technical university.” [Ex AS ATU 02]

Another academic staff member complained:

“I for one, I have several examples. I was a part of a committee: the Curriculum Development Committee ... So many programs we feel we can develop for the school for the university to run, but we do it, no recognition. So why do I have to put in ... then I would rather do something that will enrich my personal ... instead of sacrificing for this school. We need to recognise people’s effort.” [AS STU 02]

5.2.2.8.2 Subtheme: Compensation and benefits

Remuneration is one of the reasons why academic staff leave technical universities in Ghana. Participants noted that they performed similar duties and responsibilities and had the same qualifications as their colleagues in traditional universities, yet they did not receive the same conditions of service. Academic staff in technical universities are not well remunerated compared with the remuneration of their counterparts in traditional universities, although both types of institutions are funded by the government. Participants argued they had to leave to take up appointments in traditional universities because of the disparities in the employment conditions offered by the government. For example, at the time of the study, heads of departments in traditional universities were entitled to USD750 (GH¢4000) per month as their responsibility allowance, while those in technical universities were entitled to between USD95 and USD115 (GH¢400 to GH¢600) depending on the location of the technical university. Older and well-resourced technical universities were more likely to provide additional allowances to heads of department than other institutions. A participant explained:

“Here, I think that the major reasons are compensation or remuneration. Of course, we all work for money for better conditions. If the person is working and there is a better offer somewhere, the person leaves. And again, others also want to explore more, want challenging if I say jobs, do exploits in other areas, so they leave.” [AS KsTU 02]

A union executive similarly noted the remuneration disparity:

“And then the external factor, like, I mention is the payment of compensation package. If that small difference between the technical university and the traditional university is not seen that much people will not be lured to leave the technical university to join the traditional university. So, this is one way to retain them. Or even between the technical university environment and industry if we think that there is a better pay package that people will leave. We are compensated well, very handsomely, at least it can increase the retention.” [UM TaTU 02]

The study also revealed that the salary placement of academic staff in technical universities under the Single Spine Salary Structure was different from that of staff in traditional universities, despite employees having similar qualifications. A trade union member commented:

“Another factor is compensation wise, and how do I mean, some thought especially before single spine, the rank or the placement the grade you were placed, a lecturer in a technical university having MPhils probably in accounting or human resource, another colleague having the same, they sat in the same class, supervised by the same supervisor in the university, but because he is been employed at the university probably was taking a salary which was far, far higher than the person salary here. So, some left as I said before the single spine in 2012 there about a lot of people left in my department to the school of business due to that factor and they left to UDS. I can count not less than five or six of them. Immediately they attained their Masters, and there is some of them who were also chartered accountants. They felt they were not remunerated well, so they left for UDS, which is just close by.” [UM TaTU 02]

Generally, many of the existing academic staff with and without the required qualification (PhD) noted that they were considering terminating their employment with technical universities to join their better paid colleagues at the traditional universities. For example, a participant argued that the market premium and other allowances in traditional universities were better than those at technical universities. An academic explained that before his departure the market premium was 96% for technical university staff compared with 114% for academic staff in traditional universities. A participant noted:

“So, I say let me enter, and I have entered, senior lecturer and lecturer. My salary as a senior lecturer is lower than the lecturer, and the difference is so much. You know when you are a senior lecturer, the basic is the same, but for both technical and traditional university, and the market premium is higher. So, assuming I have been a senior lecturer here, I would have been put on 23 and where I was, it was 23. The market premium was 96%

for technical university and then 114% for the traditional university. And then when you are comparing the other allowances, there is a lot.”

[Ex AS ATU 02]

Employees who successfully undertook higher professional training and development wanted to receive conditions of employment similar to those of their colleagues with the same qualifications in other institutions. An academic explained:

“When somebody has a PhD and his colleague has a PhD as well, and they are doing the same work but in different institutions, and the person is paid more than he receives, he or she feels belittled by his or her institution. If you don’t have the heart and the love for the work you do, you will go. You will walk away and go and search for where you think you will be well rewarded for the effort and your level and your experience and all of that.” [AS ATU 07]

In the absence of compensation and remuneration commensurate with that in traditional universities, academic staff in technical universities with the required completed degrees will continue to be attracted to traditional universities. The result is lack of experienced and qualified lecturers in technical universities. Participants were unhappy with the situation and constantly engaged in comparing their remuneration with that of their counterparts in traditional universities. An academic staff member explained that the government should try to ensure equity in remuneration to prevent academic staff from leaving:

“I guess if that thing that is moving people out is remuneration, then in future we are hoping so well that within the next few times you will be tempted to move.” [AS KsTU 01]

Moreover, staff in technical universities were given limited additional benefits (e.g. car maintenance allowance, housing allowance, child education support, life insurance, subsidised accommodation) in comparison with benefits for staff in traditional universities. Academic staff in the four case universities wanted to receive

allowances similar to those of their counterparts in traditional universities. A former academic staff member noted:

“In our case, who cares, nobody cares. As for the allowances the HODs receive, it’s pay by the controller and it’s 120 cedis a month. So, we are paid 120 cedis a month, and any HOD receives the same, and then they give you entertainment allowance of 120 cedis. So that make 240 Ghana cedis. And what again probably they give us extra fuel allowance and the fuel allowance is just about 200 cedis difference. And it is not attractive considering the work we do; it is not attractive at all.” [Ex AS ATU 02]

An ex-academic staff member expressed concern:

“Well because we generate a lot of internally generated funds [IGF]. We have IGF and what we get out of our IGF part to go into paying off our PFs [Provident Funds] and some part-time teaching and share the rest at the end of the semester, and we form something don’t tell and don’t tell is fixed, they will not look at me because maybe am contributing more and pay me more, so it cuts across, so my colleagues too who have part-time programs are paid the same.” [Ex AS ATU 02]

The differences between the remuneration allowances of technical and traditional universities were sufficient to attract people to traditional universities. The participants considered that traditional universities were better than technical universities regarding payment of allowances and provision of other conditions of service such as housing and superannuation. For instance, academic staff in traditional universities benefit from a special housing scheme known as an owner-occupier scheme. Under this scheme an academic staff member is paid a housing allowance for living in their own residential property.

Moreover, traditional universities can generate additional financial resources, called internally generated funds (IGR). They use these funds to provide extra compensation to their staff. Technical universities are unable to generate enough IGF to pay extra allowances. These discrepancies in the conditions of service between technical and

traditional universities create a challenge for technical universities in retaining talented and experienced teaching staff. A participant revealed:

“Traditional universities are better. One thing about the traditional universities also is that the payment of most of these allowances is tied to IGF, and their IGF base is bigger. So, they can pay more allowances than those of us in technical universities. The more you are able to generate, the more you are able to pay more allowances. Let’s look at something like, when you go to our traditional universities on the conditions of service I was talking about, there is something like owner-occupier allowance; owner-occupier in the traditional universities, that is where if you are a lecturer in a university, you have built your house and you are staying in it. You are paid allowances for staying in your own building. Here it is not like that.” [AS STU 03]

Another participant indicated:

“In the traditional universities, they enjoy life. We in the technical universities, though it is in our conditions of service it is not implemented. So, when you are looking at conditions of services [in] technical universities and traditional universities, there is a big difference. And when you look at even the retirement package for the traditional universities ... and the take-home a huge sum of money. Those of us in the technical universities we are with SSNIT. The conditions of service in the traditional universities are as compared to ours is nothing to write home about.” [AS STU 03]

5.2.3 External factors

The external factors that contributed to the exit of academic staff from Ghana’s technical universities were geographical location and access to other opportunities, political appointments and poaching of academic staff.

5.2.3.1 Theme: Geographical location and access

One of the most attractive reasons for leaving technical universities was the geographical location of traditional universities, given the uneven development nature that has historically underpinned national development policy. There are significant differences between rural and urban locations in social and physical infrastructure, economic activities and the number of schools and other tertiary institutions. There is also a development gap between the northern and southern parts of Ghana. Therefore, the desire to work in strategic locations in the southern sector in order to access additional opportunities such as part-time teaching in other comparable tertiary institutions motivated academic staff to leave their institutions. This situation has made technical universities in the northern part of Ghana unattractive and they struggle to retain academic staff. Hence the geographical location of technical universities gives a comparative advantage to some and a disadvantage to others.

“Accra Technical University is situated in the centre of the capital city of Ghana with a lot of universities, both public and private, that are competing for staff and other resources. So, our location makes it unique for other universities to actually poach from our staff. So, we have gone through as I indicated earlier, for the past four years we have about five PhD holders who have left and other masters’ holders who have also left. So, we can say that we are having that challenge in terms of staff attrition.”

[UM ATU 01]

Technical universities in northern Ghana are prone to losing academic staff because those located in the south are better resourced. This situation is not surprising, but rather reflects the uneven development programming that has historically characterised the development fabric of Ghana since colonisation and after independence. The study found that some academic staff in technical universities in northern Ghana preferred to work in otherwise similar technical universities in the south with better facilities and close proximity to major cities. A participant indicated:

“Cases of turnover and other things, I have a fair view about those in the northern part of Ghana because preferably they want to live in the south and that is all about rural-urban migration, they want to live in the capital city or in the major cities for facilities. Yes, that is what happens.”

[AS ATU 04]

The location of each technical university produces certain opportunities and particular problems. Generally, academic staff do not transfer from one technical university to another because most have similar remuneration and other financial inducements. Rather, crossover occurs mainly because of better infrastructure and closeness to major cities. A participant noted:

“Looking at Ghana demographic perception of the country, each technical university has its own peculiar problem. These problems automatically have a great impact on output. And the output may not be equally the same. It depends on where the university is located. So, if you look at the technical universities across the country, the southern part is more developed than those in the northern sector because of the geographical position. For example, Accra, Kumasi, Takoradi, they are the well-developed technical universities and they have more population than those in the northern part.” [AS STU 06]

5.2.3.2 Theme: Political appointments

The loss of academic staff from Ghanaian technical universities may be influenced by political appointments. The participants indicated that political appointments represent a “national call” for citizens to serve their country. Some academic staff quit because they were appointed to serve in a political capacity, and this duty superseded their duty to the technical university. Moreover, academic staff preferred jobs in political offices because of the better remuneration and general conditions of service. Political appointments also have not only prestige but also the opportunity to wield power, and have authority and influence in society. An academic staff noted:

“The other thing is if the national duty requires that you leave for a different place, that is a national call; I can’t resist. The government thinks that you have the capacity to serve in this situation and if such opportunity comes then I have to inform the institution that this time it’s the state that is demanding; other than that, it will be the reason. This is a reason that will let me leave this institution; other than that; I don’t have any enough reason to leave.” [AS ATU 04]

“Academic staff for my point of view, they are not leaving the teaching service to the other industry. That is, that one is more or less insignificant, but leaving from the technical universities to the mainstream university and to other political appointment is the main problem in the university set out. A lot of them, they get the opportunity, they join the politics, then picking up a political appointment, that is one of the areas normally they move to. For example, this year we lost about two of our lecturers into the mainstream politics; they have been appointed as government appointees for DCEs [District Chief Executives], but moving from the teaching to the industry that is insignificant.” [AS STU 06]

Another participant added:

“Others too are for a political appointment and so we have few cases where people leave to take up an appointment to serve in a political capacity than serving in an academic capacity. So, these are some of the causes of academic staff turnover.” [AS TaTU 06]

5.2.3.3 Theme: Staff poaching

This study found that technical university staff, especially the talented and qualified staff, were poached by traditional universities. In many instances traditional universities, especially private-sector universities, extend offers with attractive remuneration packages to academic staff in technical universities. The increasing

number of private universities in major urban towns and cities has generally driven the demand for qualified and experienced staff. This situation is partly created by the demand from the NAB that newly established universities demonstrate they have qualified and experienced staff before they are given institutional and program accreditation. Therefore, newly established universities have limited options other than to engage in staff poaching to meet their regulatory demands. Given that conditions of service are less attractive in technical universities in Ghana than in traditional public universities, technical universities remain vulnerable to labour poaching.

Academic staff are motivated to leave because of better service conditions attached to other job opportunities; academic staff see these new opportunities as avenues to earn a higher salary and enjoy better conditions of service.

For instance, an academic staff member said:

“If there are better opportunities over there; but that one is the basic rationale for every human being. If you are working at a place and you have better opportunities somewhere, you will leave. Like if I am here and Legon needs my services and they are ready to pay me a good salary every month, definitely I would not be here. I would leave. So, everybody is motivated by better service condition to leave, but where the opportunities are not there, you make do with where you find yourself. And that is where we find ourselves now; the opportunities are limited. So, it limits our turnover rates. We are not able to leave because the opportunities are slim. You find yourself one, you cannot get a job, you can't ... so as much as possible you try to glue to your job and stay on the job.” [AS ATU 02]

A participant confirmed:

“I believe one of them is ... people leave, we have a lot of them leaving ... sometimes most people get some juicy appointment somewhere, maybe one of the traditional universities like Legon and KNUST, and they will leave, or they may get an offer from a corporate institution, and then they go. Yea, these are the main reasons why they leave. But it’s not all that rampant in our part. In this institution, it’s not rampant; it’s not rampant.”
[AS ATU 03]

A former academic staff member noted:

“I was teaching there alright. But Catholic University came into the system, so I was doing part-time in the Catholic University. Finally, they signed me on as a full-time teacher, so I left. I have told you that I had wanted to explore a new place. I am a Catholic and they invite me to come, so I think I am coming to work on my own which is also a Ghanaian institution. The teaching appointment they gave me. The salary here was much better than the polytechnic, so that is one factor.” [Ex AS STU 01]

Apart from poaching by newly established private universities, the traditional universities also target the best talent and most qualified academic staff from technical universities. A participant stated:

“They are poached because invariably the traditional universities have most of their departments depleting because of ageing, people might have gone on retirement, others are natural causes, so they need to fill them. So, as they get this absence and vacancies, they actually look into technical universities, and they are poached.” [AS KsTU 01]

Staff poaching is increasing because traditional universities are well resourced, have recognition and high prestige, and have better remunerated staff than their counterparts in technical universities.

“I think most people leave because they find a better job somewhere, elsewhere with higher pay and better conditions. So, then they leave. That

is the major reason I see from people I know who leave. They leave for a better job as compared to what pertains in the Sunyani technical university.” [AS STU 7]

5.3 Current Retention Strategies (Organisational Inducements) to Retain Academic Staff in Ghanaian Technical Universities

The exit of academic staff from technical universities in Ghana has been influenced by several organisational and personal factors. According to the HRM literature, job dissatisfaction and turnover are lessened when employees receive appropriate and adequate inducement for contributing their efforts, time, skills and knowledge towards the development of their institutions (Morrell, 2016). Inducements are given to employees to promote their continued participation in making contributions to the existence of the organisation (March & Simon, 1958; Morrell, 2016). Technical universities, unlike the private and traditional universities in Ghana, are currently not well endowed with various attractive packages, a satisfactory work environment and physical infrastructure. Notwithstanding, employees expect inducements in return for their contribution to their institutions. The study findings on current organisational inducements used by management to persuade academic staff to remain with their institutions are categorised into themes and aggregated into work-related, economic and health and well-being dimensions (Table 5-2).

Table 5-2: Summary of Findings on Current Retention Strategies to Retain Academic Staff in Technical Universities in Ghana

First Order concepts	Second-Order themes	Aggregate dimensions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Office accommodation</i> • <i>Lecture halls</i> • <i>Availability of projectors, laboratories, workshops, and computers</i> 	Infrastructure and facilities	Work-related strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) for grants and scholarship packages with local and foreign universities</i> 	Institutional collaboration	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Training and development</i> • <i>Building capacities of academic staff</i> • <i>Study leave with pay</i> • <i>Ghana Education Trust Fund [GETFund] support</i> • <i>Fairness and transparency in the award of scholarships</i> • <i>Bonding or contract</i> • <i>Promotions & recognition</i> • <i>Appointments</i> • <i>Heads of schools</i> • <i>Serving on committees</i> 	Opportunities for career development and advancement	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Extra free time</i> • <i>Part-time teaching</i> • <i>Evening school</i> • <i>Preparing books or handouts for sale to students</i> 	Flexible work arrangements	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Involvement in decision making</i> 	Procedural justice and transparency	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Loan schemes and car/vehicle allowances</i> • <i>Bank loans with low interest rates</i> 	Financial incentives	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Housing loans</i> • <i>Rent advance</i> • <i>Owner-occupier policy</i> 	Subsidised Accommodation	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Counselling services for academic staff</i> • <i>Providing support during naming and wedding ceremonies of academic staff</i> • <i>Hospital insurance policy</i> 	Academic staff well-being	Health and well-being strategies

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

5.3.1 Work-related Strategies

The study found that the management of technical universities uses various kinds of work-related inducements with the aim of improving the working environment in order to retain academic staff. Prior HRM literature highlights that academic staff need a satisfactory and favourable work environment, which directly results in an increased commitment to the organisation. The themes under work-related strategies consist of improved infrastructure and facilities, institutional collaboration, opportunities for career development and advancement, flexible work arrangements, and procedural justice and transparency.

5.3.1.1 Theme: Infrastructure and facilities

The evidence from the study suggests that for the past four years most technical universities have made a significant effort to provide improved physical infrastructure and facilities. Participants highlighted the provision of some state-of-the-art classrooms, engineering equipment, laboratories and office space. Unlike previously, this new and emerging infrastructure is well ventilated or air-conditioned, and most of the recently built lecture halls have the capacity to accommodate large student numbers. The participants further noted that the provision of academic facilities such as office space, lecture halls and projectors is an important improvement in the work environment. Albeit, the rate of infrastructural expansion and the better facilities are still inadequate to meet the continuously increasing enrolment numbers of students. These improvements in the physical infrastructure are unevenly distributed throughout the various technical universities. For example, Accra Technical University and several others mostly located in the south have improved their infrastructure and facilities more than others, particularly those schools the north. A participant reported:

“GETFund [Ghana Education Trust Fund] has put up very beautiful structures; I mean so many structures but the latest is the faculty of engineering block. Very beautiful, very big, ventilated, air-conditioned and most of the lecture theatres are opened to make them more legal to accommodate the intake of ventilation. And lighting is provided

adequately to cater for lectures. So, this one we don't have problems with structures." [HR TaTU 01]

A respondent noted:

"Good working environment, offices right. We need offices, we need computers and other things to work. Good salaries, allowances must be the same and there should be a cordial relationship between management and staff. There should be policies and guidelines. If you want to be promoted these are the ways you should go about it. If you want to go for further studies, there should be strategies. You have been here for some time, because of this you qualify to go on study leave and they should not pickpocket them to do this. Like I said offices one, I talked about allowances, money and other things." [AS KsTU 05]

Participants stated that the recent construction of lecture halls and office space funded by the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund) had improved their working environment, which allowed them to work freely without a sense of difficulty and frustration, although they considered more is still required. Some participants indicated that since being appointed as academic staff some years ago, they had been sharing the general staff common room, but recently they were allocated office spaces with only one or two colleagues. Although they would have preferred individual offices, they were happy to finally share an office with only one colleague, rather than sharing a staff common room with 35 colleagues. This improvement gave them some comfort and a sense of freedom. Many participants joyfully and excitedly told how the recent upgrading of infrastructure, particularly lecture halls with modern ventilation systems, library facilities and office accommodation, had created a sense of belonging and interest in working in their institutions.

A former member of academic staff confirmed:

"Generally, yes, because everybody wants a very good office to work in; when I was leaving, we were okay." [Ex AS ATU 02]

Government commitment to supporting technical education, which had been relegated to second class status after independence, has occasioned the recent upgrading of some infrastructure. This commitment, demonstrated by the recent improvements in technical universities, has made them more comparable to traditional universities.

A participant stated:

“So that in all, I have my laboratory and my condition of service is good. I have my workshop, I have my office, I have my key to my office, a computer is there, and the internet is working. And when I move to the lab the machines are working, and electricity is on. So, why should I leave? In any case, any work I will do here, it is the same amount I will be receiving if I leave here and go to Legon or KNUST. The same allowances.” [UM KsTU 01]

5.3.1.2 Theme: Institutional collaboration

Institutional collaboration and teamwork create collegiality between higher education institutions and industry partners within Ghana and beyond towards the advancement of teaching and research outcomes. Technical universities are currently establishing institutional–industrial collaborations both in Ghana and abroad, including with China, Japan and South Africa. The collaborations aim to create opportunities for academic staff to partner with other institutions to conduct research and to source funding to support their teaching, research and career advancement. Participants noted that the technical universities had already created some networks in Ghana and abroad. Consequently, some staff are receiving financial and technical support to undertake research projects and have also benefited by upskilling themselves. A participant noted that through an institutional collaboration he had travelled to China to participate in workshops and seminars. Another important dimension of institutional collaboration occurs when memoranda of understanding between Ghanaian and international higher education institutions are reached (e.g. with China, Italy, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands). These memoranda assist in training academic staff to complete degrees

to meet the required teaching standards for universities. These collaborations have increased the number of academic staff with degrees in the past few years.

An HR manager noted:

“The institution is also liaising with other sister institution both within and outside to grant scholarship packages for our teaching staff; and we have got one sister institution in China which in the past three years has granted not less than four full scholarship to our staff in the courses of IT.” [HR TaTU 01]

Another participant noted:

“That one, they are doing their best. It is recently ... and they are trying to sign a memorandum with other universities outside so that some of our people can also go.” [AS STU 05]

Four academic staff from Tamale Technical University were offered scholarships to study Information Communication Technology (ICT) in China, while twelve staff from the Business School of Accra Technical University were placed under a collaborative doctoral study program at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Ghana.

A participant reported:

“Training and development is actually a factor. We are trying to improve and increase the number of teaching staff who wants further studies in the academic year. So currently we are having four of our staff on scholarship.” [HR TaTU 01]

Another participant noted:

“I think it’s the staff training. I have told you already that this year they are sending twelve students from the Business School alone to KNUST for PhD. I think you are also going to sign a bond. After you have finished you

have to stay there for four years, five years and ... that is not bad. Isn't it? So, it's one of the things they are doing." [AS STU 01]

5.3.1.3 Theme: Opportunities for career development and advancement

Participants from all technical universities demonstrated some convergence in their responses on the provision of training and special career growth and development initiatives to ensure they build the required human capital and retain staff. Technical universities need to build the capacity and increase the number of academic staff with terminal degrees to increase their contribution to the core activities of the institution. Recently, technical universities have demonstrated significant commitment by allocating IGF to support career development through offering scholarships and reimbursement of school fees to their academic staff.

An academic staff member highlighted:

"One specific strategy that I know of is the sponsorship that has been started. Because now if you are here even though you may not be part of the first few people who are been granted sponsorship, you know that next year the following year some people will also be given. And it is a good reason why I would want to stay in order to benefit from this sponsorship packages. That is the main reason specific strategy I have seen from the management of this university." [AS STU 07]

These internal sponsorship arrangements have helped some academic staff upskill and remain committed to their institutions after benefiting from such career development initiatives. Academic staff without terminal degrees felt that staying with these universities would also help them to advance their careers by completing degrees in the future.

A participant indicated:

“Yes, some of them you see, for instance, we have the academic progression. Postgraduate studies and things. There is an opportunity, if you want to progress the school can sponsor you. So currently we have about more than 20 people who are pursuing a PhD and the school is sponsoring them. Some partially, some fully. So, some people are going to stay to enjoy this benefit. So, they would not go.” [HR ATU 01]

Academics from the four universities acknowledged that currently many academic staff are given the opportunity to pursue further studies, which demonstrates the universities’ commitment to supporting staff advance their careers. The study found that the management of the universities was enthusiastic about and committed to taking advantage of the partnerships established with other universities both in Ghana and abroad to ensure that many of their academic staff members undertake their terminal degrees.

A participant noted:

“As I said, the institution is doing a lot when it comes to staff development. Within the last three years, a lot of people have had the opportunity to further their education and then [gain] promotions.” [HR KsTU 01]

Another special career growth and development initiative within the various technical universities was establishing memoranda of understanding with the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund) to sponsor academic staff to pursue doctoral studies in Ghana and abroad. At the time of the fieldwork, more than one hundred academic staff from the eight Ghanaian technical universities were undertaking doctoral studies in various research fields. These special initiatives supported technical universities in upgrading the qualifications of their academic staff between 2013 and 2017, which has helped retain some academic staff. This management approach to academic staff development forms part of the broader strategies of talent management towards reducing the rising tide of academic staff turnover and helping tackle the problem of insufficient qualified academic staff in the Ghanaian education labour market.

In the words of an HR manager:

“One of them is the academic progression, the sponsorship that is granted them. So if you are here and you want to pursue PhD, you have the desire to go higher, you can still be here while away doing your PhD; yet still all the benefit that you are entitled to will be given to you. Because, for instance, those we are outside the country pursuing PhD and other programs, but we still pay their salary all other things due to them.”

[HR ATU 01]

Another participant said:

“Yes, some of them you see, for instance, we have the academic progression. Postgraduate studies and things. There is an opportunity, if you want to progress the school can sponsor you. So currently we have about more than twenty people who are pursuing a PhD and the school is sponsoring them. Some partially, some fully. So, some people are going to stay to enjoy this benefit. So, they would not go.” [HR ATU 01]

Yet another said:

“And we have a full scholarship that we grant others. In fact, GETFund has paid a lot of our scholarship fees to our staff. And we also have partial sponsorship where somebody goes on further and still draw the salary that the person comes back to teach normally. That is why I said depending on the program, but they are all bonded. Once you are granted study leave, first thing is to bond you and you have to accept the terms and condition of the bond before you are allowed to go, or else it could be revoked.”

[HR TaTU 01]

Technical universities in Ghana are greatly challenged with turnover of their competent and experienced staff to private and traditional universities. The study found that academic staff sponsored to undertake further training and development opportunities were contracted or bonded by management to remain with and serve the

technical university on completion of their studies for a specified number of years. Bonding is a staff-retention strategy pursued by the managements of the four selected universities. Bonding and contracts aim to limit the mobility of sponsored academic staff.

An HR manager explained:

“Once you are granted study leave, the first thing is to bond you and you have to accept the terms and condition of the bond before you are allowed to go or else it could be revoked.” [HR TaTU 01]

Another indicated:

“Currently, whoever is sponsored is bonded. We bond the person so that the person cannot leave the institution for a number of years. Ok. Depending on the duration of your program ... if it is two years, we bond you three years if it is three years we bond you for four years and if it is four years we bond you for five years and at least that alone can prevent people from leaving.” [HR STU 01]

The bond is a legal contract between the applicant and the management of the university signed in the presence of three guarantors who are held accountable if the applicant fails to return after the studies. The number of years for the bond is determined by the duration of the training program. Staff members must fulfil all the conditions of the bond before they can leave.

A participant explained:

“What we do is that you know I mention earlier once they come depending on the duration of your study. We bond them, if you go for one, you have to serve this institution for two years, if you are going for two years, you serve the institution for three years, if you are going for three years you serve the institution for four years. Then the bond must be signed by you and by your relatives and any other person within your faculty. Now you have to provide three guarantors. Now, these people must be willing and

prepared to refund the cost incurred and other expenses that might have incurred by the institution in the course of your study.” [HR TaTU 01]

Another HR manager said:

“It does because a lot of people are here because they were sponsored, and they were bonded. So, they have nowhere to go. Unless maybe they finish servicing the bond.” [HR KsTU 01]

Some beneficiaries have been able to violate their contractual agreement because most technical universities fail to police such breaches. Sometimes beneficiaries completed their studies and failed to return to their institutions to serve the bond conditions, and also failed to pay back the funds. A few secured better jobs elsewhere to work and pay off the funds.

The study further revealed that technical universities provide a more flexible promotion system than do traditional universities: the evidence suggests that academic staff in technical universities are promoted to senior lecturer or professorial ranks faster than their counterparts in traditional universities. A participant noted that he started at the same rank as colleagues in other traditional universities, but after a few years he was promoted to senior lecturer while his colleagues were still lecturers.

Another participant noted:

“This school does well regarding appointment and promotion. Within a short time, they have been able to promote a lot of lecturers to senior lecturer status. And most of them are very happy. It’s not easy getting senior lectureship status in any other public universities or traditional universities but this place has provided a condition for them and that is one.” [AS ATU 05]

Another participant revealed:

“For so many years, there were no modalities for you to be promoted. So, it was around that time that lecturers were agitating, the unions were agitating to leave. Luckily, we got a professor who was a lecturer here who changed the face of promotion, get the documents done and those who have been here for a long time were given the opportunity to be promoted to senior lecturers and then associate professors or principal lecturer.”

[AS ATU 07]

HR participants from all the selected universities revealed that management used promotion and appointment to serve in various capacities (e.g. heads of departments and committees) as an organisational inducement strategy to motivate staff both financially and non-financially. Serving in different administrative roles comes with significant financial rewards in most tertiary education institutions. Many academic staff are influenced by the large financial benefits to declare their interest and desire to serve. The opportunity for academic staff to take up administrative responsibilities may induce many to stay. They are less likely to move to new institutions where they might wait for some few years for the opportunity to serve in such lucrative administrative capacities. Moreover, the main criteria for selection for these positions are seniority and years of services in the institution. Serving in these administrative capacities further strengthens academic staff's opportunities for promotion. These roles are rotated to ensure that all academic staff benefit from such responsibilities by increasing their chances of promotion.

“Having stayed here for long or serve a certain number of years, it probably gives you the opportunity to be closer to certain appointments like been an HoD or been a dean or been eligible to contest for certain portfolios. If you move to another institution, you must have to go and mark time; do another four years or so before you can get the chance to be promoted. For example, if I have been a lecturer and I have served about three years here and I am just left with roughly one year to get to four years to get the chance to be promoted to a senior lecturer, if I decide to

leave on the third year and get to another institution somewhere, I might have to go and serve additional four year before I can get the chance to be promoted to a senior lecturer. Inducement, maybe appointments to a certain position like HODs, course coordinator, exams officer.”
[UM TaTU 02]

It was also revealed that management in technical universities has demonstrated a strong commitment to fast-tracking administrative procedures in the promotion process. Management ensures that academic staff with the required publications and teaching evaluations, together with some level of community service, pass through the process without the difficulties and delays previously perceived by many staff. These acts to support academic staff in their career advancement were alluded to by participants as an important incentive to stay.

An academic explained:

“Yes, scholarship. Or offering me something like responsibility in the school that could also be another way of trapping me down. You could have just said ok, you are back. Ok to let make you the head of the department or let make you this in charge of that. Then in that way, I could also look at it: well we want to grow so let me see how best I can also experience whatever responsibility given me here and that could also be a factor.” [EX AS KsTU 02]

A participant noted:

“Apart from training and development, appointment or promotion is also another key factor as far as the institution is concerned; we don’t want to delay the promotion of staff.” [HR TaTU 01]

The study also showed that recognition of deserving academic staff was an emerging approach in technical universities as a people-management strategy to support

retention of their academic staff. For example, some of the technical universities have instituted a “best worker” award with the aim of encouraging staff to stay longer:

“Recognition of the contribution to the technical universities. If one introduces an idea that will benefit the university, there is a proper way of remunerating the person.” [UM ATU O1]

A participant noted:

“Two years ago, they introduced the best worker award that may also have encouraged people to work hard.” [UM ATU O1]

And another:

“A lot of promotions and these are some of the reasons why people are staying but let me tell you. They are looking at remuneration, they are looking at the conditions at those institutions, they are looking at how well the prestige associated with those universities. They are looking at so many other things. So that one is part, promotion is part, but there are other factors that probably will let people leave.” [HR KsTU 01]

5.3.1.4 Theme: Flexible work arrangements

Some participants argued that they stayed with the technical universities because of the flexibility in carrying out their duties and responsibilities that supports work–life balance and work–family balance.

A participant noted:

“Somebody teaches the regular time like this and after 4 o’clock the school has closed. So, all those who come to school after 4 o’clock, that 4 pm to 9 pm they are more like what we call the parallel program or evening program. They have paid tuition and the tuition fee component are shared for the teachers and the department that engages those teachers. So, if somebody is able to teach in this program the person is getting the money.

These are institutionally induced and once you go to someplace if you go to the departments with higher numbers, they are happy in those areas. Because at the end of the semester somebody can be making 10,000 from that one alone. Somebody can be making 8000 from that one alone. So that is good for the person. This is institutionally induced.” [UM KsTU 01]

Flexibility in work arrangements also offers financial benefits when academic staff engage in part-time work with other institutions. Some academic staff have limited teaching allocations, which gives them the opportunity to teach in other universities and undertake their private business activities. Participants indicated that work flexibility was something that frequently influenced their decision to stay. They believed that this flexibility may not exist in other industries or traditional universities. For example, some participants said that they earned between USD1000 and USD1500 (GHC8000–GHC10,000) from part-time teaching. For them, this was sufficient motivation to stay in a technical university with a flexible job schedule. Although this arrangement generally reduces work-hours in these technical universities, management has relaxed some policies regarding full-time academic staff commitment. They generally choose to ignore the practice of staff having second jobs to allow their staff to explore other business opportunities. The staff can then generate additional income to supplement their wages, which are considered low compared to the wages of their counterparts in traditional universities. The study further noted that technical universities have introduced weekend and evening school programs targeting full-time workers. Programs are offered alongside the regular programs. Lecturers who teach these programs are paid as part-time staff. Academic staff were willing to do extra teaching in these programs since it provided additional income, which led staff to compete for the positions.

A union member said:

“We have what is called part-time teaching that people always fight on it. People are prepared to teach more in the evening and in the weekend programs because it gives them more money. Because the institution has made it in such a way that the fees that are paid for the evening school,

they put what they call tuition fee on it. So, all the tuition fees are for the teachers who will teach in the evening program. So, this is institutionally induced form of an allowance.” [UM ATU 01]

Another participant said:

“Maybe the flexibility of the work. The lecturers are given the opportunity to prepare their own books or handouts to sell to students. And they also make income from those ones. And there are other benefits they make among, within themselves. As an academic staff, you have the whole week, about eight hour or twelve hours to teach. After doing that and doing the extra, the rest of the hours are yours depending on what you do with the hours. So, you can go out to take a part-time appointment somewhere then make extra income. Because you have fixed income here and you go and get additional income outside.” [HR ATU 01]

5.3.1.5 Theme: Procedural justice and transparency

One institutional factor widely discussed in the literature on employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover and retention is the issue of institutional justice. This researcher observed that ensuring institutional justice helps moderate turnover among academic staff. Institutional justice revolves around procedural justice and transparency, which has been lacking in people management across the various technical universities. This may be attributed to diverse factors, including ethnic and tribal segregation and political polarisation across the various ethnic groupings. These factors make it extremely difficult to eliminate issues of favouritism and nepotism among in-groups and out-groups. However, the management of technical universities is now making significant effort to maintain fairness, transparency and impartiality within the workplace.

A participant noted:

“You see if there is no fairness, sometimes it breeds a lot of concerns whereby people become unhappy about how some people became deans and head of departments. Management uses committee system to make sure that whenever there is a decision that needs to be taken, it is not taken by only one person, but a committee works on it and submits its report, and a decision taken. So management try to bring everyone on board so that their concerns are taken on board.” [AS KsTU]

Another participant explained:

“As I indicated, they are actually fair when it comes to staff development. They are fair when you qualify. They give it to you. They are very fair. There is no partiality in selecting people for further studies, promotions, and appointment to HoDs or as a dean because there are different people sitting on the board that take such decisions. So, where you don’t meet the requirements or qualify, the committee simply tells you, you are not. They give it to people who meet the requirements and not discriminate based on ethnicity or religion.” [AS ATU 02]

5.3.2 Economic Strategies

Universities have offered attractive financial inducements such as subsidised accommodation facilities for academic staff in a bid to support and retain them. The current organisational inducements used to persuade academic staff to remain are broadly categorised as “economic strategies” and comprise three themes.

5.3.2.1 Theme: Financial incentives

Technical universities support staff with loan schemes to purchase vehicles or offer vehicle allowances. Generally, the interest rates charged by Ghanaian financial institutions compelled university management to grant loans with low interest rates to

their academic staff to eliminate difficulties in obtaining bank loans. In addition, participants explained that management gave them rental loans for which the repayment arrangements were very flexible:

“Also, the whole compensation structure is well packaged such that people get what they want here; they wouldn’t think of leaving. So, if I get everything that I want here what other institutions are enjoying, if I have it here, I think they wouldn’t be any reason for me to leave. So, I think they have to look at that one too.” [AS KsTU 02]

Another participant said:

“I have talked about car loans. It’s not easy if you go to the bank to borrow to buy a car. The interest rate is very high but the car loan that we give here the interest rate is very low. So that is the motivational factor. Aside from that, the rent loan is also subsidised. So, all these things put together will motivate staff to stay or may induce them to stay, because if you know you have worked for more than three years they can sponsor you to go for further training. Then another one is fuel allowance and car maintenance allowance to staff. These are been paid every month so there is regular payment in addition to their salaries. These are specific things that are implemented.” [HR STU 01]

And another:

“Staff loans and those things have been, but you see now because the controller pays us. Loan affordability ratio at controller makes it even impossible for them to take the loan. But ATU, whatever loan you need whether it is a special loan, rent loan, motor loan, once it is advertised and you apply you will get it.” [UM ATU 01]

5.3.2.2 Theme: Subsidised accommodation

Although not very attractive compared with the accommodation facilities offered by traditional universities, the evidence suggested that employees of technical universities who are given a residential facility do not want to leave the organisation. Management of the selected institutions helped their academic staff to overcome the difficulty associated with obtaining accommodation, which has become a national challenge.

A participant noted:

“Well some of them, you know conditions in Accra is very difficult. Very hard, so some of them they have accommodation here, so when you compare accommodation, city accommodation outside and here you might think that this place is better. Accommodation is not easy to come by at the university. And then we have other soft loans and other things that they receive from the institution. So, accommodation is one of the factors that have made the staff stay. The accommodation has also contributed to retention.” [HR ATU 01]

Another HR manager explained:

“Sometimes they have difficulties concerning accommodation; the institution also gives them rent advance so that they are able to rent accommodation wherever they want, and where the accommodation is available it is allocated to them. Besides this, in fact, I will say that the institution handles individuals as a family for the years.” [HR TaTU 01]

And a participant noted:

“Well perhaps, it [accommodation] is one of the things that may be used to persuade people.” [AS TaTU 03]

The study also revealed that the management of technical universities has implemented several measures to ensure that accommodation and housing facilities are available. Through the introduction of the owner-occupier policy, management pays an

allowance to academic staff who live in their own residential properties. In addition, management leases some residential properties for use by academic staff and deducts the lease amount from their monthly salaries.

A manager explained:

“We also introduce rent loan that we give loans to the staff at a subsidised rate so that they can rent their own accommodation. And are also trying to introduce what we call owner-occupier so that if you have your own houses, we can give you some allowance, at least, and that will motivate others to put up their own houses to reduce stress on the few that we have.”
[HR STU 01]

Another manager said:

“Accommodation for staff has been provided. Yes, it is been improved but we still have a long way to go looking at our number of staff and the number of residents that we are able to provide. We have managed to build a few ... And then we have also rented some houses for some of our staff and then we deduct monthly instead of the person going to pay the huge sums for a year or two.” [HR KsTU 01]

5.3.3 Health and Well-being Strategies

The study found that the quality of life of academic staff has been improved through activities designed to promote staff well-being in technical universities in Ghana.

5.3.3.1 Theme: Academic staff well-being

Management of technical universities in Ghana have implemented a constellation of activities aimed at promoting the satisfaction and welfare of academic staff. However, the practices do not compare favourably with those of traditional universities. The technical universities try to treat their individual staff as family members and support them socially, including officially representing the institution at naming ceremonies,

weddings and funerals. The universities provide logistical and financial support for these events in the form of transportation and cash. For example, university vehicles are offered to the staff member without any financial obligation. However, there were many instances where academic staff perceived unfairness and favouritism in granting access to institutional logistical support.

A participant noted:

“Besides this, in fact, I will say that the institution handles individuals as a family for the years. To be honest with you, it will surprise you that you could have come here in one of your visits and notice that buses are standing and they are moving to people to say hello to somebody for either naming ceremony, wedding, social issues; they go in their numbers, they support you to do whatever social issue that you are found yourself in.” [HR TaTU 01]

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction



There is a growing demand for academic staff in higher education institutions, especially technical universities in Ghana. In the midst of this demand for staff in these institutions is a continuous drift of qualified and experienced academic staff to traditional universities and other industries. The thrust of this study was to explore factors that contribute to turnover among academic staff, towards developing appropriate retention strategies for minimising turnover within technical universities in Ghana. This chapter discusses the study findings in relation to the current body of existing knowledge. The narratives presented in the preceding chapter demonstrate that the conditions of employment and actions of management of these technical institutions have implications for academic staff turnover and retention. These implications necessitate management action to implement appropriate measures to induce academic staff retention. The chapter is organised into three sections that correlate with the research questions of the study. The first section discusses factors that contribute to academic staff turnover from three dimensions or perspectives: personal factors, organisation-wide factors, and external factors. The second section is devoted to a discussion of key findings that relate to the strategies being pursued by technical universities to encourage staff retention. The third section evaluates the impact of these current retention strategies towards academic staff retention.

Table 6-1 summarises the factors affecting turnover and the current staff-retention strategies of technical universities in Ghana. It is evident from Table 6-1 that, apart from improving infrastructure and facilities, procedural justice and transparency, opportunities for career development and advancement, financial incentives and subsidised accommodation, there are no retention strategies to counter most of the factors instigating academic staff turnover. Consequently, these unaddressed factors affect the effectiveness of current strategies to moderate academic staff turnover.

Table 6-1: Summary of Findings (Turnover Factors and Retention Strategies) in Ghanaian Technical Universities

Turnover factors	Retention strategies in Ghanaian technical universities
Family-related issues	No strategy
Age of academic staff	No strategy
Social and interpersonal relationships	No strategy
Poor work environment	Improved infrastructure and facilities
Issues of governance and managerial leadership style Procedural injustice	Procedural justice and transparency
Workload and skills misalignment	Flexible work arrangements
Occupational health and safety standards	No strategy
Qualifications and experience of academic staff	No strategy
Quality of students enrolled	No strategy
Professional image and recognition	No strategy
People-management practices Work performance and recognition Compensations and Benefits	Opportunities for career growth and advancement Institutional collaboration Financial incentives Subsidised Accommodation
Geographical location and access	No strategy
Political appointments	No strategy
Staff Poaching	No strategy

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

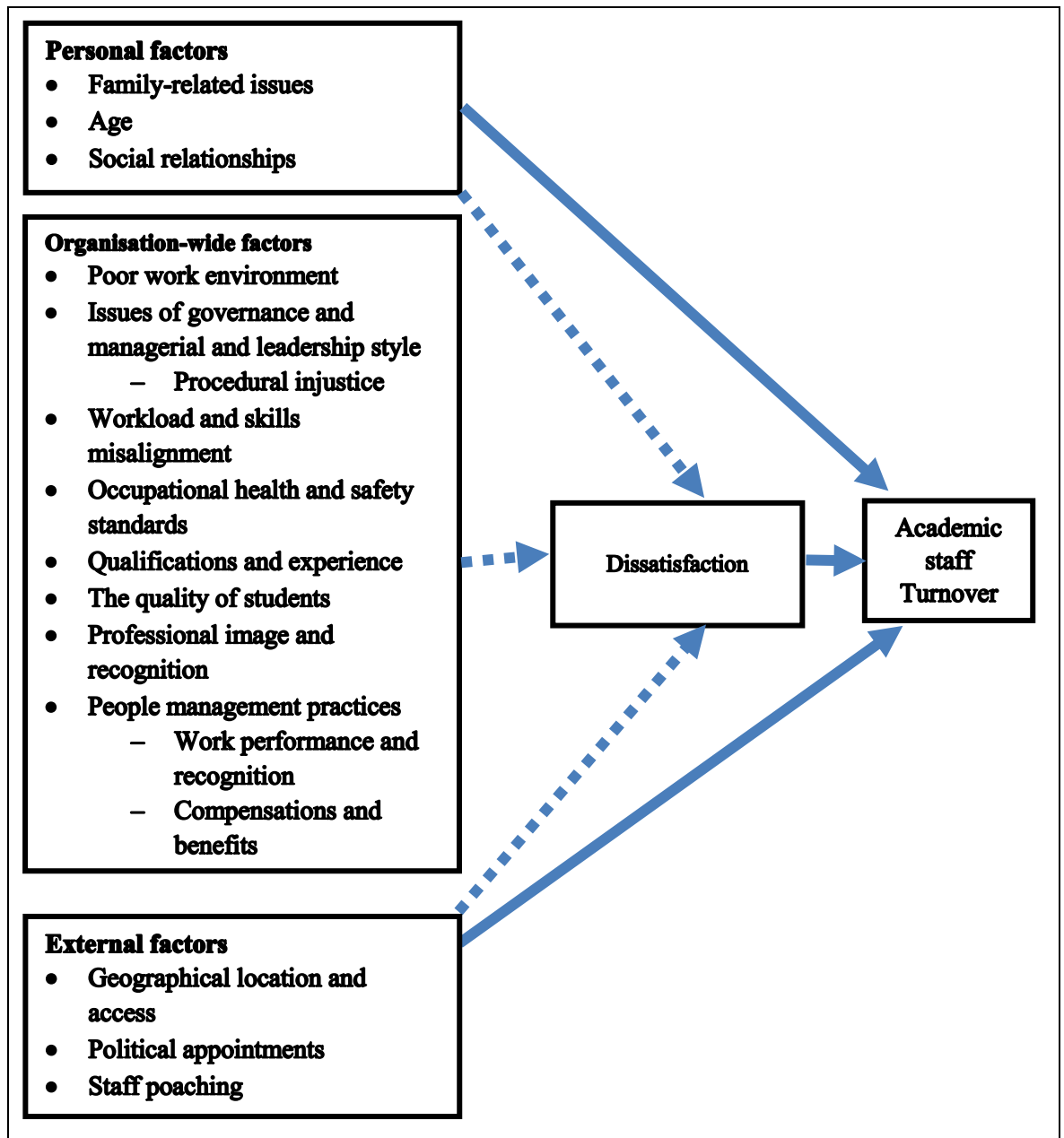
Legend: Gap 
Matched 

6.2 Factors that Contribute to Academic Staff Turnover



The study found several factors underpinning academic staff turnover in technical universities. The physical work environment within these institutions does not support effective teaching and research or promote staff satisfaction relative to the contributions made by academic staff members towards the growth and development of technical universities in Ghana. This poor physical environment reflects Spector and Jex's (1998) observation that organisational constraints that hinder employees from discharging their work roles, duties and responsibilities may lead to eventual turnover. In addition, the social and physical work environment in which academic staff find themselves significantly affects the organisational climate (Adeniji, 2011; Nicholson & Miljus, 1992). When not in tune with the desired organisational climate, academic staff perceptions and feelings about their social and physical work environment or institution breed dissatisfaction and discontent, which may lead to high staff turnover (Adeniji, 2011; Semu & Tadesse, 2019). Nevertheless, the inclination to turnover by employees could be reduced by personal factors and external factors, although these factors may also promote employee turnover (Zimmerman, Swider & Boswell, 2019).

The study found academic staff turnover was occasioned by several organisational, economic and personal factors. These findings are discussed through the lens of the two main dimensions of organisational equilibrium theory, (work-related) contributions and organisational inducements and job satisfaction (retention strategies) as per the theoretical framework shown in Figure 6-1.

Figure 6-1: Theoretical model of turnover factors for academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities



Source: Fieldwork, 2018, adapted from Morrell et al., 2001

Legend: Direct relationship 
 Indirect relationship 

The evidence from this study supports the theoretical argument in that both factors and conditions directly and indirectly influence and affect employee turnover. Personal

factors such as ageism and family-related issues and external factors such as geographical location and access, political appointments and staff poaching directly affected academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities, but organisational factors such as poor work environment, procedural injustice and inappropriate people-management practices triggered employee dissatisfaction and indirectly contributed to academic staff turnover. The evidence supports the evolving HRM literature that job satisfaction is directly and inversely related to employee retention and turnover (Katsikea, Theodosiou, & Morgan, 2015). The overall propensity to move out of an organisation is mediated by perceived desirability of leaving the current job and perceived ease of mobility (mediated by the supply of jobs). These two factors constitute the main precursors to an individual's motivation to leave an organisation (Morrell, 2016; Singh & Loncar, 2010). The perceived desirability of quitting the current job is influenced by job attitudes such as satisfaction, organisational commitment, and the possibility of transferability within other organisations (Kim & Min Park, 2014; WeiBo, Kaur, & Zhi, 2010).

In this study, the underpinning drivers of employee turnover were organisation-wide factors, personal factors (social relationships) and some external factors such as geographical location and access. These factors are indirectly related to turnover through job dissatisfaction, while job dissatisfaction, personal factors (family-related issues and age) and external factors (poaching and political appointments) were directly related to academic staff turnover. Other factors identified as causes of academic staff turnover but not highlighted through the lens of organisational equilibrium theory are also discussed.

6.2.1 Personal Factors

The findings established that personal factors that affect the exit of academic staff from technical universities are linked to family-related issues and are influenced by the age differentials of academic staff. In addition, poor interpersonal or social relationships within the work environment are associated with staff disaffection and their early exit from technical universities.

6.2.1.1 Theme: Family-related issues

It emerged from the study that family issues serve as external shocks that often cause turnover intentions among employees within an organisation (Holtom et al., 2017; Mitchell et al., 2001). Although academic staff may intend to stay, the absence of work–family balance can potentially trigger academic staff exit.

Generally, there is considerable evidence within the HRM literature to suggest that workers are stressed by work–family conflicts (Fettró & Nomaguchi, 2018; Park, Lee & Bae, 2018). Although employees have both family and nonfamily issues to deal with, family issues are prioritised above other issues. Óskarsdóttir (2015) argued that work–family conflict causes stress among employees that is consequential to their actual turnover behaviour. Extant literature segregates work–family conflicts into work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC) (Anafarta, 2011; Byron, 2005; Zhao, Zhang & Foley, 2019). WFC denotes the impact of work on family whereas FWC denotes the impact of family on work. Various studies, including Chen et al. (2015) and Claflin, Sorensen, Velez, & Stewart, (2019) confirmed the impact of work on family life and WFC as the major determinants underpinning employee turnover. According to Nohe and Sonnentag (2014), employees who have extensive family–work conflicts may attempt to reduce the conflict by terminating their employment. Therefore, withdrawal can be seen as a coping response to conflicting demands of work and family. In particular, employees who experienced WFC may be inclined to quit and look for a more family-friendly job to avoid the effects of WFC. Likewise, if the family responsibilities of an employee conflict with labour obligations (FWC), the employee may seek to reduce the conflict to better meet family obligations (Boyar et al., 2003). The findings from this study also correspond with the literature on cross-cultural studies that found positive correlations between both WFC and FWC and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011). According to Groot, Muffels, and Verlaat (2019), people work because they want to earn income to help meet the daily needs of their families. However, whenever the basic family needs are not met by the average income of academic staff, they may exit due to financial distress.

Arguably, the evidence associated with family issues revolved primarily around proximity to the immediate family. Chen et al. (2015) posit that due to emerging social structures resulting from people's pursuit of careers to earn a living, there is the perseverance to keep at par work and family responsibilities. A prevailing social structure, for example, partners with dual or divergent careers, may cause the issue of distance within families. Many academic staff's immediate families were located in other parts of the country due to work commitments. Without any opportunity for transfer, this was a compelling driver of both intention to exit and actual exit. Employee transfer is common in the public sector on grounds of reuniting with families, but employees working in the private sector have limited opportunities for such transfers. Thus, a theme commonly cited by participants was proximity to family, which was a driver of their early exit. Proximity to family does not feature heavily in the literature as a key determinant of employee turnover intention or actual turnover, but is a key driver particularly in collectivist societies where family underpins or constitutes the bedrock of society (Chadda & Deb, 2013). Smit (2001) argued that Africans cherish collectivism and place great value on family-group orientation, exemplified by the proximate relations that exist among African families. This psychosocial attitude and behaviour, evident in typical Ghanaian families, emphasises the need for families to stay connected verbally and, especially, physically (Goody, 2005; Mampane, Mampane & Ocansey, 2019). When collectivism is strained by lack of proximity, an individual may cut ties with the strain (job) to embrace collectivism (Jetten, Postmes & McAuliffe, 2002). In Ghana's family system, both parents are required by society to raise children. In addition, in Muslim communities, which constitute about 18% of the Ghanaian population, married women are not permitted to live separately and must observe the tradition of family proximity with their husbands (Blanchy, 2019; Cudjoe, Abdullah & Chiu, 2019). Further, due to the segregation of family roles between married men and women, it is extremely challenging for couples to live in separate locations in typical collectivist societies (Campbell, 2019; Miller & Kannae, 1999). This study highlights these important cultural dynamics play a key role in influencing academic staff intentions to exit or actual exit in collectivist societies.

These dynamics require further research attention. The evidence suggests that the propensity to quit a job because of family proximity is higher for women than for men in Ghanaian technical universities. Caring responsibilities play a role in turnover among academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities. For example, some academics terminated their engagement with technical universities in other parts of Ghana not because of poor conditions of service but because they wanted to be close to (and care for) their ageing parents who resided elsewhere within the country (Aboderin, 2017). The absence of aged-care homes in Ghana, as in developed countries, reinforces the need for parental caring responsibilities within individual families (Lee, Hom, Eberly & Li, 2017). In Ghana and other African countries, the sociocultural orientation is to care for the aged and is regarded as the sole responsibility of immediate family members, especially the children of aged parents. This practice has developed into a social obligation for children in Ghanaian society and has important consequences for both employee turnover intentions and actual turnover.

6.2.1.2 Theme: Age of academic staff

An important finding associated with personal factors regarding academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities was the age demographic of academic staff. The evidence highlighted the influence of age in determining academic staff turnover intentions and actual exit. For example, older academic staff were less to exit than younger academic staff as noted in the pattern of academic staff turnover of the past decade. Several factors were identified to account for the age differentials in staff turnover. First, older academic staff and their families are usually well established (more stable), within their job environment and the community; they have rich social capital and are more likely to stay (Feeley, Hwang & Barnett, 2008; Vasconcelos, 2018). Mossholder, Settoon, and Henagan (2005) argued that older academic staff are more reluctant than young academics to quit their working relationships with their organisations. This assertion corresponds with the evolving literature which provides considerable support to argue that job mobility is linked to the age of the employee (Finegold, Mohrman & Spreitzer, 2002; Schubert & Andersson, 2015). In Ghana, for example, young, qualified academics aged under 40 years can easily find employment in traditional universities, while academics aged above 45 years have limited

employment opportunities in traditional universities. Historically, Ghanaian traditional universities have had recruitment restrictions for academic positions for applicants of this age. This practice is discriminatory and directly limits employment opportunities for older academics.

The practice of age discrimination in recruitment into mainstream traditional universities in Ghana explicitly reflects the notion of institutionalised discrimination (McNamara & Williamson, 2019; Nachmias, Caven, & Bradshaw, 2019). According to Helly (2004), institutionalised discrimination describes the conscious exclusion of certain categories of individuals as a result of an entrenched policy frameworks and enactments. The literature further highlights that younger employees experience an experimental phase at the outset of their career and professional life and have a higher propensity than older employees to switch workplaces (Werbel & Bedeian, 1989). The evidence in this study lends considerable support to the prior literature that suggests that a young workforce, when dissatisfied with an organisation, seeks and moves to alternative and profitable jobs more readily than do aged employees, who are deeply entrenched in their workplaces (Juhdi et al., 2011; Shahzad, Bashir & Ramay, 2008).

6.2.1.3 Theme: Social relationships

Drawing on the theoretical lens of social exchange theory, Li, Zhu, and Park (2018) support the view that leader–member exchange influences job satisfaction and employees' final decision to stay or quit. Erdogan and Liden (2002) established that ultimately social relationships borne of merited social exchange could induce positive conduct in employees. The proponents of social exchange argue that inter-reliant relationships between employers and employees lead to reciprocal and mutually beneficial relationships that beget employee job satisfaction and commitment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Huang et al., 2016). This directly corresponds with the human relations movement within the HRM literature (Ghosh & Joshi, 2016). The seminal works of Elton Mayo in the 1920s substantially influenced the job satisfaction literature (Buchanan & Bryman, 2009). The poor interpersonal relationships and the perceived autocratic managerial style exhibited by supervisors and management in the case universities deepens academic staff dissatisfaction. Fundamentally, the

destructive behaviour of leaders increases turnover intentions. Employees who are humiliated by their supervisors through verbal harassment, disrespect or ridicule are more likely to leave (Jo & Ellingson, 2019). Individual desire for belongingness as demonstrated by Maslow's hierarchy of human needs is contrary to the evidence highlighted by the study participants. The sense of belonging and identification with a social group encourages mutualism (Jungert et al., 2018). As such, personal needs are met through the opportunity to interact with others and to be accepted within the social environment. In Ghanaian technical universities, the evidence points to difficulties for some academic staff in building and maintaining strong social relations among their colleagues. Participants attributed these difficulties to ethnic and tribal segregation, tribal supremacy and political polarisation, which corresponds with the theory of social categorisation – in-group favouritism and excluded out-groups (Amodio & Devine, 2006).

Social categorisation is increasing in Ghana, particularly segregation into liked in-groups and potentially disliked out-groups (Rudman, Greenwald & McGhee, 2001). The capacity of some academic staff to build and maintain strong social relations with their colleagues is generally influenced by these social categorisations, strengthened further by ethnic and tribal diversity and the polarised political system where academic staff are either personally associated with or assigned by work colleagues (LeBas, 2018). Unsurprisingly, participants who felt themselves in the out-group social category within the work environment highlighted poor social relationships.

6.2.2 Organisation-wide Factors

The study revealed that organisation-wide factors are responsible for job dissatisfaction in Ghanaian technical universities, which consequently led to the exit of academic staff. These factors included poor work environment, issues of governance and managerial leadership style, workload and skills misalignment, occupational health and safety standards, qualifications and experience, the quality of students enrolled, and people-management practices.

6.2.2.1 Theme: Poor work environment

The study highlighted the state of the work environment in Ghanaian technical universities, particularly the physical facilities, as an important factor in staff turnover. The respondents bemoaned the deplorable state and the inadequacy of infrastructure and reiterated that this made it difficult for them to undertake teaching and research. This situation stressed academic staff and contributed to many of them leaving their institutions to join other colleges of education or public and private universities across the country with more attractive work environments. Research shows that the poor state of infrastructure contributes to job-related stress among teachers and is a cause of job turnover among faculty staff (Issah, Abubakari & Wuptiga, 2016; Lindfelt et al., 2018). Most technical universities in Ghana are experiencing several infrastructural constraints. Key among them is limited academic resources and facilities, which were found in all the case-study institutions. However, the technical universities in southern Ghana tended to be better resourced than those in northern Ghana, which directly reflects the uneven development policies of the country (Brett, 2009; Grant & Nijaman, 2004; Konadu-Agyemeng, 2000; Senadza). Issah et al. (2016) argue that in schools the lack of sufficient classrooms, instructional learning materials, offices for academic staff, well-equipped laboratories, well-equipped libraries, and sanitary facilities significantly increases teacher job stress. The physical infrastructure and resources required to create a conducive workspace for academic staff in technical universities in Ghana are seriously inadequate and are in a poor state. Employees need a working environment that allows them to work freely without a sense of difficulty and frustration. However, the findings indicate that the physical work environment does not support effective teaching and research (Figures 6.2–6.5).

Figure 6-2: An overcrowded lecture hall



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Participants specifically noted that the unattractiveness of the work environment of the university, such as poor physical infrastructure and the lack of teaching and learning resources, was a drain on their effort to impart knowledge to their students and contribute to research.

Several participants narrated their experiences of having to share a small office space designed to accommodate only two staff members with three other staff members. They further noted that the poor ventilation and lighting system posed serious occupational health and safety hazards. The poor state of infrastructure and the working environment can be attributed to government inability to provide adequate budgetary allocations to meet the financial needs of education institutions in the

country (Twene, 2014). Despite the demand for tertiary education increasing over the past decade, the budgetary allocation to the education sector remains low, coupled with limited or non-existent funding support from industry (Experton & Fevre, 2010). For example, the expenditure on tertiary education as a percentage of total government expenditure on education averaged 19.06% from 2010 to 2014 (Huq & Tribe, 2018).

Historically, the component of the education budget allocated for technical education in Ghana is extremely low and implies a low value placed on technical education (Bawakyillenuo et al., 2013; Dasmani, 2011). Insufficient funding consequently leads to inadequate physical facilities (Patel & Annapoorna, 2019; Twene, 2014). Despite the government's recent commitment to increasing access to education in Ghana, attention is mostly focused on basic and secondary education to the detriment of tertiary education (Adu-Gyamfi, Donkoh & Addo, 2016). The evidence from this study corroborates the argument of Simon and Johnson (2013, p. 1) that teachers leave schools not because they are “fleeing their students, but rather the poor working conditions that make it difficult for them to teach and their students to learn”.

Figure 6-3: Broken furniture in classrooms



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Figure 6-4: A lecture hall with broken louvre blades.



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Compared with traditional public universities, technical universities in Ghana are ill-resourced. This situation has caused general job dissatisfaction and influenced many academic staff to exit and join public or private universities with better infrastructure and facilities. These findings broadly reaffirm prior literature on turnover that posits better working environments increase job satisfaction and employees who experience difficulties with the working conditions become dissatisfied and eventually quit (García Gustavo, 2019; Qudah, Davies, & Deakin, 2019). The conversion of Polytechnics to Technical universities were done for political expediency and did not take into consideration the available infrastructure and resources, particularly lecture halls and office space, required to meet the needs of both students and staff.

Figure 6-5: Students sit outside for lectures due to overcrowding



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

6.2.2.2 Theme: Issues of governance and managerial leadership style

Good management and leadership are critical for the growth of any organisation (Kakabadse & Bank, 2018; Koryak et al., 2015). In this study, participants highlighted authoritarian managerial and leadership styles, along with sluggish administrative systems, as typical of technical university management. Akanji et al. (2019) and Beugré & Offodile (2001) posited that the authoritarian leadership style remains the dominant managerial style in African organisations. This phenomenon is grounded within the African cultural orientation, where leaders within the communities and organisations are held in high regard. Thus their actions, whether favourable or not, are held beyond reproach (Kyed & Buur, 2006). Leaders expect members within the community to submit to authority by virtue of their position and to obey without complaint (Peters, 2015). Leaders in African organisations tend to assume the authority of traditional leaders according to their immersion in the typical African

culture (Díaz-Gibson, Zaragoza, Daly, Mayayo, & Romani, 2017; Fiaz, Su, & Saqib, 2017). However, when this cultural phenomenon emerges in the context of formal organisations, it stifles strategic HRM advancement and employees' initiatives and innovation, which are needed to progress the organisation (Derecskei, 2016).

Participants expected academic institutions of higher learning to demonstrate good corporate governance principles, applying proper administrative rules, policies and guidelines in a fair and transparent manner. Leadership within schools plays a core role in teachers' intent to leave or stay with a particular school (Kelly, Cespedes, Clara, & Danaher, 2019). Leadership-member exchange and organisational support from superiors are part of institutional leadership. The quality and style of leadership or management can influence employees' motivation and subsequent retention or turnover (Bryant & Allen, 2013).

The poor leadership styles exhibited by the management of these technical universities have occasioned the early exit of young and talented academic staff. Democratic principles are absent; committee members are mostly hand-picked without following guidelines prescribed for the formation of committees. Leadership is highly centralised and undemocratic, which has several implications for academic staff retention. This finding confirms prior evidence that management by exclusionary, abusive or authoritarian leadership significantly increases turnover intentions (Cummings, Tate, Lee, Wong et al., 2018).

Leadership should enable organisations to be competitive and productive (Choy, McCormack, & Djurkovic, 2016). Jones et al. (2017) and Smolović Jones, Smolović Jones, Winchester, and Grint (2016) proposed that the democratic leadership style confers respect and trustworthiness while fostering performance and teamwork among employees. Democratic managers tend to consult subordinates in their efforts to make mutually satisfying decisions. In the confines of technical universities, some level of laissez-faire management style could be encouraged where academic staff constitute the decision-making body and management only assumes its position as leader (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016). Prasad and Juni (2016) highlighted that for an organisation to

activate innovative culture, a transactional and transformational leadership strategy should be employed.

Transformational leadership create a sense of self-worth and motivation and ignites belief in the institution's vision in employees (Cole, Bruch & Shamir, 2009). The transformational leader harnesses the intrinsic drive of employees to achieve organisational goals. Bass and Bass (2008) and McCleskey (2014) also point out that the transactional leader links organisational performance to reciprocal exchanges between management (leader) and employees. The leader fosters an atmosphere of rewards that motivates employees' to achieve their objectives and goals without compromising their self-interest (McClesky, 2014). Technical universities appear to be willing to initiate transformational and transactional leadership to work side by side with academic staff. However, the authoritarian management style (attributed to the cultural orientation) manifested throughout the decision-making process still creates distance between management and academic staff.

This study revealed poor leadership and limited involvement and engagement of academic staff members in the affairs of the institutions. Sometimes academic staff were excluded from work-related meetings and discussions that affected their careers, largely because of the prevailing organisational culture. Apparently management had side-lined academic staff so often that the prevailing norm was not to demand their right to be engaged or involved in strategic decisions of the institutions. Management has thus become a decision-making monopoly, giving employees limited opportunity for engagement. The highly centralised decision making especially reduces the participation of middle- and low-level workers, which generates disaffection among academic staff in technical universities.

6.2.2.3 Subtheme: Procedural injustice

The study highlights some critical concerns around inequities and procedural injustice in administering institutional policies and guidelines within Ghanaian technical universities. Issues of preferential treatment were expressed by participants, which demonstrated an absence of fairness and equity (parity) that contributed to academic staff dissatisfaction and apathy for their duties. The management style prevalent in the

universities bred nepotism, favouritism and tribalism, with a consequent “whom you know” approach to people management (Acquah, Seshie & Zogbator, 2015; Nyukorong, 2014).

Managerial people-management practices and procedural injustice manifested in the form of tribal and religious segregation, with preferential treatment of some academic staff rather than merit-based rewards (Ensher et al., 2001; Rawat & Basergekar, 2016). Cox (1993) indicated that discriminating among employees on grounds of gender or ethnicity affects employees’ job satisfaction, motivation and organisational involvement. This situation has arisen mainly because technical universities in Ghana were established on regional basis. Regionalism has, therefore, become a major factor underpinning the functioning of the universities. For instance, appointments to key managerial positions (e.g. chancellors, vice-chancellors) are influenced by ethnicity and regionalism (Ayentimi et al., 2018; Asante, 2015). This further strengthens tribalism, nepotism and favouritism; managers feel they have a social obligation and responsibility to provide jobs to tribal members, church members, families and friends (Hansen-Thompson, 2011). Favouritism and religious and political connections (cronyism) in people management continue to abound in many organisations in sub-Saharan Africa (Budhwar & Debrah, 2013; Nyambegeera, 2002).

There are clear managerial deficiencies in managing staff in technical universities (Appiah, 2013; Dare & Ankomah, 2004). The procedural injustice, unfairness and inequity exhibited by management is common in awarding PhD scholarships, and when considering academic staff for appointments and promotions. Several participants bemoaned the injustice constantly seen in the awarding of scholarships for PhD programs, study leave with pay, and appointments to headships. Mostly these practices failed to reflect institutional policies and guidelines and reflected explicit favouritism and nepotism, sometimes along tribal lines. The practices are now entrenched in people management in many Ghanaian organisations, particularly public-sector organisations. Ayentimi et al. (2018) reported similar evidence; the authors noted that favouritism and nepotism typically predominate in people management in public institutions and are perceived as the cultural value of sharing

what you have with whom you know. For example, PhD sponsorships are perceived as awarded only to individual academics who are in the “good books” of management (Nyukorong, 2014; Yeboah-Assiamah, Asamoah, Bawole, & Musah-Surugu, 2016).

An evolving theme in the study was the inter-institutional disparity in salary packages for academic staff with similar qualifications among technical universities and mainstream traditional universities. The participants described the level of disparity as “pathetic” and a clear demonstration of ongoing government discrimination. This disparity was a key source of resentment that resulted in the exit of academic staff to mainstream traditional universities and other industries. For example, while academic staff in mainstream traditional universities are paid 114% of their basic salaries as market premium, their counterparts in technical universities receive 94% of their basic salaries as market premium (Fair Wages and Salaries Commission, 2016).

The discrimination among technical and traditional universities extends beyond salary packages to their pension schemes. The difference is huge regarding how pension retirement schemes are planned. The study found that academic staff of technical universities are placed on the state superannuation scheme (known as the SSNIT), whereas mainstream traditional universities have established their own superannuation scheme known as Ghana University Social Security (GUSS). Academic staff who subscribe to the independent GUSS scheme earn twice the returns of staff on the SSNIT. The academic staff of technical universities were concerned not only about their present income disparity but also about their future welfare –especially as they age. Apart from the old-age pension, they can usually expect no other form of support when they retire. The absence of equal and fair treatment creates staff dissatisfaction, which corresponds with Sprecher’s (2018) notion of perceived inequity; she argued that the emergence of feelings of inequity leads to the perception of an unjust and imbalanced relationship among affected parties. The implications of perceived inequities include employees’ desire to indulge in certain actions, distress and dissatisfaction, which explicitly affect academic staff retention (Banks, Patel & Moola, 2012).

6.2.2.4 Theme: Workload and skills misalignment

The education specialisation by academic staff and job mismatch is a recurring phenomenon in technical universities with several implications for the individual and the organisation (see Allen & Van der Velden, 2001). The study found the courses allocated to many academic staff were problematic and demonstrated a clear mismatch between the staff member's knowledge and expertise and the courses taught. Participants bemoaned that course allocation was driven generally by the notion that any person with a PhD can teach any course without consideration of their knowledge, competence and expertise. Employees seek to work in organisations in which they are able to apply their expertise, knowledge and skills. However, academic staff felt that they were given courses to teach that did not match their professional training and competencies. For example, one participant noted that his area of expertise and qualification was in agricultural economics, yet he had been asked to teach courses in crop science, animal science and horticulture, an area in which he had limited expertise and competence. Industry work style and responsibilities assigned to employees and unwanted work-related roles and responsibilities can trigger employee dissatisfaction and contribute to job stress and the departure of employees (Fraser & Ryan, 2012; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013).

An important theme in this study highlighted by participants was associated with work overload; academic staff were assigned courses to teach beyond the workload agreement in their conditions of employment. The conditions of employment require academic staff to teach 12 credit units per semester, which is equivalent to three or four courses, depending on the class size. Yet in a typical technical university, academic staff are assigned between 18 and 30 credit units a semester (Gladys, Adams, & Alhassan, 2019) without any extra remuneration, which contributes to work stress and dissatisfaction and leads to staff exit. Being overburdened with teaching tended to affect the academics' research output and their prospects of gaining promotions. Moreover, work overload was unevenly distributed, creating perceptions of favouritism, discrimination, bias and inequities in the allocation of teaching responsibilities. Similarly, Óskarsdóttir (2015) and Jha (2009) cited loaded work

schedules as the key reason responsible for job stress and igniting turnover intentions among employees.

6.2.2.5 Theme: Occupational health and safety standards

A filthy, hazardous working work environment can contribute to employee turnover (Rumman, et al., 2013). The work environment in the technical universities is not conducive to effective performance; some of the buildings and other facilities are in deplorable conditions and pose occupational and health hazards. Inadequate funding from the government has resulted in limited infrastructure and poor facilities (Abugre, 2018; Amankwah-Amoah, 2016; Gyamera, & Burke, 2018). Within the technical universities, many classrooms have no windows and doors, walls are dirty and the classrooms are flooded during severe rain, making it difficult for lecturers and students to undertake teaching and learning activities. The furniture in some lecture halls is broken and poses serious hazards for students and staff. Moreover, the lighting systems in some classrooms do not function and, worst of all as generally highlighted by participants, is the poor ventilation in most classrooms – the lack of air-conditioning or ceiling fans makes it uncomfortable and difficult for staff and students to concentrate during lectures. Under these conditions, staff do not hesitate to leave if the opportunity is available. Many former academic staff stated these undesirable conditions prompted their early exit and their decision to take up appointments in traditional universities, where health and safety standards are better. Uzoamaka and Anakwe (2002) also found the issue of occupational health and safety important for managing employees and that its absence potentially contributes to staff turnover.

6.2.2.6 Theme: Qualifications and experience of academic staff

The evidence showed that academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities is significantly influenced by the level of staff qualifications, professional competence, and experience. High levels of education (possession of a terminal degree) increases the employability of academic staff within the higher education labour market (Ahmad & Rainyee, 2014; Albert, 2000). In addition, academic staff with higher professional and academic qualifications are needed by other organisations. Without attractive

reward systems, qualified academics with PhD qualifications and tertiary teaching experience, who form the core staff of higher education institutions, are often targeted by mainstream traditional universities across the country. The skilled labour shortage in the higher education sector is responsible. The sector strictly requires applicants with terminal degrees, but the number of such employees is limited in the Ghanaian labour market (Asante, 2015). Historically, high-level knowledge workers are scarce in many developing countries, which leads to competition among companies for talent (Wernerfelt, 1984; Grant, 1991). Participants with PhD qualifications and tertiary work experience have better employment prospects than colleagues without the required qualifications and work experience. Most former academic staff noted that they exited because of their PhD qualifications and work experience, as frequently demanded by traditional universities and other organisations. This finding corroborates those of Asamoah and Eugene (2016) and Reukauf (2018), who reported that employees with fewer qualifications and less training have fewer intentions of quitting.

6.2.2.7 Theme: The quality of students enrolled

The emergence of new private tertiary institutions in Ghana has increased the competition for quality students, but many high-quality students do not consider technical education as a first priority (Baker, Drev, & Almeida, 2019). The notion that academically weak students enrol in technical universities and technical programs still prevails and is entrenched in the Ghanaian cultural orientation (Amedorme & Fiagbe, 2013). Students admitted to technical universities are widely perceived to have lower grades and poorer academic standing than students admitted into traditional universities. This common view has been partly created by the admission system because the selection criteria for mainstream traditional universities are higher than those of technical universities. This is coupled with the limited infrastructure and limited recognition of graduates from technical universities by employers and the general public (Okae-Adjei, 2016). This perception is a historical problem for technical education in general because most students progress slowly through technical and vocational institutes (the source of students) into technical universities. The quality of students has been identified as a contributory factor in the decision of

some academic staff in various technical universities to exit. Academic staff are more satisfied when teaching students with potentially good outcomes than teaching weak students, who can be much more demanding.

Most students admitted into technical universities are deemed capable of pursuing technical and vocation education, which is regarded as less cognitively demanding than the conventional degree programs run in the traditional universities. The quality of students admitted to technical universities has been very poor compared with students admitted into traditional universities. Although the programs offered in the technical universities have similar admission requirements to the traditional universities, they tend to attract students with weak grades, as many of the best students prefer to pursue a university degree. This has led to uninspired students and staff. Students failed to demonstrate seriousness in classroom discussions, making it extremely difficult to move away from a teacher-centred teaching model to a student-centred teaching approach. Staff felt constrained because of the lack of student involvement and engagement, which compares unfavourably with the experiences of their counterparts in traditional universities.

6.2.2.8 Theme: Professional image and recognition of technical universities

Public recognition and perception of technical education and technical universities in Ghana remains low due to historical and institutional factors (Boakye-Agyemang, 2006). This perception has implications for technical education and turnover and retention of academic staff (Altbach et al., 2019; Fapohunda, 2012). Academic staff of technical universities drifting to traditional universities were partly influenced by the public image and perception of academic staff of technical universities. This lack of recognition has also been influenced by the recruitment practices for academic staff and the inability of technical universities to attract highly qualified academic staff with the capacity to produce quality research (Nyarko, 2011). For instance, while the minimum qualification for lectureship in technical universities is a Masters degree in a relevant field, the traditional universities strictly maintain the terminal degree as a minimum requirement.

In addition, the promotion system in technical universities is also perceived as less competitive than in traditional universities. The assumption among academics in traditional universities and the public has always been that it is easier for academic staff in technical universities to be promoted to professorial ranks than for their counterparts in traditional universities. Several participants narrated experiences at conferences, seminars and in other programs of not being accorded similar recognition to colleagues from traditional universities who possessed the same professorial rank. Some lecturers found it disconcerting to be disregarded by sections of the public because they had obtained their promotions from technical universities. To some extent, this is not surprising because the structure of technical universities, the limited number of quality students, the courses offered, and the qualifications of some academic staff contribute to the public perception and assumptions (Alhassan & Habib, 2016; Ayonmike, 2014). This entrenched public notion casts doubts and undermines professors in technical universities. Yimer, Nega, and Ganfure (2017) argue that employee value and recognition constitute an important component of job satisfaction because they raise employee morale and increase their organisational commitment. Unfortunately, these benefits are absent in technical universities.

6.2.2.9 Theme: The nature of people-management practices

People-management practices and, by extension, HRM policies and practices remain a significant component of the employment relationship and were found to influence many academic staff to exit Ghanaian technical universities. In addition, issues around professional image and recognition of academic staff, performance and rewards, and compensation and benefits were strongly highlighted as influencing and underpinning academic staff turnover in technical universities across the country.

6.2.2.9.1 Subtheme: Work performance and recognition

The culture of silence in recognising employee performance led to job dissatisfaction. While managers of technical universities were expected to demonstrate interest in employee welfare, to consistently provide regular and timely feedback and to reward dedicated and hardworking academic staff, participants alluded to many instances in

which managers gave lip-service only to staff needs. This finding is contrary to arguments put forward by Shoaib and Mujtaba (2018) that morale is high among faculty members when they are rewarded for job performance. Most participants argued that they received few rewards (e.g. salary increases, chances for advancement) and little recognition from management for their hard work, accomplishments and contributions towards the advancement of their institutions. This lessened their job satisfaction and led to some academic staff leaving their institution.

6.2.2.9.2 Subtheme: Compensations and benefits

Academic staff leave technical universities to seek better opportunities in the traditional universities and in other industries when they perceive they are not well remunerated. There is disparity in conditions of service in technical and traditional universities, particularly in salaries of academic staff who possess the same or similar academic qualifications (Fapohunda, 2012; Anokye, Okri, & Adie, 2019). Participants argued that some academic staff in technical universities have similar qualifications to those of their colleagues in traditional universities, and perform similar duties and responsibilities yet they do not receive similar conditions of service. Participants gave the example that heads of departments in traditional universities are entitled to USD750 (GH4000) as their responsibility allowance, while those in technical universities are entitled to between USD95 and USD115 (GH400 to GH600), depending on the university.

Some older and well-endowed technical universities provided additional allowances to academic staff serving as heads of department compared with allowances in newly established technical universities. Academic staff with similar qualifications in technical and public universities have different salary scales under the 2012 public-sector salary scheme (Mello, 2011; Sanséau, & Opoku, 2019). Moreover, traditional universities can generate additional financial resources internally (internally generated funds). They use these funds to provide extra compensations to their staff. Technical universities cannot generate enough internal funds to pay such extra compensations (Appiah, 2013).

In addition, staff of technical universities have limited access to additional benefits (e.g. car maintenance allowance, housing allowance, child education support, life insurance policies and subsidised accommodation). Poor allowances contributed to the exiting of academic staff from Ghanaian technical universities. Academic staff in all four of the selected universities were supposed to receive additional allowances similar to those of their counterparts in traditional Ghanaian universities. However, their allowances were fewer and of less value. The non-payment of allowances was a source of general concern among the academic staff and accounted for the departure of some. The allowance disparity between technical and traditional universities was big enough to cause staff to move to traditional universities. The participants considered that traditional universities were superior regarding payment of allowances and other conditions of service.

Further, traditional universities have their own social security system (GUSS), whereas the technical universities are covered under the SSNIT pension scheme. Beneficiaries of GUSS receive a better pension than academic staff contributing under the SSNIT scheme. These discrepancies in the conditions of service between technical universities and traditional universities make it difficult for technical universities to retain talented and experienced teaching staff. In addition, the disparity in salaries and other conditions of service between the traditional and technical universities contributes to the public notion that technical universities are of lower standard than mainstream traditional universities (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2019; Fapohunda, 2012). The study found academic staff were unhappy with their remuneration and compensation systems and constantly compared their conditions with those of counterparts in traditional universities. The absence of fair compensation and remuneration influences employees to search for available alternatives. Most people, before leaving their current job or engaging in job-search behaviour, will evaluate and compare their current jobs with other prospects and organisational inducements (Morrell 2016; Hom et al., 2017).

6.2.3 External Factors

A set of external factors that includes geographical location and access, political appointments, and poaching of academic staff served contributed to employee turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. This section discusses these factors.

6.2.3.1 Theme: Geographical location and access

The location of technical universities in Ghana predisposes the institutions to certain opportunities and particular challenges. This reflects the uneven development programming that has historically characterised the development fabric of the both since colonisation and after independence (Awanyo & Attua, 2018; Mehretu, 2019). The locational differences of technical universities have created unequal access to opportunities such as alternative jobs, which is an important consideration in academic staff decisions to exit. Academic staff in technical universities in the north of the country desired to work in similar universities in the south of Ghana. Southern universities have better facilities, additional job opportunities and are closer to major cities.

The drifting of academic staff from one technical university to another was not influenced by financial inducements, but rather by the better infrastructure and closeness to major cities. Given the uneven development model that has historically underpinned national development policy in Ghana, social and physical infrastructure, economic activities, and number of schools and other tertiary institutions vary significantly between the north and the south (Poku-Boansi & Amoako, 2015). These differences have heightened the desire for academic staff to move south in order to work in strategic locations that have access to additional opportunities such as part-time teaching in other comparable private and public tertiary institutions. Hence technical universities in the north have become unattractive and are prone to losing academic staff. This corresponds with earlier observations by Aguenza and Som (2012) and Pietersen and Oni (2014), who posit that employees relocate to places with better alternative jobs and good working conditions. Further the geographical location of some technical universities provides a particular comparative advantage to them

and their academic staff: are located in major cities where well-paying job opportunities in both the public and private sectors exist.

6.2.3.2 Theme: Political appointments

A recurring theme in this study was the increasing number of academic staff leaving technical universities to take up political appointments in Ghana, which resulted in voluntary exit from the universities. For example, several academic participants had taken up new political appointments such as Sector Ministers; Regional Ministers; Metropolitan, Municipal or District Chief Executives; and other high-ranking government appointments (Kopecký, & Spirova, 2011; Sigué, 2012). The Government of Ghana usually depends on university lecturers for skilled employees to serve in political positions, including in foreign countries. A political appointment creates both an opportunity for a citizen to serve their country and for the government to tap into the rich knowledge and experience of academics for policy formulation (Dahlstrom & Holmgren, 2015). Appointing academic staff to political offices is the most straightforward way for political leaders to shift policy positions (Boyne et al., 2010). Moreover, academic staff prefer jobs in political offices because of the better remuneration and general conditions of service (Bob-Milliar, 2019; Kopecký, & Spirova, 2011). These appointments come with both pecuniary and nonpecuniary benefits that far exceed the conditions of service of academic staff in all Ghanaian universities (Kopecky, 2011). Political appointees receive better salaries and additional allowances, combined with prestige and the ability to wield power, authority and influence (Burtless, 2002). The state gives them vehicles, better accommodation, maximum security and protection. Hence, political appointments are often viewed as an opportunity to improve one's socioeconomic status. Some academic staff even resign to contest political positions by public vote because of the associated benefits.

6.2.3.3 Theme: Staff poaching

The greatest challenge facing technical universities is how to recruit and retain highly skilled professionals. These skilled professionals are also highly sought by other industries and universities. Traditional universities and private university colleges in

Ghana compete vigorously for qualified academic staff to fill vacancies (Asante, 2015). These institutions want to attract academic staff with terminal degrees. Thus academic staff in technical universities with desirable qualifications find themselves with many opportunities to transfer jobs.

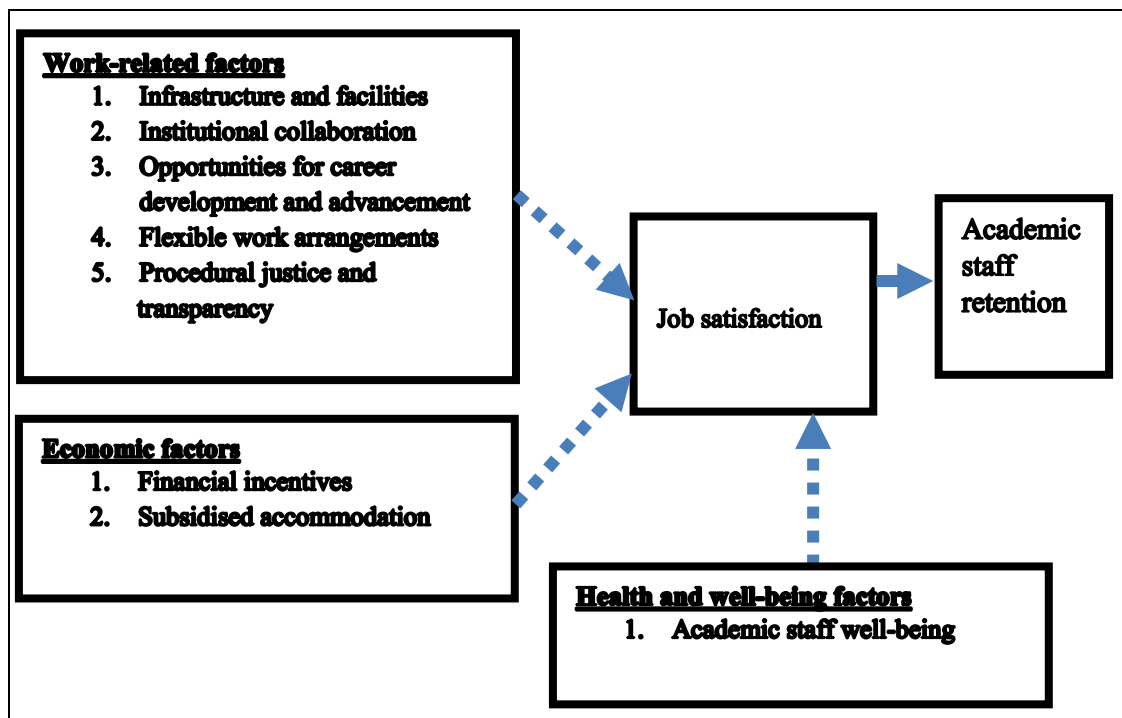
Employee poaching as an avenue to address the shortage of talented staff is an established practice within some industries and sectors in Ghana, particularly the financial sector and higher education sectors (Ayentimi, Burgess, & Brown, 2018; Hansen-Thompson, 2007). The technical universities are unable to compete with other institutions that are able to offer better remuneration packages. Traditional universities, and especially private universities, often extend offers with attractive packages to academic staff in technical universities. The increasing demand for qualified and experienced academic staff in private and public universities has been driven by the increasing number of private universities in major urban towns and cities (Akplu, 2016; Atuahene & Owusu-Ansah, 2013). This situation partly created the demand and requirement for the National Accreditation Board (NAB). The NAB requires newly established universities to demonstrate they have qualified and experienced staff before granting institutional and program accreditations. Therefore, newly established universities have limited options other than to engage in staff poaching to meet the regulatory demands of the NAB (Akpey-Mensah, 2018; Akpey-Mensah & Quan-Baffour, 2016).

Given that conditions of service are less attractive in Ghanaian technical universities than in traditional public universities, technical universities remain vulnerable to labour poaching. Apart from poaching by newly established private universities, the traditional universities target the most talented and qualified academic staff of technical universities. This confirms the prior observation that academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities are subject to frequent employee poaching; thus the universities struggle to develop their human capital and progress the careers of their staff (Technical University Planning Units, 2017).

6.3 Current Retention Strategies Deployed in Technical Universities

The conceptual framework shown in Figure 6.6 is the outcome of this study on academic staff-retention strategies in Ghanaian technical universities.

Figure 6-6: Theoretical model for academic staff retention in Ghanaian technical universities



Source: Fieldwork, 2018, adapted from Ellenbecker, 2004

Legend: Direct relationship Indirect relationship

Generally, management retention strategies were not able to significantly address academic staff turnover due to specific set of weaknesses and mismatches associated with the implementation of these strategies. The model is adapted from Ellenbecker’s (2004) job satisfaction and retention model. The theoretical model indicates that academic staff job satisfaction is directly related to retention; work-related, economic, and health and well-being factors are indirectly related to retention through job satisfaction. The evidence from this study supports the theoretical argument in favour of both factors and conditions that directly and indirectly influence and affect

employee retention. For example, the exit of academic staff from Ghanaian technical universities over the years has been influenced by three key sets of factors: personal, organisation-wide, and external factors. Employee turnover results in low morale within the workplace among the existing workforce. Practically, turnover reduces productivity, which in turn affects overall organisational success. Institutions that succeed in retaining their core talents not only save money but also protect institutional memory and human capital (Holtom et al., 2005).

The literature on staff retention posits that intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors collectively contribute towards the overall satisfaction and retention of employees in an organisation. Therefore, there exists a direct correlation between management inducements and staff turnover rates and retention. For example, training and development opportunities for staff promote staff satisfaction and reduce turnover intentions (Long & Perumal, 2014). Although pay satisfaction affects employees' turnover intent, employees' job satisfaction is a more important factor that influences turnover intentions. However, dissatisfied academics, particularly elderly academics, may find career change difficult and tend to remain at their institutions (Pop-Vasileva, Baird, & Blair, 2011; Singh & Loncar, 2010).

The HRM literature states job dissatisfaction and turnover are lessened when employees receive appropriate and adequate incentives for their contribution (Audeenaert, George & Decramer, 2019). This corresponds with the notion of psychological contracts between employees and their employers (Weinhardt, Griep & Sosnowks, 2019). Incentives are given to employees to promote their continued participation and contribution to the organisation's sustainability (March & Simon, 1958). This section discusses the findings on the organisational inducements used to promote job satisfaction towards reducing academic staff exit. The findings are discussed under two main categories: work-related inducement factors and economic inducement factors.

6.3.1 Work-related Inducement Factors

Improved infrastructure and facilities, institutional collaboration, opportunities for career advancement and flexible work arrangements were the key work-related factors the management of Ghanaian technical universities employed to induce their academic staff to stay. A poor work environment can lower employees' levels of job satisfaction and culminate in intentions to quit. In contrast, improving the conditions of employment heightens employee motivation and job satisfaction, which helps retention (see Lacy & Sheehan, 1997; Kinman, 2016; Arnoux-Nicolas et al., 2016; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 2013; Rumman et al., 2014; Al-Hamdan et al., 2017)

6.3.1.1 Theme: Infrastructure and facilities

First, conditions of employment are critical to employees' decisions to either stay or quit (Arnoux-Nicolas et al., 2016; Hanaysha, 2016; Miller Jr, 2017). The study found that most technical universities have recently made some progress in improving their physical infrastructure and other key facilities. For example, the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund) was established to improve infrastructure in Ghanaian education institutions. The fund has helped improve infrastructure in many technical universities. In addition, management of technical universities have also demonstrated commitment to tackling the poor state of infrastructure and other facilities, including equipment, laboratories and office spaces. Nevertheless, capital expenditure and investment in infrastructure generally remains constrained by limited government funding and budgetary allocation to the technical education sector (Oke & Dang, 2019; Newman & Duwiejua, 2016).

Second, a recurring theme was the negative effect of political polarisation on education infrastructure throughout the various technical universities. This polarisation has resulted in the abandoning or termination of both critical infrastructure projects and the procurement of materials and equipment when there is a change of government. Hence the number of uncompleted infrastructure projects in technical universities continues to increase (Damoah & Akwei, 2017; Damoah, Akwei, Amoako, & Botchie, 2018; Safo-Kantanka, Aigbavboa, & Arthur-Aidoo, 2018). The government's and university management's commitment to improving infrastructure was visible in some

ongoing projects and the purchase of some state-of-the-art equipment and materials. However these changes are insufficient to improve the poor state of physical infrastructure enough to significantly address academic staff retention.

6.3.1.2 Theme: Institutional collaboration

The limited human capital in Ghana has forced technical universities to develop institutional collaborations to offer training opportunities in order to upgrade the capacity of academic staff to meet the standards of higher education and improve teaching and research outcomes (Adjei, Nyarko & Nunfam, 2014; Bakah, 2011). This study highlighted how the universities use memoranda of understanding with institutional and industrial collaborators, both in Ghana and abroad, to improve research outcomes, increase access to funding, and advance academic staff careers. For example, through such collaborations some academic staff had travelled to China, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Germany and other countries to participate in training and development programs. Other staff were able to pursue doctoral studies; for instance, several participants had obtained their PhDs from a Chinese university through such collaborations, and the number of academic staff with PhDs has increased over the past four years. Institutional collaboration has enabled technical universities to support career development of their academic staff.

Prior evidence maintains that institutional collaboration and teamwork create collegiality among employees and help improve group cohesion and staff retention (Finster, 2013). The study found academic staff without terminal degrees could advance their career prospects, increasing their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This finding corroborates the view of other scholars; for example, Winterton (2004) and Bryant and Allen (2013) argued that employees who believe there are opportunities for future career growth and advancement are more likely to stay, even when extremely dissatisfied with their present circumstances. Although this has helped to increase the number of academic staff with terminal degrees in the technical universities, it has also created avenues for many academic staff to take up opportunities in traditional universities.

6.3.1.3 Theme: Opportunities for career development and advancement

As part of the special career development initiatives, a Memorandum of Understanding between all technical universities and the GETFund to sponsor academic staff to pursue doctoral studies in Ghana and abroad has been established. At the time of the fieldwork, more than one hundred academic staff were undertaking their doctoral studies under the GETFund scholarship program in Australia, China and the United Kingdom. The study also found that the various technical universities were drawing from internally generated funds to support their academic staff to pursue further studies. For example, more than twenty academic staff within one of the case-study institutions were pursuing doctoral studies sponsored by their university. These sponsorships ranged from study leave with full pay to full or partial payment of tuition fees, which was generally administered as a reimbursement program for the tuition fees. For the past four years these special career development initiatives have supported technical universities in upgrading academic staff qualifications.

However, the challenge is how to ensure that the academic staff stay after acquiring these qualifications. Nevertheless, as already noted, employees who believe that there are opportunities for future career growth and advancement more likely to stay even if they are thoroughly dissatisfied with their job and their present circumstances (Winterton, 2004; Bryant & Allen, 2013). The study found the positive outcomes from inter-institutional collaborations have limited impact in supporting academic staff retention for several reasons. First, the selection of academic staff to benefit from these collaborations was based on managerial discretion and was to some extent influenced by favouritism, nepotism and cronyism. This created disaffection among academic staff and limited the positive impact of the program. Second, many academic staff who pursued PhD studies under institutional collaborations were more employable and attractive to mainstream traditional universities. They tended to be mobile and attracted to traditional universities, occasioning their exit – it is easier to secure employment in mainstream universities with a PhD qualification and some higher education work experience. Similarly, Benson (2006) observed that providing staff

training and development opportunities builds a quality labour force, but this opens up alternative employment opportunities and leads to higher turnover.

Some institutions bond academic staff who are given scholarships for further studies: the academic must return and serve the institution for a specified number of years. Yet universities do not pursue academic staff who fail to return to serve their bond. This failure creates a “free ride” for many staff to benefit from university development programs by acquiring employable skills and exiting. Hence providing training and development opportunities does not automatically increase the chances of retaining academic staff – other universities with attractive conditions of service are more likely to poach well-qualified, competent and experienced staff (Teferra & Altbachl, 2004). These collaborations and opportunities for training and career development could be described as an avenue for technical universities to develop talents for traditional universities. Technical universities in Ghana have suffered “brain drain” as they lose their competent, highly qualified and experienced staff to private universities and traditional universities. Many academic staff from technical universities sponsored by the state to undertake further studies either fail to return to their respective institutions or serve for a short period before exiting. Therefore, the government and management of these institutions must make conscious effort to enforce strict sponsorship guidelines to ensure academic staff return after benefiting from such training.

Appointment and promotion prospects are a major source of job satisfaction for employees, particularly academic staff who aspire to professorial ranks. Management may have to create such opportunities to encourage employees to remain with the organisation (Kremer, Villamor & Aguinis, 2019; Wen, Gu, & Wen, 2019) after undertaking further training and development. These career-growth opportunities may induce academic staff to remain with the institution. In the absence of opportunities for promotion or new appointments, well-trained academic staff tend to leave (Asafo-Adjei, Gyamfi & Ofosu-Appiah, 2016; Twi, 2009). To reduce impediments to career growth, technical universities provide a more flexible promotion system than traditional universities do. This practice encourages their academic staff to remain at their posts. Rising through the ranks to professorship has been perceived as less

difficult in technical universities because they have structured their promotion processes to support the retention of academic staff. Technical universities have demonstrated a strong commitment to fast-tracking administrative procedures to ensure that lecturers with the required number of publications and appropriate community service undertake the promotion process with limited difficulties and delays.

This perception of a flexible promotion system has created a poor public perception and recognition of academic staff from technical universities. Procedural injustices inherent in the managerial styles of technical universities cause employees to become dissatisfied and increase the inclination to turnover (Wan, Sulaiman & Omar, 2012). The tendencies of procedural injustices undermines organisational effectiveness yet were evident in these institutions. These tendencies of procedural injustice could be trace to incidence of discrimination, nepotism and favouritism, which prevent employees' equal access to organisational resources (Bilal, Rafi & Khalid, 2017; Nyambegera, 2002). Owusu-Bempah, Addison, & Fairweather, (2014) opined that an employee will accept decision making that is free from favouritism and nepotism, even if the decision is unfavourable to them. Pelit, Dinçer, and Kılıç (2015) posit nepotism and favouritism can make employees feel alienated from and unpatriotic to the vision and mission of an organisation.

6.3.1.4 Theme: Flexible work arrangements

This study demonstrated that academic staff workloads, job satisfaction and retention are intricately related. Prior evidence highlights that a flexible work structure constitutes an important determinant of employee satisfaction and their decision to stay with an organisation (Hausknecht et al., 2008, 2009; Houston et al., 2006; Ellenbecker, 2004). Similarly, job autonomy and flexibility has been used to induce academic staff to stay with technical universities in Ghana. A high level of flexibility in job scheduling motivates staff to stay. Kenny and Fluck (2014) argued that job flexibility and autonomy act as intrinsic motivators that attract academics to seek university careers. The study found the work schedule of academic staff may be lighter in some semesters than in others, and also structured to enable lecturers to undertake

part-time jobs, mainly teaching and research in various private universities and university colleges that lack qualified and competent lecturers. Ghana is experiencing an upsurge in privately provided tertiary education, with more than 40% growth in the number of private universities over the past few years though the market size of private universities is only 20% of the student population (Akpotu & Akpochafo, 2009; Paul Effah, 2011). The NAB requires these institutions to recruit qualified academic staff who hold a terminal PhD degree in a relevant field of study from a recognised institution (Asante, 2015). This policy poses some challenge to private universities, which are not well resourced to offer full-time appointments and are compelled to depend on part-time lecturers, mainly from technical universities.

The presence of flexible work-hours at the technical universities create an opportunity for academic staff to engage in part-time work to earn extra income to augment their low wages. Technical universities have relaxed some policies regarding full-time academic staff undertaking part-time work with other institutions. Management generally turn a blind eye to this practice to allow their staff to explore other business opportunities to generate additional income that supplements their wages, which are considered low compared to the wages of their counterparts in traditional universities. Although all academic staff in technical universities generally have similar wages and benefits, some are not able to explore part-time opportunities because of unfair teaching allocations. In some instances, some courses that may demand the patronage of handouts from lecturers by students, are allocated to lecturers who are familiar with staff members who are responsible for course allocation. This results in the harbouring of ill-feelings and dissatisfaction among academic staff. In addition, the remote location of some institutions means that academic staff with specialised fields of teaching may be unable to access institutions that might need their expertise – unlike staff in institutions in southern Ghana, whose lecturers can access many higher education institutions that offer part-time work if they need it. The concept of distance education is increasingly embraced by many working Ghanaians; those who do not meet the competitive requirements for the regular on-campus study mode are offered distance learning platforms. This has also created many opportunities for academic

staff, but those employed in technical universities in disadvantaged areas such as northern Ghana cannot benefit from these opportunities.

6.3.1.5 Theme: Procedural justice and transparency

The study found that provision of financial inducements such as car loans, scholarships, housing loans, accommodation and other allowances appeared ineffective and unfairly meted out. There were no well-structured or formal guidelines on how academic staff are selected for these financial inducements; management uses its discretion them. The system of administration is plagued with nepotism, favouritism and much tribalism. The regional distribution of some technical universities situates them where particular ethnic groups that dominate the administration and management distribute benefits and better working conditions to indigenous academic staff. This tribalism breeds nepotism and favouritism that causes much dissatisfaction and leads to retention issues among academic staff. The staff may leave for institutions where they will be fairly treated and considered for all opportunities.

6.3.2 Economic Factors

The study found some evidence that the management of Ghanaian technical universities occasionally offer economic incentives as part of their organisational inducement strategies to retain academic staff. These incentives included attractive financial incentives and subsidised accommodation facilities.

6.3.2.1 Theme: Financial incentives

The management of technical universities provided some financial incentives to induce academic staff to stay. This corresponds with the argument of Winterton (2004) that labour retention strategies should attempt to decrease employees' ease of mobility through providing financial incentives. The author further noted that a complete compensation system that is well packaged and structured can potentially induce employees to stay. Various financial incentives such as low-interest loans to purchase vehicles and household equipment and car allowances were granted to academic staff

to encourage them to stay. The interest rates charged by financial institutions in Ghana are as high as 31% per annum, making loans challenging to afford for staff already suffering poor conditions of service. Further, academic staff appointed as examination officers, heads or directors of departments, and project coordinators are given financial incentives in the form of monthly allowances aimed at heightening their levels of job satisfaction and engagement. Another incentive introduced is a housing scheme known as “owner occupancy”; financial assistance is offered to academic staff to build their own residential accommodation. The HRM literature states that various financial and nonfinancial inducements can boost employee morale, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and retention (Banerjee & Nayak, 2017; Asante, 2015; Selesho & Naile, 2014). The management of the technical universities has introduced new financial incentives as a strategy for sourcing and retaining their academic staff. They include the creation of a provident fund to complement the SSNIT retirement package and thus increase staff job satisfaction and engagement.

6.3.2.2 Theme: Subsidised accommodation

The HRM literature posits that financial incentives alone are an effective reward system and motivator to retain employees in their workplaces (Dibble, 1999; Jansen, & Hlongwane, 2019). Generally, the technical universities lack basic facilities, including accommodation for their staff, which promotes the drift to traditional universities with better infrastructure. Accessing affordable and decent accommodation in Ghana, particularly in urban locations, has been challenging due to the housing deficit. Therefore, management of the technical institutions support staff to access appropriate accommodation as part of their retention strategy. Some universities have built a few residential facilities for academic staff on the university campuses; off-campus accommodation has been negotiated for other academic staff. According to Uzoamaka and Anakwe (2002) and Rumman, et al. (2014), providing housing assistance to employees helps them stay with an organisation.

6.3.3 Health and Well-being Factors

Management of technical universities have instituted policies and practices to help improve employees’ quality of working life. Activities aimed at promoting workers’

well-being and a positive work experience are used to promote overall employee satisfaction.

6.3.3.1 Theme: Academic staff well-being

The evidence highlighted management support for academic staff well-being ranging from medical support to family support. This include donations, salary advance, child education support and the use of university logistics during marriage and funeral celebrations. Creating a sound and supportive organisational culture through relationship helps to advance the well-being and health of academic staff (Allen, 2008; Gagné & Howard, 2016; Joo & Park, 2010; Kinman, 2016). For example, informal networks and relationships in organisations enable employees to develop organisational fit and job embeddedness. Job-embedded workers do not actively search for new job opportunities. Researchers (Kiazad et al., 2015; Mahdi et al., 2012) have asserted that establishing formal or informal ties with other people, either in the company or in the community, prevents employee departure. Managers and supervisors within institutions need to develop effective relationships with their subordinates to promote employee job engagement and retention (Asante, 2015).

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the study's findings within the conceptual and theoretical lens of job satisfaction and the theory of organisational equilibrium and situates the findings within the extant literature. The first section of the chapter discussed the factors that have contributed to the exit of academic staff in the four technical universities studied. The second section discussed the findings that relate to the organisational inducement strategies pursued by the universities to encourage the retention of academic staff. The impacts of the current organisational inducements on academic staff turnover and retention were also discussed. The study found that the exit of academic staff from the universities to other organisations was generally due to the poor conditions of employment relative to the working conditions in other private and public-sector organisations in Ghana. Providing infrastructure and facilities, opportunities for career

development, financial inducements and subsidised accommodation, as well as promoting institutional collaboration and ensuring flexible work arrangements were the most common organisational inducements currently offered to academic staff to encourage their retention. Inducement strategies such as providing infrastructure facilities, financial incentives (e.g. low-interest loans for cars and housing) and opportunities for training and development apparently supported staff retention. However, constraints in implementing people-management policies and managerial discretion, favouritism and nepotism continue to undermine the effectiveness of most inducement strategies.

CHAPTER 7. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the empirical findings in relation to the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study, guided by prior literature. This final chapter examines the impact of the study's findings and explores their implications.

The implications of these findings potentially offer guidance to managers and key stakeholders of these technical universities – for example, the Government of Ghana and the Ministry of Education – towards developing a feasible framework for management policy to retain academic staff. The chapter further draws conclusions and provides a guide to direct future research. The chapter also presents some practical and managerial recommendations to guide employee retention in Ghanaian technical universities.

7.2 Summary of the Main Findings

The overarching purpose of this research was to explore the underlying factors that contribute to academic staff turnover and how these findings support the development of appropriate retention strategies in Ghanaian technical universities. The evidence points to three main categories of factors underpinning academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities: personal factors, organisation-wide factors and external factors. Through the lens of personal factors, the exit of academic staff from the universities was strongly linked to family-related issues, the age of academic staff, and the absence of social and interpersonal relationships. Participants cited poor interpersonal relationships within the work environment as a key source of disaffection that caused academic staff to terminate their employment. In addition, to fulfil Ghanaian family obligations demands close proximity; lack of proximity often led to academic staff turnover.

Through the lens of the organisation-wide factors, the findings point to the deplorable state of the work environment, especially infrastructure, as well as the inadequacy of

infrastructure in technical universities. The findings emphasised that this made it difficult for academic staff to undertake effective teaching and research. An unsatisfactory work environment, particularly the generally poor state of the physical infrastructure and other facilities, negatively affected academic staff and contributed to many of them leaving to take up appointments in mainstream traditional universities, industries and private universities across the country. Factors related to the poor work environment included inadequacy of staff residential and office accommodations for lecturers, classrooms for students, and laboratories and critical learning apparatus for practical work and experimentation. In addition to the poor state of the physical work environment, an inappropriate managerial leadership style manifested in the form of tribalism (ethnicity), religious discrimination, managerial discretion, favouritism, nepotism and preferential treatment of some academic staff on the basis of “who you know”. Again, this was not conducive to academic staff retention. The findings further highlight the important dimension of the unevenness of organisation-wide factors across the various technical universities: the deplorable state of the work environment was more pronounced in universities located in northern Ghana than in southern Ghana, reflecting the historical imbalance in development orientation in Ghanaian society.

Regarding external factors, the evidence was driven by economic considerations and supported by the locational differences of technical universities, which created unequal access to other opportunities in terms of alternative jobs and urban or city lifestyle. Academic staff in the technical universities in northern Ghana desired to work in similar institutions in the south with better facilities, additional job opportunities and proximity to urban and city centres and the associated lifestyle. A recurring theme in this study was the increasing number of academic staff leaving technical universities to take up political appointments with economic benefits that include better income, power, authority and recognition. The increasing demand for academic staff with terminal degrees in mainstream traditional universities, which have better economic incentives and work environments and more societal recognition and prestige for their staff, was key in influencing both turnover intentions and actual turnover of academic staff in technical universities.

In summary, management of these technical universities has made considerable effort towards the development of retention strategies to reduce academic staff turnover. Notwithstanding, the evidence points to a mismatch between the organisation-wide and external factors that promote staff turnover and the retention strategies deployed by technical universities. This mismatch resulted in the ineffectiveness of some policies for academic staff retention. These findings have several implications for managerial and government policy towards developing appropriate retention strategies for Ghanaian technical universities

7.3 Theoretical Implications of the Study Findings

Against the competitive business environment, retaining experienced and talented employees not only enables organisational success but also survival (Colakoglu, Culha, & Atay, 2010). The broader HRM literature consistently supports the notion that if employees are supported intrinsically and extrinsically they will work towards organisational goals (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Organisational support can be categorised under three principles: reciprocity, meeting employees' social needs, and appropriate employee performance management (fair performance appraisal). The reciprocity principle implies that organisations should provide the necessary support systems to enhance employees' performance and their career aspirations. Ensuring the social needs of employees are met involves appreciating their various roles and contributions and attending to their well-being. Finally, employees' performance should be evaluated for the purpose of rewarding them in a way that gives them faith in the process (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). If an organisation applies these principles, it will positively influence productivity and encourages employees to give their best (Demircan & Yildiz, 2009). The findings of this study directly support these three principles: the evidence affirms that personal factors, organisation-wide factors and external factors underpin academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities.

In addition, a well-established strand of the HRM literature acknowledges a positive relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and the behaviour of employees (Badu & Asumeng, 2013): the behaviour of employees is based on their perception of interactional, distributive and procedural justice. This study found strong evidence of inappropriate managerial leadership styles manifested as tribalism (ethnic behavioural tendencies), religious discrimination and managerial discretion entrenched with favouritism, nepotism and preferential treatment of some academic staff. This managerial style created academic staff perceptions of interactional, distributive and procedural injustice. The effect of these perceived inequities was the inability of technical universities to retain experienced and qualified academic staff.

The theory of organisational equilibrium states that the interplay between incentives and contributions determines employees' level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and thus their decision to either stay in their current job or leave (Singh & Loncar, 2010; Toker, 2011). Employees' turnover intentions are directly and significantly influenced by certain conditions, including performance management, benefits and compensations, employee relations, and training and development opportunities (Ellenbecker, 2004; Tarcan et al., 2017). Prior literature argues that intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors collectively contribute towards the overall satisfaction and retention of employees in an organisation (Long & Perumal, 2014a; Tarcan et al., 2017). Therefore, a direct correlation exists between managerial inducements and staff turnover and retention. The study found evidence suggesting that employee turnover and retention are determined not only by job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The study's findings make an important theoretical contribution by highlighting three key dimensions of employee turnover: personal factors, organisation-wide factors and external factors. These three dimensions of turnover may help in re-conceptualising appropriate employee retention strategies in technical universities and other organisations. Maintaining equilibrium is the responsibility of management; a state of equilibrium is achieved when managers ensure a balance, fit or requisite variety between competing individuals and general interests, and between organisational needs and the satisfaction of personnel within the organisation.

7.4 Managerial and Practical Implications of the Findings

Towards Developing Appropriate Retention Strategies

The evidence highlights that political polarisation or political segregation within the national development and governance politic has negatively affected the provision of physical infrastructure across technical universities. Political rivalry among political parties in Ghana continues to affect progress in national development. The polarised nature of politics in Ghana occasioned by ideological and perceptual opposition has contributed to evolving state of apprehension in the way government fund and support education policy. The thirst of political parties for governing power incites them to draft manifestos without possessing medium- to long-term national development policies or plans. Successive governments hold to their manifestos as a measure of their own standards, leading to a system of governance that concentrates on the short term rather than sustainability (Makinde, 2005) and an absence of continuity (Ayee, 2011). Developmental projects in the various technical universities were abandoned when an opposing political party with diverging interests assumed office and reallocated resources (Twumasi-Ampofo et al., 2014; Figures 7.1–7.4). If a sitting government tries to draft a long-term development plan, there are backlashes from opposing parties because of ideological and perceptual differences about the development and progress of the country (Rasul, Rogger & Williams 2017). These ideologies are influenced by the type of government: capitalist or socialist (Opoku, 2018). Thus, several projects on paper were discontinued or stalled for lack of funds.

Figure 7-1: Staff research centre and e-library space started in 2009 and abandoned



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Figure 7-2: Modern staff offices project started in 2010 and abandoned



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Figure 7-3: Staff office accommodation abandoned at foundation stage



Source: Fieldwork, 2018

A recent study by William (2017) noted “that in Ghana, one-third of projects that were started were never completed, consuming almost 20% of all local government investment expenditure”. According to the author, inability to maintain consistent expenditure priorities along with disagreement between local political actors on where projects should be allocated contributed to the recurring theme of abandoned projects in Ghana. It was puzzling and disheartening during the fieldwork to see several projects and critical infrastructure development projects abandoned at the various technical universities. Due to changes in government, some intended projects in other technical universities were either abandoned or discontinued (Atuahene, 2008; William, 2017). This has stifled the ability of these universities to improve their physical infrastructure and work environment for teaching and research.

Historically, technical universities have not been well resourced to ensure proper maintenance of their limited infrastructure. Further, low budgetary allocations stunt infrastructure growth required for their increasing enrolments. This situation requires changing the polarised nature of development policy, ensuring the continuity of government projects, and increasing budgetary allocations to technical universities.

These changes would help to upgrade or improve the poor state of infrastructure in technical universities.

The significant findings on the unevenness in development programming across the country has several implications for academic staff retention in Ghanaian technical universities. Ghana's development history is biased towards southern Ghana. This worrying situation continues; infrastructure linked to growth and development is still concentrated in institutions in the south to the detriment of those in the north (Poku-Boansi & Amoako, 2015; Sahoo & Dash, 2009). The government must fund infrastructure projects in the north of the country for inclusive development to support academic staff retention in technical universities there. For example, technical universities located in northern Ghana should be resourced with state-of-the-art laboratories similar to southern universities.

It may be difficult for most universities to accept the presence of tribalism, nepotism and favouritism in their institutions, and how it fuels procedural injustices. Nevertheless, they should endeavour to minimise employees' perception of such phenomena, which would help to moderate staff dissatisfaction (Varela & Harré, 1996). Addressing the negative implications of these behavioural tendencies to support of academic staff retention requires structured policy intervention around, for example, disclosure of personal ties and special interests during major decision-making. Such policies would help eliminate perceived and actual conflicts of interest.

Technical institutions may need to develop strong policy guidelines and procedures around promotions and recruitment to ensure transparency and fairness. Nepotism, favouritism and tribalism are minimised when there are clear codes of conduct and policies relating to sensitive issues around people management (Safina, 2015). The promotion system of technical universities should be based on merit without compromising trust in and transparency of the system of administering promotions. Principals of the institutions should encourage strict adherence to appropriate policies. This would elevate the trust and confidence in management among academic staff in their institution. An important concern is how to address disparities in employment conditions between academic staff of technical universities and those of traditional

universities in Ghana. This disparity creates disaffection and disregard for teaching in the technical universities. Compensation for lecturers from both domains should reach a mutually agreed level to reflect the principle of fairness and parity.

The recent upgrading of technical universities in Ghana represents some sign of development and recognition of technical education, which means technical universities should now be able to operate in a similar capacity as mainstream traditional universities. However, this demands a proactive management approach to push the frontiers of development of their respective universities to improve infrastructure and address the historical low status and recognition of technical education. For success, management must demonstrate transformational leadership to spearhead the advancement of technical universities (Fineout-Overholt, Levin & Melnyk, 2004). Management should assume leadership to create innovative avenues that will ensure cooperation between management and academic staff. This cooperation is important for decision making and paving the way for the development of their institutions. This course would ameliorate procedural injustices in the administrative system perceived by academic staff. Strengthening cooperation between management and academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities requires visionary and distributed leadership (Solaja & Ogunola, 2016) to meet the needs and career aspirations of employees.

7.5 Limitations of the Study

This research study has some limitations. The study is constrained by its Ghanaian context and its use of a cross-sectional data-collection process, which might limit the replicability of the research. In addition, generalisability of the findings might be constrained due to the case-study research design and the small sample size. Further, although the researcher gained institutional support to conduct the interviews after several personal visits and phone calls, the institutional leadership was reluctant to grant access. Moreover, academic staff feared providing vital and confidential information and some selected interviewees were uncooperative because they feared

sanction by management for leaking unauthorised information. Thus, caution is required in the interpretation of the study findings. Despite these inherent limitations, the findings provide clear and trustworthy answers to the research questions that guided the study. The use of multiple case institutions and data triangulation (multiple data sources) greatly helped to limit some of the challenges encountered.

7.6 Conclusion

This study employed an exploratory, qualitative, multiple case-study design using the theoretical lens of organisational equilibrium to explore factors that contribute to turnover among academic staff within Ghanaian technical universities. This qualitative paradigm is nested within the interpretivist research paradigm. Qualitative research emphasises meaning rather than measurement and quantification in data collection and analysis; it allows researchers to do in-depth studies about a broad topic. Four of the eight Ghanaian technical universities throughout the country were selected to serve as the social unit for case-study analysis. Semi-structured interview guides were used to obtain data from a purposively selected sample of HR managers, trade union executives, and academic and ex-academic staff. Besides the in-depth interviews, field notes and document analyses were used for data triangulation.

The evidence points to three main categories of factors – personal factors, organisation-wide factors and external factors – that underpin academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. Management and key stakeholders in these technical universities have made considerable effort to develop retention strategies to address the continual academic staff turnover. However, the evidence points to a mismatch between the organisation-wide and external factors and the retention strategies deployed by the universities. This mismatch results in policy ineffectiveness regarding academic staff retention. These findings have several implications for both university management and government policy for developing appropriate staff retention strategies for Ghanaian technical universities. The study makes a significant

contribution to the extant literature on and managerial practice for turnover and retention through the lens of technical universities in Ghana.

7.7 Directions for Future Research

The findings and limitations of this study provide directions for further research on job satisfaction and employee turnover and retention in other higher education institutions and in other contexts. This research should extend to factors that typically enhance job satisfaction and organisational commitment among academic staff in higher institutions. The current research used a multiple case study design, which does not allow generalisation of the findings. The researcher therefore recommends a nationwide survey to examine the impact of various pecuniary and nonpecuniary measures on retention and turnover among academic staff.

This study applied March and Simon's (1958) theory of organisational equilibrium to explore factors that influence academic staff's decisions to stay or leave. Adams's (1965) equity theory also argues that employees perform a cognitive assessment to determine whether the rewards given are balanced against the contributions they make in the workplace. Therefore, future research could apply equity theory to examine how academic staff in Ghanaian universities perceive equity between their rewards and their contributions. This may help technical universities develop appropriate retention strategies to minimise academic staff turnover.

Moreover, supportive organisational environments should be provided in order to promote organisational commitment among academic staff. A study should be conducted to unearth the organisational factors that influence job commitment among academic staff in the Ghanaian context. Findings would further help to maintain high morale and reduce turnover among academic staff. Another area that deserves future research is the role of managerial leadership in employee loyalty and job satisfaction. Such research will provide invaluable information on the relative implications of leadership and management styles on employees' sense of commitment and

productivity. There is a need for further African contextual studies especially in emerging countries where there are tensions between Western management and leadership styles versus African valued-driven management and leadership styles.

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APPENDIX I

INFORMATION SHEET

An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian technical universities

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT

HREC Project Number:	<i>HRE2017-0709</i>
Project Title:	<i>An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian technical universities</i>
Chief Investigator:	<i>Associate Professor Kantha Dayaram</i> <i>School of Management</i> K.Dayaram@curtin.edu.au
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Version Number:	5
Version Date:	14/FEB/2017

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine how academic staff conditions of employment influence staff turnover intentions in Ghanaian technical universities. This study seeks to address staff turnover issues in Ghana by utilizing the theory of organisational equilibrium to examine academic staff conditions of employment and turnover within Ghanaian technical universities. The study will employ in-depth face-to-face interviews involving 52 participants and document analyses as part of an exploratory qualitative research approach involving data gathering from four (4) technical universities in Ghana.

Funding Source

Esmond Naalu Kuuyelleh is a Ph.D. student at Curtin University under the supervision of Associate Professor Kantha Dayaram and Associate Professor Kerry Pedigo from the School of Management. This research is part of a PhD studies, and the results will be used to obtain a Doctor of Philosophy in Management at Curtin University. Esmond's research is funded by GETFund, Ghana.

Invitation and Instructions

You are invited to participate in this research which seeks to address staff turnover issues in Ghana by utilising the theory of organisational equilibrium to examine academic staff conditions of employment and turnover within Ghanaian technical universities. The results from this study will contribute to the HRM literature in sub-Saharan Africa and also furnish the Ghanaian government with the requisite information for policy formulation on academic staff retention and turnover in Ghanaian technical universities. In-depth interviews and official documentary records are the data sources in this research. The official documentary records are concerned with conditions of employment, retention policies and turnover which are contained in policy statements, and other reports related to academic staff conditions of employment, retention policies and turnover. Interviews will be conducted with two (2) heads of HR departments, seven (7) academic staff, two (2) ex-academic staff and two (2) union members to explore how academic staff conditions of employment influence their turnover intentions. The interview will be audio recorded in addition to note taking with your permission and will run for approximately 40 minutes.

Benefits

There may be no direct benefit to you for participating in this research. However we hope that the results from this study will help the Ghanaian government with the requisite information for policy formulation on academic staff retention and turnover in Ghanaian technical universities.

Risks, Discomforts or Inconveniences from Being in the Research Project

There are no foreseeable risks from this research project. We do not expect that there will be any risks or inconveniences apart from giving up your time.

Confidentiality

The information collected in this research will be re-identifiable. We will remove the information that could identify you and replace it with a code. Only the research team have access to the code. We will treat any information that we collect as confidential. We will use the data only in this project. Only the principal researcher and his supervisors (Associate Professor Kantha Dayaram and Associate Professor Kerry Pedigo) will have access to the information. The staff from the Curtin University Office of Research and Development can access the data in the event of an audit or investigation. Electronic data will be protected using a password. Hard copy data including audio tapes will be in locked storage. We will keep the data under secure conditions at Curtin University for seven years after the research has ended. We will destroy it afterward. You have the right to access, and request correction of, your information in accordance with relevant privacy laws. The results of this research may be presented at conferences or published in professional journals. You will not be identified in any results that are published or presented. The de-identified data may be made publicly available if required by journals. All care will be taken to maintain your privacy and confidentiality.

Alternatives to Participation

It is voluntary to take part in this research project. It is your choice to take part or not. You do not have to agree if you do not want to. If you decide to take part and then change your mind that is okay. You can withdraw from the project. You do not have to give us a reason; just tell us that you want to stop. If you chose to leave the study, we will destroy any information we have collected from you. The decision not to participate will have no impact on the relationship with the researchers. There will be no comment or penalty for withdrawal.

Consent Process and Researcher and Institution Contact details

If you decide to take part in this research, we will ask you to sign the consent form. By signing, it is telling us that you understand what you have read and what has been discussed. Signing the consent indicates that you agree to be in the research project and have your information used as described. Please take your time and ask any

questions you have before you decide what to do. You will be given a copy of this information and the consent form to keep.

Contact details:

If you have any further questions, please contact Esmond Naalu Kuuyelleh on +61415550423/+233 208355566 and at e.kuuyelleh@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

You can also contact the supervisor of this research.

APPENDIX II



CONSENT FORM

HREC Project Number:	HRE2017-0709
Project Title:	An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian technical universities
Chief Investigator:	Associate Professor Kantha Dayaram School of Management k.dayaram@curtin.edu.au
Student researcher:	Esmond Naalu Kuuyelleh PhD Candidate, Curtin University e.kuuyelleh@postgrad.curtin.edu.au Mobile +61415550423
Version Number:	4
Version Date:	14/FEB/2017

I, the undersigned, confirm that (please tick box as appropriate)

1	I have read the information statement version listed above and I understand its contents.	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I voluntarily consent to take part in this research project.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	I understand that this project has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee and will be carried out in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	I understand I will receive a copy of this Information Statement and Consent Form.	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	That I have given my consent for face-to-face interviews to be audio-recorded and other forms of data collection have been explained and provided to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>

Participant Name		
Participant Signature		
Date		

Declaration by researcher: I have supplied an Information Letter and Consent Form to the participant who has signed above, and believe that they understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of their involvement in this project.

Researcher Name	Esmond Naalu KUUYELLEH
Researcher Signature	
Date	

APPENDIX III



Curtin Business School

INTERVIEW GUIDE

TOPIC: An Examination of Academic Staff Conditions of Employment and Turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities

Date of Interview: 14 /01/2018

Interviewees: Academic staff

Interview Questions

1. What is your overall view on academic staff turnover within technical universities?
2. How do you view academic staff turnover within this institution?
3. How would you describe the extent of turnover among academic staff in your institution?
4. What factors cause academic staff turnover in this technical university?
5. Would you consider leaving this institution? If so, why?
6. What motivates you to work at this technical university as an academic staff member?
7. What specific conditions of employment would persuade you to remain with this institution?
8. What would you identify in your current job as the most beneficial employment conditions?
9. What kinds of incentives would persuade you to remain working within technical universities?
10. What management practices are used by this technical university to retain academic staff?
11. Which strategies are most likely to induce you to stay as an academic staff member in the university?

12. In your opinion, how effective are these strategies in preventing you from leaving the institution?
13. If you had the opportunity to identify employment conditions or management practices that you would like to have available, which one(s) would you like most, and why?
14. What specific strategies are currently being pursued to help retain staff in the university?

Demographic data of academic staff

- a. Gender: Male Female
- b. Age Below 30
 30–40
 Above 40
- c. What is your marital status? Married Single
- d. If married, is your spouse working, and what is the location of their job?
- e. What is your highest academic qualification?
- f. Location of institution: North South
- g. How long have you been in academia?
- h. How many years have you been teaching in this technical university?
 Less than 6 years
 6–12 years
 More than 12 years
- b. Do you think any of the demographic data above influence your turnover intentions or retention in this university?

Interviewees: Ex-academic staff

Interview Questions

1. How long did you work at this technical university?
2. Why did you leave and what factors or things influenced you to leave the university?
3. What could have been done to change your decision to leave the institution?
4. What specific organisational inducement strategies could have been used to retain you in the university?
5. What specific organisational inducements could be offered to encourage retention of academic staff in Ghanaian technical universities?
6. What staff retention methods would have influenced you to remain at the university?
7. What were you expecting the university management to do for you as an academic staff member to keep you at the university?
8. What specific strategies were more likely to influence you to stay as an academic staff member in the university?

Demographic data of ex-academic staff

a. Gender:	Male []	Female []	
b. Age:	Below 30 []	30–40 []	Above 40 []
c. What is your marital status?	Married []	Single []	
d. If married, is your spouse working, and what is the location of their job?	_____		
e. What is your highest academic qualification?			
f. Location of institution:	North []	South []	
g. How long have you been in academia?			
h. How many years did you teach in your previous technical university?			
	Less than 6 years []	6–12 years []	More than 12 years []
i. Did any of the demographic data above influence your decision to move out of this university?	Yes []	No []	

Interviewees: Union members

Interview Questions

1. To what extent are academic staff leaving technical universities in Ghana?
2. What factors cause academic staff to leave this technical university?
3. What could be done to prevent academic staff from leaving this university?
4. How would you describe the influence of conditions of employment on academic staff turnover?
5. What is management currently doing to encourage academic staff to remain at the university?
6. What kinds of inducements are offered to academic staff to encourage them to remain at the university?
7. Do you think that some current practices designed to retain academic staff are making them leave the university instead?
8. If yes, how do you think these strategies influence academic staff to leave?
9. How can academic staff retention in technical universities be increased?
10. Which forms of organisational inducements can most likely increase academic staff retention in Ghanaian technical universities?
11. Which conditions of employment can most likely increase academic staff retention in Ghanaian technical universities?

Demographic data of union members

- a. Gender: Male [] Female []
- b. Age Below 30 [] 30–40 [] Above 40 []
- c. What is your marital status? Married [] Single []
- d. If married, is your spouse working, and what is the location of their job?
-
- e. What is your highest academic qualification?
- f. Location of institution: North [] South []
- g. How long have you been in academia?
- h. How many years have you been teaching in this technical university?
- Less than 6 years []
- 6–12 years []
- More than 12 years []
- i. Do you think any of the demographic data above would influence your turnover or retention in this university?

Interviewees: Heads of human resource departments

Interview Questions: Causes of academic staff turnover in Ghanaian technical universities

1. How would you describe the extent of turnover among academic staff in this technical university?
2. In what specific ways do HR management practices contribute to academic staff turnover in your university?
3. How do academic staff conditions of employment contribute to their turnover in your university?
4. What factors make academic staff leave your institution?

Interview questions: Current organisational inducements and academic staff retention

1. What specific organisational inducements are currently offered to academic staff in this technical university?
2. What are you doing currently to prevent academic staff from leaving this university?
3. Do you think organisational inducements contribute to the retention of academic staff in the institution? If yes, how?

Interview questions: Current staff-retention strategies and their impact on academic staff turnover and retention

1. What current retention strategies do you pursue to prevent academic staff turnover within your university?
2. In your opinion, what has been the impact of the current staff-retention strategies on academic staff turnover?
3. How effective are these staff-retention strategies in retaining academic staff within your institution?

Interview questions: Strategies most likely to increase academic staff retention

1. What specific strategies have been used to increase the retention of academic staff in the university?
2. Among all staff-retention strategies, which strategies are most likely to increase the retention of academic staff in the university?

Demographic data of heads of human resource departments

- a. Gender: Male [] Female []
- b. Age Below 30 []
 30–40 []
 Above 40 []
- c. What is your marital status? Married [] Single []

- d. If married, is your spouse working, and what is the location of their job?
- e. What is your highest academic qualification?
- f. Location of institution: North [] South []
- g. How many years have you worked in this technical university?
 - Less than 6 years []
 - 6–12 years []
 - More than 12 years []
- h. Do you think any of the demographic data above can affect academic staff turnover or retention in this university?

APPENDIX IV

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY



School of Management
Kent Street, Bentley
Perth
Western Australia 6102

20th October, 2017

THE REGISTRAR
ACCRA TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
ACCRA
GHANA

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A PhD STUDY

I wish to request for permission to conduct my PhD research work in your institution. I am conducting a research on the topic: **An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities.**

The data to be collected from your institution will be used for academic purposes and would be treated with confidentiality. Attached is the information sheet, which provides detail of the nature of information and access required.

I hope my request would be considered.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Esmond Naalu Kuuyelleh
PhD Candidate
+61 415550423
+233 208255566
e.kuuyelleh@postgrad.curtin.edu.au



School of Management
Kent Street, Bentley
Perth
Western Australia 6102

20th October, 2017

THE REGISTRAR
KUMASI TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
KUMASI
GHANA

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A PhD STUDY

I wish to request for permission to conduct my PhD research work in your institution. I am conducting a research on the topic: **An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities.**

The data to be collected from your institution will be used for academic purposes and would be treated with confidentiality. Attached is the information sheet, which provides detail of the nature of information and access required.

I hope my request would be considered.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

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PhD Candidate
+61 415550423
+233 208255566
e.kuuyelleh@postgrad.curtin.edu.au



School of Management
Kent Street, Bentley
Perth
Western Australia 6102

20th October, 2017

THE REGISTRAR
SUNYANI TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
SUNYANI
GHANA

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A PhD STUDY

I wish to request for permission to conduct my PhD research work in your institution. I am conducting a research on the topic: **An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities.**

The data to be collected from your institution will be used for academic purposes and would be treated with confidentiality. Attached is the information sheet, which provides detail of the nature of information and access required.

I hope my request would be considered.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Esmond Naalu Kuuyelleh

PhD Candidate

+61 415550423

+233 208255566

e.kuuyelleh@postgrad.curtin.edu.au



School of Management
Kent Street, Bentley
Perth
Western Australia 6102.

20th October, 2017.

THE REGISTRAR
TAMALE TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
TAMALE
GHANA

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A PhD STUDY

I wish to request for permission to conduct my PhD research work in your institution. I am conducting a research on the topic: **An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian Technical Universities.**

The data to be collected from your institution will be used for academic purposes and would be treated with confidentiality. Attached is the information sheet, which provides detail of the nature of information and access required.

I hope my request would be considered.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Esmond Naalu Kuuyelleh

PhD Candidate

+61 415550423

+233 208255566

e.kuuyelleh@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

APPENDIX V

ETHICS CLEARANCE



Office of Research and Development

GPO Box U1987

Perth Western Australia 6845

Telephone +61 8 9266 7863

Facsimile +61 8 9266 3793

Web research.curtin.edu.au

09-Oct-2017

Name: Kantha Dayaram

Department/School: School of Management

Email: K.Dayaram@curtin.edu.au

Dear Kantha Dayaram

RE: Ethics Office approval

Approval number: HRE2017-0709

Thank you for submitting your application to the Human Research Ethics Office for the project **An examination of academic staff conditions of employment and turnover in Ghanaian polytechnics**.

Your application was reviewed through the Curtin University Low risk review process.

The review outcome is: **Approved**.

Your proposal meets the requirements described in the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)*.

Approval is granted for a period of one year from **09-Oct-2017** to **08-Oct-2018**. Continuation of approval will be granted on an annual basis following submission of an annual report.

Personnel authorised to work on this project:

Name	Role
Dayaram, Kantha	CI
Pedigo, Kerry	Co-Inv
Kuuyelleh, Esmond Naalu	Student

Approved documents:

[Document](#)

Standard conditions of approval

1. Research must be conducted according to the approved proposal
2. Report in a timely manner anything that might warrant review of ethical approval of the project including:
 - proposed changes to the approved proposal or conduct of the study
 - unanticipated problems that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project
 - major deviations from the approved proposal and/or regulatory guidelines
 - serious adverse events
3. Amendments to the proposal must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Office before they are implemented (except where an amendment is undertaken to eliminate an immediate risk to participants)
4. An annual progress report must be submitted to the Human Research Ethics Office on or before the anniversary of approval and a completion report submitted on completion of the project
5. Personnel working on this project must be adequately qualified by education, training and experience for their role, 5. or supervised
6. Personnel must disclose any actual or potential conflicts of interest, including any financial or other interest or affiliation, that bears on this project
7. Changes to personnel working on this project must be reported to the Human Research Ethics Office
8. Data and primary materials must be retained and stored in accordance with the [Western Australian University Sector Disposal Authority \(WAUSDA\)](#) and the [Curtin University Research Data and Primary Materials policy](#)
9. Where practicable, results of the research should be made available to the research participants in a timely and clear manner
10. Unless prohibited by contractual obligations, results of the research should be disseminated in a manner that will allow public scrutiny; the Human Research Ethics Office must be informed of any constraints on publication
11. Approval is dependent upon ongoing compliance of the research with the [Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research](#), the [National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research](#), applicable legal requirements, and with Curtin University policies, procedures and governance requirements
12. The Human Research Ethics Office may conduct audits on a portion of approved projects.

Special Conditions of Approval

None

This letter constitutes low risk/negligible risk approval only. This project may not proceed until you have met all of the Curtin University research governance requirements.

Should you have any queries regarding consideration of your project, please contact the Ethics Support Officer for your faculty or the Ethics Office at hrec@curtin.edu.au or on 9266 2784.

Yours sincerely

Amy Bowater
Acting Manager, Research Integrity