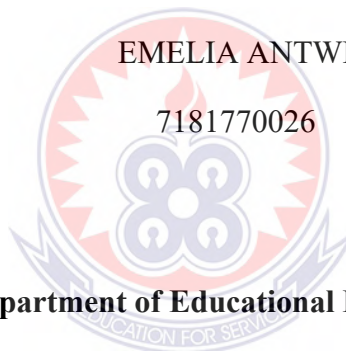AKENTEN APPIAH-MENKA UNIVERSITY OF SKILLS TRAINING AND

ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT-KUMASI

INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON THE ACADEMIC STAFF

RETENTION IN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN ASHANTI REGION

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A Dissertation in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of Education and Communication Sciences submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of the Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree

DECEMBER, 2021

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

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

SIGNATURE: ……………………………………………………………

DATE: ……………………………………………………………………

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation as laid down by the Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. PHILIP OTI-AGYEN

SIGNATURE………………………………………………

 DATE: ……………………………………………….

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

To my husband, Mr. Afriyie Dominic and my children, Kwame Agyapong, Abena

Sarpong Afriyie, Ama Akomaa Afriyie and Akwasi Achiaw Afriyie.

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ABSTRACT

Leadership is the process of providing a direction, and influencing individual or groups to achieve set goals of the group , and it is a key ingredient for an organization to achieve its set goals. A leader is a person who has power to influence individuals or group of people towards the achievement of these set goals. The main objective of this study was to establish the influence of leadership style on academic stuff retention in some private universities in Ashanti region of Ghana. The study also sought to ascertain the kind of leadership styles practice of managers of these institutions, and also sought to make recommendations in the areas of leadership practice for the improvement of academic staff retention. Descriptive survey was employed for this study. A convenience sampling method was used since every academic staff constitute part of the population of the study. A total of 77 respondents participated in the study. The study was quantitative and therefore relied on self-administered questionnaires to obtain data from the respondents. The data was analyzed using inferential statistical tool. The major findings of the study indicated that, leadership styles had no influence on academic staff retention in these universities, the study also revealed that, authoritative leadership style was the dominant practice, though democratic leadership style was most preferred. The study further showed that improvement in working conditions, remunerations, effective participative decision making and work relationship are imperative for academic staff retention. Finally, the study recommended the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, in addition to multiple variables for future studies.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The most valuable resource available to any organization is its employees, therefore retaining key staff in their jobs is necessary for any organizational success (Ng'ethe, Iravo & Namusonge, 2012a). For this reason, even though attracting top-quality employees is vital for organizational success, it is more imperative for manages to devise means of retaining these key employees in their organizations (Rao, 2012). There are many factors accountable for employee attrition. According to Branham (2005), some of these factors include the mismatch between job and the person, too little coaching and feedback. Lack of opportunities for growth, feeling devalued and unrecognized, and stress from over work and work-life imbalance. Braham (2005), further argues that the loss of trust and confidence in senior leaders is among the seven hidden reasons why employees leave organizations. This implies that the role of leadership cannot be overemphasized when discussing the issue of employee retention. Apart from compulsory retirement, employee attrition probably indicates that something is wrong with an organization. Considering the competitive urge that key employees give to organizations, leaders have an indispensable role to play in ensuring that these human assets are retained for organizational competitiveness. Organizational success in achieving its goals and objectives depends on the leaders of the organization and their leadership styles (Voon, Lo, Ngui & Ayob, 2011).

Retaining key employees is fundamental for organizational success. Nothing can replace a happy and productive workforce who are committed to organizational corporate

vision. It is known fact that retaining the best employees ensures customer satisfaction, increased sales, satisfied colleagues and reporting staff, effective succession planning, and deeply embedded organizational knowledge and learning (Singh & Dixit, 2011). Therefore, giving away key employees can be very expensive for any organization. Effective employee retention is a systematic effort by employers to create and foster an environment that encourages employees to remain employed, by having policies and practices in place that address their diverse needs (Voon et al., 2011). For Singh and Dixit (2011), employee retention is a process in which the employees are encouraged to remain with the organization for the maximum period of time or until the completion of the project. Michael (2008), mentioned in (Ng'ethe, Namusonge & Iravo, 2012b) further explains that employee retention is a voluntary move by an organization to create an environment which engages employees for long term. Generally, employee retention involves the managerial efforts that are directed towards ensuring that key employees remain with an organization for as long as possible.

Leadership has duty to create an enabling environment that will guarantee employee commitment and engagement. By adopting the appropriate leadership styles, leaders can affect employees' job satisfaction, commitment and productivity (Voon et al.., 2011). This means that leadership is essential to organizational success, because it involves the activities and behaviors of individuals or a group in their efforts towards goal achievement in an organization. The extent or degree to which numbers of organization use their abilities and energies in the effective utilization of sources depend upon how well the leaders of the organization understand and perform their jobs.

Though the concept of leadership has many definitions. It is generally believed to be a relationship through which one person has the ability to guide or influence the behavior of other person. It might be interpreted in simple terms as getting others to follow you or getting people to do things willingly (Mullins, 2007). The above definitions suggests that leaders who are successful have a multidimensional set of interpersonal skills, which enable them to motivate, communicate, build teams, involves others, reward appropriately and change the mindset of people. Having willing followers is the only thing that clearly differentiates leaders from non-leaders (Boyett & Boyett, 1998). A capable leader provides direction for the organization and lead followers towards achieving these desired goals. According to Galup, Klein and Jiang (2008), cited in Voon et al. (2011), successful organizations normally have satisfied employees while poor job satisfaction can cripple and organization. An organization that fosters high employee job satisfaction is also more capable of retaining and attracting employees with the skills that it needs (Mosadegh, Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006, cited in Voon et al.., 2011). This call for the need for organizational leaders to strategize in order to keep its employees.

The main purpose of retention is to prevent the loss of competent employees from leaving the organization as this could have adverse effect on productivity and probability (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). One of the critical roles of leadership is to create a work environment that will endear the organization to employees. It also includes influencing these employees' decision to be committed and remain in the organization even when other job opportunities exist outside the organization (Michael, 2008). It must be pointed out that, the styles of leadership adopted by managers of organizations can affect employee retention. The direction of the organization relies on the leadership style of the

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managers. So, for Beardwell (2007) cited in (Ng'ethe et al.., 2012b) the role of these leaders in employee retention is important because literature indicated that employees leave leaders and not organization.

According to Varghese (2004), referenced in (Amponsah & Onuha, 2013), may private universities have emerged in the last two decades to help absorb the many qualified candidates who are denied admission into existing public universities. Current figures from the National Accreditation Board (2014), indicated that there are fifty-nine private degree and diploma awarding institution in Ghana. Most of these private universities are parented by fully – fledged public universities. These private universities hold affiliations with the public universities for the various academic progrmmes and the award of certificates. For instance, the Catholic University College and the Garden City University College are affiliated to the University of Ghana and the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology respectively for these purposes (National Accreditation Board, 2014). This means that these private universities rely hugely on their mentoring public universities and partially on their own resources for tuition. Consequently, some of the challenges that confront the public universities do affect the private universities to some extent. A study conducted by Tettey (2006) in five public universities in Africa (including a Ghanaian academic staff). This erosion of academic staff is influenced by lots of factors. Some of the major determinants of academic staff retention include leadership, distributive justice, work environment, salary, promotional opportunities, training and development and recognition (Ng'ethe et al., 2012a). if the public universities with all the resolves of struggle to retain their academic staff as posited by Tettey (2006), then their dependents, the private universities do have enormous task regarding the retention of their academic

staff. Managers in these private universities including the presidents, vice chancellors, rectors, principals, deans and heads of departments have the duty to devise ways of ensuring that they keep their core employees. The leadership styles of these managers are vital for the retention of the available academic staff of these universities because for Armstrong (2009), employees join companies and leave managers.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The problem of academic staff retention is a global one which affects both developing and industrialized countries (Tettey, 2006) due to differing expectations for pay, work assignment, benefits and leadership styles practiced by top managers. It is more efficient to retain a quality employees than to recruit, train and orient a replacement of the same quality. Employees retention and leadership style practice go hand in hand. In 2012, a study was conducted on the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya by Ng'ethe, Namusonge & Iravo. The outcome of the study indicated that leadership style influences academic staff intention in Kenyan public universities (Ng'ethe et al., 2012b). Studies, such as, Waswa et.al. (2008) has established that leadership style has contributed to industrial actions in public universities in Kenya due to lack of adequate communication and lack of participatory decision making. Private universities in Ghana are operating in highly competitive environments which require them to establish effective leadership styles that enhance staff retention in order to gain competitive advantage and reputation as their public counterparts. This create disillusionment among the academic staff due to heavy workload and long working hours. This situation is compounded by poor remuneration therefore leading to the institution

loosing staff and raising capacity concern. This has left many academic staff in total frustration resulting in lack of job satisfaction and morale. Ghana is a nation with some private universities and some leadership styles practiced by the top managers in these private universities may include autocratic leadership, laissez-faire, transactional, bureaucratic transformational, democratic among others. Good leadership styles set the tone for organization and it is up to the senior leadership to set good organization culture, good leadership practices, which could lead to employees' retention or attrition. In the light of academic staff retention issues and the leadership challenge, this study establish the influence of leadership styles on the academic staff retention in some selected private universities in Ashanti Region of Ghana.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish the influence of leadership styles on academic staff retention in some private universities in Ashanti Region.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study specifically sought to:

1. Identify the leadership styles practiced by the managers of private universities

2. Determine influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in private universities.

3. Make recommendations in the area of leadership styles that could help improve the academic staff retention in the private institutions.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions were asked to help achieve the objectives of the study;

1. What leadership styles are practiced by the managers of private universities?

2.   What ways do leadership styles influence the retention of academic staff in private universities in Ashanti Region?

3. What recommendations could be made to improve the influence of leadership styles on the retention of the academic staff in private universities?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Since leadership is essential to organizational success, it is natural that attention is paid to the role of leadership in retaining staff in private universities. This study would help educational leaders to adopt the best leadership style that would impact positivity on the relationship between management and staff.

Secondly, the study help train upcoming educational leaders on the importance of leadership style in institutional management. It will strengthening the existing institutional managers to enhance their capacity to deliver on their core mandate to promote staff retention. Studies have shown that leadership styles have influence on the academic staff retention in the public universities. In addition to the above, the study will further help managers of the private institutions adopt the best leadership practices that will help them to retain their academic staff and improve general organizational success. The outcome of the study will further contribute to the practice of human resource management in these and other analogous institutions. This study was also important because it made

suggestions for researchers to explore other related areas that could ultimately contribute to knowledge.

The findings of this study can serve as a starting point for future research on the subject of academic staff retention and leadership style in private universities in Ghana

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on the influence of leadership styles on academic staff retention in some selected private universities in the Ashanti region of Ghana. The universities were Christian Service University College, Garden City University College and Spiritan University College. The study did not consider any other variable of academic staff retention apart from leadership styles.

In the first place, the role of private universities in augmenting the efforts of traditional public universities in Africa cannot be overemphasized. The many challenges of the public universities have made the emergence of private universities imperative, therefore any study that is focused on the private universities would be worthwhile.

Secondly, it is generally believed that the fundamental role of private universities is partnering the public universities in the development of human capital through tertiary education therefore the focus is on the private universities in order to absorbed the excess increasing number of students who are rejected by the public universities due to limited facilities.

Also, some of the cardinal contributions of private universities is the provision of uninterrupted educational programme since they hardly go on strike or shut down as compared to their public university counterparts. They also contribute to research, and

increasing access to qualified people into universities, helping to provide better quality graduates, provision of employment. Moreover, they help to reduce brain drain and helping governments to reduce expenditure on higher education (Amponsah & Onuoho. 2013).

The three private universities were chosen because they have been in existence for more than a decade and have continuously train quality human resource in the areas of health, management and theology providing access to the people in the middle belt.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

This study was largely limited by the reluctant and cagey posture of the managers and respondents of the participating universities which was reflected in the quality of the response. For instance, one senior lecturer in one of the universities openly rejected the idea of partaking in the study due to want of time. This attitude was probably due to the recent sanctioning of some universities in Ghana by the National Accreditation Board due to issues regarding accreditation and qualification (Afful, 2015). The fear of being exposed by research findings probably explains the reticent posture of these universities. Getting the universities to open up and participate in this study was an exhausting experience to the researcher. Another limitation to the study was that some of the academic staff of these universities were on part-time and therefore were not available to partake in the study.

1.9 Organization of the Study

The study is classified into five chapters. Chapter one consists of the background and general concepts statement of the problem; purpose and objectives; research questions

or hypothesis where applicable; significance of the study; limitations, and the delimitations of the report. Chapter two concentrates on the literature review. This involves a comprehensive, but incisive review of relevant literature in the research area. Chapter three focuses on the research methodology. It provides information on participants, including sampling techniques, procedures (including evidence of ethical considerations), and tools used in both data collection, and analysis. Chapter four is devoted to the presentation of findings or results and discussion. The discussion emphasizes the major findings of the researcher and the inferences made from them in view of findings from related previous studies. Finally, Chapter five focuses on summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations. The major research findings are stated and indicated how this study has contributed to knowledge. This sub-section also includes recommendations and any limitations of the study, including suggestions for future research work.
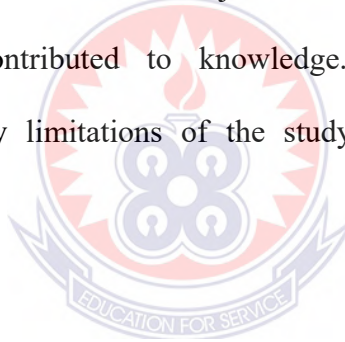
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the review of works that have been done on leadership and employee retention. It focuses on the concept of leadership, a theoretical framework, the concept of employee retentions, influence of leadership style on staff retention, and concludes with a conceptual framework.

2.2 The Concept of Leadership

The concept of Leadership is defined in many ways, making it very fluid and diverse. According to Lester (1975), the concept of lea dership has changed as new information is discovered, accepted and used. Leadership has become an evolving concept that keeps growing in different fields of academia and industry. Mat (2008) cited in (Ng'ethe et al., 2012b), explains further that leadership definitions keep evolving as scholars try to simplify the definition to enable people to understand the concept easily and to make it less complicated and more practical in daily business. The term leadership is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined (Yukl, 2010). Consequently, the concept has become a pedestrian term with so many definitions and ambiguities. For Yukl (2010), the additional confusion is caused by the use of other imprecise terms such as power, authority, management, administration, control and supervision to describe similar phenomena. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1975)

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stated in Yukl (2010), concluded that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.

Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2010). The concept of leadership is believed by many to the ability to influence or direct people to achieve some goal. According to Mullins (2010), leadership might be interpreted in simple terms as getting others to follow or getting people to do things willingly. Robbins and Judge (2013), also define leadership as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals. Hemphill and Coons (1957) mentioned in (Yukl, 2010) define leadership as the behavior of an individual directing the activities of group toward a shared goal. To them, leadership is reflected in behavior. Other scholars also see leadership as a process of influencing others to follow course voluntarily. For instance, Okumbe (1998), define leadership as a process of encouraging and helping others to do something of their own volition, neither because it is required nor because of the fear of consequences of non-compliance. Similar to Okumba's definition, Jacob and Jaques (1990), define leadership as a process of giving purpose to collective effort, and causing wiling effort to be expended to achieve purpose. Rauch and Behling (1984), also define leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement. In the above definitions, the element of coercion is not applicable. Besides these, some scholars conceive leadership as the pattern of interactions between leaders and their followers. For example, leadership is seen as the reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values, various, various economic, political, and other resources in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently

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or mutually held by both leaders and followers (Burns, 1978). Astin and Leland (1991) seems to affirm this definition when they explain leadership as a process by which members of a group are empowered to work together synergistically toward a common goal or vision that will create change, transform institutions and thus improve the quality of life. Yet still, other scholars define leadership in terms of the traits or qualities of the leaders. For instance, Gardner (1995) citied in Afful-Broni (2004) makes reference to Filed Marshall Montgomery in his definition of leadership, as the capacity and the will to rally men and women in a common purpose, and the character which inspires confidence. The leader must be an educator, who bridges the gap between the vision and familiar, and is willing to walk alone to enable his society to follow the path he has chosen (Gardner 1995, cited in Afful-Broni, 2004).

Based on the various terms that underpin the definitions, there appear to be less or no commonality among the concepts. However, Northouse (2004) seems to recognize four ideas that run through the definitions. These include the idea of leadership as a process and the involvement of influence. The other two are that leadership takes place in the context of a group and that it involves the setting of goals and working to achieve them (Northouse 2004).

Another issue worth considering is the controversy over the difference between leadership and management. In everyday speech leadership and management are used interchangeably (Ng'ethe et al., 2012b). Because of this, the question is always asked if all managers are leaders and vice versa. Afull –Broni (2004), for instance defines a manager as the leader directly responsible for the detail of the day-to-day affairs of the organization. The use of the term 'leader' in this and probably other definitions are partly responsible for

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this controversy. While some scholars (Zaleznik, 1977; Bennis & Nanus, 1985) cited in Yukl (2010) contend that leadership and management are qualitatively different and mutually exclusive, other scholars (Mintzherg, 1973; Bass, 1990; Hickma, 1990, Rost, 1991; Kotter, 1998) also mentioned in Yukl (2010), view leading and managing as distinct processes or roles, but do not assume that leaders and managers are different types of people. For Ng'ethe el al., (2012b), management is about developing, planning and controlling of organizational resources while leadership is about the aligning of people to the expected outcomes of the vision. Since people in an organization from part of the organizational resources, it can be argued from this definition that exercising leadership is an element of management. However, it appears that management is more focused on organizational resources while leadership places more emphasis on influencing people's behavior. So, for Yukl (2010), a person can be leader (an informal leader of financial accounts) without leading. Notwithstanding the seeming difference, the two terms may be used interchangeably in this work.

2.2 Theoretical Frame work

The style and type of leadership employed plays a major role in the successful completion of tasks and the overall success of organizations (Thrush, 2012). According to Branham (2005), achieving this organizational success require that leaders create a culture of trust and integrity that strengthens the bonds of employee engagement or retention. Employing Mullins (2010), approach or framework to the study of managerial leadership, the theoretical framework considers the qualities or traits approach, leadership as a

behavioral category, styles of leadership, contingency theory and transformational leadership.

2.2.1 The Qualities or Trait Approach

The Grant Man Theory of leadership attempts to explain leadership on the basis of heredity (Chandan & Devi, 2014). It is based on the behalf that leaders are exceptional people, born with inmate qualities and destined to lead (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). For Chandan and Devi (2014), the fundamental concept of this theory is that the leader is genetically gifted with superior qualities that differentiate him from his followers. This theory is believed to have been influenced by Galton's (1870) study cited in Chandan and Devi (2014), which suggests that great leaders take over their ability to lead to their descendants through their genes. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century, leadership was considered as a concept which is primarily male, military and western (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). The emphasis on trait approach arose from the "Great Man" theory as a way of identifying the key characteristics of successful leaders (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). The term trait refers to a variety of individual attributes, including aspects of personality, temperament, needs, motives, and values (Yukl, 2010). Therefore, the trait theory was based on the assumptions that generally people are born with certain special characteristics or traits like intelligence, alertness, scholastic achievement, dependability, persistence, adaptability, relational competence and higher socio-economic status (Chandan & Devi, 2014). It was believed that through this approach critical leadership traits could be isolated and that people with such traits could then be recruited, selected, and installed into leadership

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positions (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2013). According to Afful-Broni (2014), this theory gives the impression that if we could carefully identify those traits, characteristics or unique qualities, then we could say that any particular leader who possessed them would be a very effective, regardless of the type of organization. However, this surely could not be the case because for Chandan and Devi (2014), the search for such universal traits or qualities was eventually seen as pointless, since the general approach to leadership seemed to be more important. The problem with the trait approach or theory is that experts could not agree on common universal traits that are required for effective leadership because almost as many traits as studies undertaken were identified (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003).

2.2.2 Leadership as a Behavioral Category

The inconclusiveness of the trait theory, led to the emergence of the behavioral theories of leadership. This school of thought believes that instead of the traits of the leader, it is rather the manner in which the leader related to or behave within the environment that determine his effectiveness (Afful-Broni, 2004). This clearly shifts the emphasis from the leaders, as in the case of the traits theory to leadership which is more behavioral (Afful-Broni, 2014). This shift is further justified by White (2014), who argues that the importance of this shift suggests that understanding and describing the behavior of effective leaders meant that such behaviors, and their associated skills, could be documented and measured, and therefore learned through leadership training. Therefore leaders did not have to be born, they could be made or at least, they can to some extent be trained behaviors so that they can become more effective (White, 2014).

According to Chandan and Devi (2014), the development of behavioral theories was strongly based on the leader's behavior. This is corroborated by Mullins (2010), who also suggests that this approach draws attention to the kinds of behavior of people in leadership situations. This section considers works on the Ohio State University and the university of Michigan studies on behavioral leadership, McGregor's theory X and theory Y, and the Managerial Grid theory.

2.2.3 The Ohio State and Michigan Universities Behavioral Leadership Studies

Two major research studies conducted by researchers from Ohio State University and the University of Michigan strongly influenced the behavioral theory of leadership (Chandan & Devi, 2014). The focus of the Ohio State University was on the effects of leadership styles on group performance. The results showed two major dimensions of leadership behavior, called consideration and initiating structure (Mullins, 2010). Consideration, according to Chandan and Devi (2014), is described as the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationships that are characterized by mutual trust, respect for employee's idea and respect for their feelings. Chandan and Devi (2014), explain initiating structure as the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of employees in the search for goal attainment. According to Mullin (2010), the other study carried out by at the University of Michigan concluded that effective supervisors appeared to show four common characteristics Mullin (2010) listed these as;

- delegation of authority and refrainment from close supervision
- an interest and concern in their subordinates as individuals;
- participating problem-solving; and

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- high standards of performance

Wright (1996), cited in Afful-Broni (2004), appears to agree with Mullins (2010) on this study when he offers four major styles of leadership at work. They are leadership behaviours that show concern for task, concerns for people, directives leadership and participative leadership (Aful-Broni, 2004). For Yukl (2010), the research established three types of leadership that differentiated between effective and the ineffective managers. They are task-oriented behavior, relations-oriented behavior and participated leadership (Yukl, 2010).

Yukl (2010) explains task oriented behavior as that ion which effective managers did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates, but concentrated on task-oriented functions such as planning, coordinating subordinates activities, and providing the necessary supplies, equipment and technical assistance. For relations-oriented behavior, effective managers exhibited more supportive behavior towards subordinates in the form of showing trust and confidence, being friendly, understanding subordinates' problems, helping to build subordinates, keeping subordinates informed, and recognizing subordinates contributions and accomplishments (Yukl, 2010). Finally, Yukl (2010), explains participative leadership behavior in terms of effective managers who used more group supervision to facilitate subordinates participation in decision making, improve communication, promote cooperation and facilitate conflict resolution, instead of supervising subordinates separately.

2.2.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Another theory worth considering under the behavioral theories of leadership is McGregor's theory X and theory Y of managers. This theory explains two contrasting observations of people at work that will influence management style (Ng. ethe et al., 2012b). McGregor's theory is based on the fact that leadership strategies are influenced by a leader's assumptions about human nature (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). While (2004), further argues that McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y model of contrasting viewpoints of worker motivation suggested contrasting –autocratic versus participative – leadership styles as being likely to result. The basic assumption of theory X is that the average worker is lazy (Afful-Broni, 2004). It can therefore be concluded that a leader holding Theory X assumptions would prefer an autocratic style as stated earlier by White (2014). However, the basic assumption of theory Y states that the physical and mental efforts required for work are natural to the average person who conditions are favorable to him and therefore there's no need for the use of coercion, since working is a natural to man as rest (Afful-Broni, 2014). Based on this assumption, it can be seen that a leader with the Theory Y assumption would be more participative.

2.2.5 The Managerial Grid Theory

The final theory to be reviewed under the behavioral theories of leadership is the Managerial Grid theory developed by Robbert Blake and Jane Mouton. First developed in 1964, the Grid provides a basis for comparison of managerial styles in terms of two principal dimensions concern for production and concern for people (Mullins, 2010). The word 'concern' reflects how leader's underlying assumptions about people at work and the

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importance of the bottom line influences leadership style (Hughes-Ginnett-Curphy, 2006). For Mullins (2010), concern for production, represented along the horizontal axis of the grid, is the amount of emphasis that the manager places on accomplishing the tasks in hand, achieving a high level of production and getting results or profits. As far as the leadership style that displays concern for production is concerned, it includes elements like output of the workers, work efficiency, quality of policy decision, various processes and procedures that are followed during the production line (Kondalkar, 2007). Represented on the vertical axis of the grid, concern for people is the amount of emphasis that the manager gives to subordinates and colleagues as individuals and to their needs and expectations (Mullins, 2010). For Kondalkar (2007), concern for people includes such elements as degree of personal commitment towards goal achievement, maintenance of self-esteem of people, assigning task based on trust, provision of good working conditions and maintenance of good inter-personal relationship. When a manager has concern for people, he is more worried about fulfillment of various need factors that are included in hygiene factors of McGregor in his motivational style (Kondalkar, 2007). The resulting effect of the combinations of the two concerns is the provision of five basic leadership styles namely, the organization man manager, and the team manager (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). These are briefly discussed.

- The impoverished manager who has low concern for production and low concern for people tend to remotes from their subordinates and believes in the minimum movement from their present position (Mullins, 2010).

- The authority of obedience manage with high concern for production and low concern for people exhibits the leadership style that concentrates on setting of

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organizational goal, development of effective operations systems, utilization or organizational resources, achievement of objectives and stress on quality of work and production (Kondalkar, 2007).

- For the club country manager, who has low concern for production and high concern for people, believes that a contented staff will undertake what is required of them and achieve a reasonable level of output (Mullins, 2010).

- According to Mullins (2010), the organization man manager has moderate concern for both production and the people. Such managers set moderate production goals and achieve them and have equal concern for people and work (Kondalkar, 2007).

- Finally, the team manager with high concern for both production and the people believes in the integrating of the task needs and concern for people (Mullins, 2010). Such managers are real team leaders who have full knowledge, skill and aptitude for job and also concern for the welfare of worker (Kondalkar, 2007). Blake and Mouton propose that Team Management has high concern for both employees and production and is the most efficient type of leadership behavior (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003).

2.3. Leadership Style

The maintenance of performance and completion of organizational tasks partly depends on the leadership styles adopted by managers of these organizations. A leadership style refers to a particular behavior applied by a leader to motivate his or her subordinates to achieve the objectives of the organization (Ng'ethe et al., 2012b). It is the approaches to leading people in an organization. It consists of leader's general personality, demeanor,

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and communication patters in guiding others toward reaching organizational or personal goals (Encyclopedia of Educational Leadership and Administration, 2012). The style of leadership adopted by a manager of leader is reflected in the leadership practices within an organization. For instance, the democratic leadership style tends to spread the decision making process to workers, while the autocratic does not. There are so many leadership styles widely discussed in literature. Simpson (2010), for instance identifies autocratic, bureaucratic, charismatic, democratic, laissez faire, task oriented, transactional and transformational as some of the common leadership styles. However, Mullins (2010) believes that it is useful to have a broad framework in which to focus attention and study and that the style of managerial leadership towards subordinate staff and the focus of power can be considered within a three-fold heading, namely; autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire. Based on this, some styles of leadership to be reviewed include the autocratic, democratic and laissez faire. Based on this, some styles of leadership to be reviewed include the autocratic, democratic and laissez faire.

2.3.1 Autocratic Leadership Style

According to Afful-Broni (2004), the autocratic leadership style is a domineering style where the leader alone dreams, determines, and sets out the policies, and also assigns tasks to members without consultation with them. The manager alone exercises decision-making and authority for determining policy, procedures for achieving goals, work tasks and relationships, control of rewards or punishments (Mullins, 2010). For Hoyle (2012), the autocratic or authoritarian leader employs coercive tactics to enforce rules, use Machiavellian cunning to manipulate people and decision making, and reward loyalty over

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merit. This is further supported by Lester (1975), who describes the autocratic leader as an individual who determines all policies, activities and goals of the organization. For Warrick (1981), the autocratic leaders place more emphasis on performance than the people. They do not tolerate contrary views and suggestions from their subordinates. The assumption is that people are lazy, irresponsible, and untrustworthy and that planning, organizing, controlling and decision making should be accomplished by the leader with minimal involvement of the employee (Warrick, 1981). Autocratic leaders rely on coercion, power and control to achieve organizational results. Some benefit of this style of leadership is that in certain emergency situations, it becomes rather more practical and useful (Afful-Broni, 2004). Another important feature of this leadership style is that decisions can be made quickly because there is no need for long consultation processes (McPheat, 2010). The negative consequences of this leadership style is that although the emphasis is on high productivity, it often breeds counterforces of antagonism and restriction of output, hostile attitudes, a suppression of conflict, distorted and guarded communications, high turnover and absenteeism, low productivity and work quality, and a preoccupation with rules, procedures, red tape, and uncreative employees (Warrick, 1981).

2.3.2 Democratic Leadership Style

It is also known as participative style. This style of leadership is grounded on the thesis that the organization is the responsibility of all, even though the leader has the primary role of guiding the rest of the group in arriving at their collective mission (Afful-Broni, 2004). This is where the focus of power is more with the group as a whole and there interaction within the group (Mullins, 2010). In the process of interaction with

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subordinates, the democratic leader suggests actions or decisions and obtains views of those under him (Kondalkar, 2007). Lester (1975) also describes this style as a shared leadership that promotes a feeling of satisfaction and achievement as the group makes progress on tasks. Unlike the autocratic style, policies and decisions are achieved through consensus and discussion. The democratic leader places high emphasis on both performance and the people. It assumes that most people are honest, trustworthy, and will work hard to accomplish meaningful goals and challenging work (Warrick, 1981). Subordinate participation in the decision making process is the hallmark of this leadership style. Power and authority under this leadership style is decentralized (Ng'ethe et al., 2012b). On the positive side, this leadership style results in high employee productivity, satisfaction, cooperation and commitment (Warrick, 1981). However, the fact that almost everyone is consistently consulted before decisions are made means that decisions cannot be made quickly (McPheat, 2010). In addition, some workers may also consider the leader as incompetent or weak because of the consultations on very important issues (Afful-Broni).

2.3.3 Laissez Faire Leadership Style

It is also known as the liberal style of leadership. Based on the meaning of the French root of the word, this leadership style implies no or little interfere with the work of the subordinates. The leader grants complete freedom or autonomy to the staff and members of the organization (Afful-Broni, 2004). The manager consciously makes a decision to pass the focus of power to members, to allow them freedom of action to do as they think best, and not to interfere; but is readily available if help is needed (Mullins,

2010). For Kondalkar (2007), a leader who practices laissez-faire leadership is also called a "free rein" leader who uses his power very little giving subordinates' full freedom of action and independence for setting their goals and means of achieving them. For Lester (1975), leaders' using this style remains in the background and seldom expresses an opinion or work with organization members. Because low emphasis is placed on people and performance, the only way this leadership style may not lead to low productivity is when the subordinate are experts in their fields of work. It supposes that people are unpredictable and uncontrollable and that a leader's job is to do enough to get by, keeps a low profile, stay out of trouble, and leave people alone as much as possible (Warrick, 1981). One major advantage of this leadership style is that when the subordinates are seasoned experts in their individual fields as in the case of a well-established university, this style is more appropriate (Afful-Broni, 2004). The possible negative outcome of this style of leadership is that employees become apathetic, disinterested, and resentful of the organization and their leader (Warrick, 1981). Another probable negative consequence of this leadership style is that, if it is allowed over a long period of time it may lead to pandemonium, especially in situations where the subordinates may not be experienced (Afful-Broni, 2004).

2.4 The contingency Theories of Leadership

According to Yukl (2010), theories that explain leadership effectiveness in terms of situational moderator variables are called contingency theories of leadership. Fiedher (1978) cited in Canada and Devi (2014), suggests that the contingency theories represented a shift in leadership studies from focusing on the leader to looking at the leader in

combination with the situation in which leader works. The contingent leadership approaches, began from the position that the effectiveness of any leadership style is circumstantially contingent, and hence a range of styles will need to be employed in order to be effective across a range of situations (White, 2014). Further supporting this claim, the contingency-situational theories were developed to indicate that the style to be used is contingent upon such factors as the situation, the people, the task; the organization and other environmental factors (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). Four contingency theories are reviewed under this section. They are the situational leadership theory, Fiedler Contingency Model, the leader-Participation model and the Path-Goal Leadership theory.

2.4.1 The Situational Leadership Theory

Hursey and Blenchard (977), mentioned in Yukl (2010), proposed a contingency theory that specifies the appropriate type of leadership behavior for different levels of subordinate maturity in relation to the work. The situational leadership model posits that the developmental levels of a leader's subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles or leadership behaviors are most appropriate (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). The theory also says that successful leadership depends on selecting the right leadership style dependent on the follower's readiness, or the extent to which they are willing and able to accomplish a specific task (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Thus a high-maturity subordinate has both the ability and confidence to do a task, while a low-maturity subordinate (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). Further corroborated by Yukl (2010), the situational theory suggests that the level of subordinate behavior for the

leader. Four leadership behaviors should be exhibited by the leader based on the readiness of the followers (Robbinson & Judge, 2013). They are discussed below;

- If followers are unable and unwilling to do a task, the leader needs to give clear and specific directions (Robbins & Judge, 2013). This is called directing (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003).

- Described as coaching by Centre for Leadership Studies, (2003), the leader encourages a two-way communication and helps build confidence and motivation on the part of the employee, although the leader still has responsibility and controls decision making.

- For Robbins and Judge (2013), if followers are bale and yet unwilling, then the leader needs to use a supportive and participative style. The Centre for Leadership Studies (2003) describes this as supporting.

- Also called delegating by the Centre for Leadership Studies (2003), this behavior is appropriate for leaders whose followers (with high readiness level) are ready to accomplish a particular task and are both competent and motivated to take full responsibility.

In order to determine the appropriate to use in a given situation, the leader must first determine the maturity level of the followers with reference to the specific task to be accomplished through the followers Centre for Leadership Studies (2003). For Robinson and Judge (2013), the situational leadership theory acknowledges the importance of followers and builds on the logic that leaders can make up for their limited ability and motivation.

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2.4.2 The Fiedler Contingency Model

Considered to be the first contingency model developed, the Fiedler contingency model proposes that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style and the extent to which the situation gives the leader control (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Fiddler's contingency theory postulates that there is no single best way for managers to lead and that situation will create different leadership style requirements for a manager (Centre for Leadership Studies, 2003). According to Kondalkar (2007), Fiedler feels that matching the managerial style can achieve effective group performance. This contingency model was based on studies of a wide range of group situations and concentrated on the relationship between leadership and organizational performance (Mullins, 2010). Motivated by the conviction that a key factor in leadership success is the individuals' basic leadership style, Fiedler created the lasts preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire to identify that style by measuring whether a person is task or relationship oriented (Robbins & Judge, 2013). This was meant to measure the rating given by leaders about the person with whom they could work least well and the LPC score was the total of the numerical ratings on all the items for the least preferred coworker (Mullins, 2010). According to Fiedler's (1978) most recent interpretation cited in Yukl (2010), the LPC score indicates as leaders motivate hierarchy. A description of the person you are least able to work with in favorable terms (a high LPC score) implies that you relationship oriented (Robbins & Judge, 2013). It means that the leader is motivated to have close, interpersonal relationships with other people, including subordinates, and will act in a considerate, supportive manner if relationships need to be improved (Yukl, 2010). A description of your least-preferred co-worker in unfavorable terms (a low LPC score

means that you are primarily interested in productivity and are task oriented (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Yukl (2010), further explains that a low LPC leader is primarily motivated by achievement of task objectives and will emphasize task-oriented behavior whenever task problems arise.

Yukl (2010), further argues that the relationship between leader LPC score and effectiveness depends on a complex situational variable called situational favorability or situational control which is defined as the degree to which the situation gives a leader control over subordinates.

Three situations are identified and briefly discussed below

- A leader-member relation is explained as the extent to which subordinate are loyal, and relations with subordinate are friendly and cooperative (Yukl, 2010). This implies that if a manager is able to establish good relations with his workers based on personality, skill and knowledge he may be successful leader and does not have to depend on power and authority (Kondalkar, 2007).

- Task structure is the degree to which the job assignments are procedurized, that is, structured or unstructured (Rbbins & Judge, 2013). Kondalkar (2007), explains that high task structure is related to a task where all actions required to be taken are explained in sequential manner and employees understand and anticipate what is coming next.

- Position power has to do with the extent to which the leader has authority to evaluate subordinate performance and administer rewards and punishments (Yukl, 2010). For Kondalkar (2007), power derived by the leader from his formal position and other power bases are not considered and that a leader having a strong power

position can obtain fellowship more easily than a leader not having a formal power base.

Fiedler created eight possible levels of favorability based on the combinations of these three situations above and concluded from them those task-oriented leaders perform better in situation very favorable to them and very unfavorable while relationship oriented leaders, however, performed better in moderately favorable situations (Rbbins & Judge, 2013). Mullins (2010), also concludes that based on the eight combinations, Fiedler seems to suggest that leadership style will vary as the favorability of the leadership situation varies.

2.4.3 The Leader – participation

The next contingency theory to be reviewed contends that the way the leader makes decision is as important as what is decided (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Also called the normative decision model, and believed to have been developed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton in 1973 and later revised by Victor Vroom and Arthur Jago, this contingency theory is unique in its exclusive focus on providing prescriptions to optimize the leader's decision-making process (Seyranian, 2012). This model is based on two main aspects of a leader's decision namely, the decision quality which is the effect of the decision on group performance and the decisions acceptance which is the motivation and commitment of the group members in implementing the decision as well as a third aspect on the time required to make the decision (Mullins, 2010). For Seyranian (2012), this model emphasizes situational factors more than leadership behaviors and suggests five different decision-making styles that range on a continuum from directive to participate decision making.

These decision strategies or styles contain two types of autocratic styles where the leader decides alone, two types of consultative styles where the leader consults followers but decides alone, and a group decision-making option also called group consensus (Mullins, 2010; Seyranian, 2012). Yukl (2010) adds one more to the decision continuum by claiming that the leader or manager can give an individual or group the authority and responsibility to make decisions, though with some limitations, and call this delegation.

Vroom and Yetton suggest a decision making tree that take into consideration seven decision rules to help the manager discover the most appropriate leadership style in a given situation by protecting the quality of decisions and removing any impediments to the decision acceptance (Mullins, 2010; Seyranian, 2012). The objective of this strategy is to help in reaching optimum decisions by responding to the seven questions or rule (Seyranian, 2012). Although Vroom and Jago revised a new version of this novel with the incorporation if some contingency variables, Robbins and Judge (2013) believe that it is not very realistic to expect practicing managers to consider 12 contingency variables, eight problems types, and five leadership styles to select the decision for a problem.

2.4.4 The Path-Goal Leadership Theory

As stated by Yukl (2010), the path theory of leadership was developed to explain how the behavior or a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates. Believed to have developed by Robert House, the path-goal theory copies some elements from the Ohio State Leadership research on initiating structure and consideration and the expectancy theory of motivation (Robbins & Judge, 2013). The path-goal theory, in essence tries to explain the impact that leader behavior has on subordinate motivation,

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satisfaction and performance (Luthans, 2011). According to Mullins (2010), the model is based on the belief that the individual's motivation is dependent upon expectations that increased effort to achieve an improved level of performance will be successful and expectations that improved performance will be instrumental in obtaining positive rewards and avoiding negative outcomes. For Robbins and Judge (2013), the term *path-goal* theory of leadership suggests that the performance of subordinates is affected by the extent to which the leader satisfies their expectations. Four leadership behaviors or style are drawn from this theory and they include the Directive, Supportive, Participative and Achievement oriented leadership style. The Directive leadership which is similar to that of the Lippitt and White authoritarian leader gives no room for subordinate participation, because the leader gives specific directions which are followed (Luthans, 2011). The Supportive leadership style which is similar to consideration in the Ohio State University Leadership Studies is friendly, easy to approach and displays concern for the needs and welfare of subordinates and take their views and suggestions into consideration (Yukl, 2010). Finally, the Achievement-oriented leadership style involves setting challenging goals for subordinates, seeking improvement in their performance and showing confidence in their ability to perform well (Mullins, 2010). The path-goal theory suggests that these various styles or behaviors can be practiced by the same person at different times in varying situations (Mullins, 2010; Luthans, 2011). The personal characteristics of the subordinates and the nature of the task do have influence on the behavior of leaders (Mullins, 2010; Luthans, 2011). The personal characteristics of subordinate determine how they react to the manager's behavior and the extent to which they consider such behavior as an immediate or potential source of need satisfaction (Mullins, 2010). The natures of the task

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relate to the extent that it is routine and structured or non-routine and understructure (Mullins, 2010).

When the task is difficult and stressful, supportive leadership leads to increased subordinates effort and satisfaction increasing self-confidence, reducing fear and the unpleasant aspects of the work (Yukl, 2010). On the other hand, if a task is interesting and enjoyable, and subordinates are already confident, then they hardly need the supportive leadership (Yukl, 2010). So for Mullins (2010), effective leadership behavior is based, therefore, on both the willingness of the manger to help subordinates and the needs of subordinates for help.

2.5 Transformational Leadership Theory

The theory of transformational leadership which emerged in the 1980s, describe the emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership (Yukl, 2010). According to Yukl (2010), the theories of transformational leadership were strongly influenced by James McGregor Burn's work on political leadership in 1978. Many authors (Mullins, 2010. Yukl, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Robbins & Judge, 2013), discuss the transactional leadership theory under the broader transformational leadership theory. Based on Burn's work, a distinction is consciously made between transactional and transformational leadership (Mullins, 2010; Yukl, 2010).

2.4.6 Transactional Leadership Theory

According to Mullins (2010), transactional leadership is based on legitimate authority within the bureaucratic structure of the organization. It places emphasis on well-

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defined goals and objectives, work task and result, and organizational rewards and punishment (Mullins, 2010). Robbins & Judge (2013), support this assertion with the explanation that transactional leadership guides their followers toward established goals by clarifying role and work requirements. For Yukl (2010), the transactional leadership implies an exchange process that requires follower compliance to leader requests and lacking enthusiasm and commitment to work objectives. Mullins (2010), confirms this with a conviction that is based on a relationship of mutual dependence and an exchange process of getting or receiving what you work for. Hoyle (2012), also described transactional leadership behavior as a tit-for-tat game for rewarding employees as long as they keep producing what management needs.

According to Yukl (2010), transformational leadership appeals to the moral values of followers in an attempt to raise their consciousness about ethical issues and to mobilize their energy and resources to reform institutions. It is a process of creating higher level of motivation and commitment among followers with emphasis on generating a vision for the organization and the leader's ability to appeal to higher ideas and values of followers, and creating a feeling of justice, loyalty demonstrate the elixir of human understanding and if applied with integrity, it can transform organizations in magic ways. Bass (1994) cited in (Mullins, 2010), identifies four major characteristics of the transformation leadership. They are idealized influence, which regards the charisma of the leader, and the respect and admiration of the followers; inspirational motivation, which has to do with the behavior of the leader which provides meaning and challenge to the work of the followers; intellectual simulation, which is explained as leaders who solicit new and novel approaches for the performances of work and creative problem solutions from followers; and the

individualized consideration, where leaders listen and give special concern to the growth and developmental needs of the followers (Mullins, 2010).

2.6 The Concept of Employee Retention

Consentient with Mckeown (2002) cited in (Ng'et al., 2012b), the concept of employee retention emerged with regularity in 1970s and early 1980s because prior to this, most people entered into organizations and remained for a very long time, sometimes for the entire duration of their working life. However, as job flexibility and voluntary job changes increased, employers found themselves grappling with the problem of employee turnover and a corresponding management tool known as employee retention begun to evolve (Mckeown, 2012, cited in Ng'ethe et al., 2012b). Some of the known factors responsible for employee attrition include issues with work environment, growth and advancement opportunities, recognition, and loss of trust and confidence in senior leaders (Branham, 2005; Ng'ethe et al., 2012a). The concept of retention is a complex phenomenon because there is no single technique for keeping employees within organizations (Sinha, 2012). The retention of key empoyees has become a major challenge to managers of organization globally (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009); Singh & Dixit, 2011; Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012). This challenge, according to Kresiman (2002) cited in (Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2010) is determined by the concerns of employee loyalty, corporate restructuring efforts and tight competition for key talents.

Employee retention means taking measure to encourage employees to remain in the organization for the maximum period of time (Singh & Dixit, 2011; Rao, 2012). For Chainade (2007) cited in (Chibiwa, Samuel & Chipunza, 2010) retention is a voluntary

move by an organization to create an environment which engages employees for a long term. Cited in (Goldman, Goosen, & Mohlala, 2012), Browell (2003) defines employee retention as keeping those members of staff that one wants to keep and not losing them from the organization for whatever reason, especially to the competitors. Furthermore, Gberevbie (2008) cited in (Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012), also defines employee retention as the means, plans or set of decision making behavior put in place by organizations to retain their competent workforce for performance. The above definitions underscore the important role that organizations have to play in ensuring employee retention.

According to Kochachathu (2010), employee retention is an important element in determining the success of the organization and it is one of the primary indicators of an organization's health. Organizations rely on the expertise, knowledge, skills and the capacity development of their key employees in order to compete favorably and indeed gain competitive advantage in the global market (Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012). Singh and Dixit (2011), also argues that the retention of key employees is crucial to the long-term health and success of any organization. The imperativeness of employee retention is further supported with a reference to the nineteenth century industrialist, Andrew Carnegie, which states that the loss of import production assets like factories, plants, transportation and money, can easily be replaced within a short period by the retention of key employees (Gupta and Srivastava 2007, cited in Aguenza and Som, 2012). It is very obvious from these experts that role of key employees is a sine qua non for organizational success; therefore all efforts should be made to keep these talents within organizations. Employee turnover, has been classified into two categories; voluntary and involuntary

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(Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012). Nwokocha turnover is a situation where competent and capable employees particularly leave an organization to work elsewhere resulting in expenses associated with recruitment, hiring and training of a replacement (Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012). Nwokocha, and Iheriohanma (2012), also explain involuntary turnover as a situation where an employee is fired or laid off. The aim of employee retention is to prevent the former. According to Samuel & Chipunza (2009), the main purpose of retention is to prevent the loss of competent employees from the organization as this could have adverse effect on productivity and service delivery. Mckeown (2002) stated in (Goldman et al., 2012) argues further that employee retention strategies should be aimed only at top performing employees, and not those with a lower performance because these top performing employees and value to the overall organizational performance and inspires others.

According to Lochhead and Stephens (2004), the cost of replacing workers can be high, the problems associated with finding and training new employees can be considerable, and the specific workplace-acquired skills and knowledge people walk away with can take years to replace. Employee turnover is not only destructive to organizations, but it is also expensive because every time an employee leaves, a replacement must be recruited, selected, trained and allowed to gain experience on the job (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). Iheriohanma and Nwokocha (2012), also argues in support of this by claiming that employee departures can have significant effects on the execution of business plans and may eventually cause a parallel decline in productivity. Singh and Dixit (2011), also claims that many estimates suggest that losing a middle manager in most organizations may costs up to five times his salary. It can be summarized from the above review that the

indispensable roles of key employees to organizations make it essential for managers of these organization to devise strong retention strategic to keep key workers.

2.7 The Influence of Leadership Style on Staff Retention

The direction of the organization relies on the leadership style of the managers. That is why Beardwell (2007) cited in (Ng'ethe et al., 2012b) argues that the role of these leaders in s very crucial. Since leadership helps to chart the future direction of the organization, the behavior of leaders is the catalyst in directing the followers to achieve the common goals (Thrush, 2021). According to Ciulla (1998), leadership is not just a position, it is a moral relationship between people, held together by loyalty and trust, and rooted in leader's commitment to values and accountability when exercising power and authority. Therefore, the values espoused by a leader can hold or break the loyalty and trust of his or her followers. Taylor (2004), cited in (Ng'ethe et al., 2021b), also believes that the duty of maintaining key employees in organizations is al., (2012b), employees are more likely to remain with the organization if they believe that their managers shows interest and concern for them, if they know what is expected of them, if they are given a role that fits their capabilities and they receive regular positive feedback and recognition. According to Bushe (2012), the emergency of globalization has not been innocent in influencing staff relation, including academic staff, because it is solely responsible for opening the global economy and making its citizens mobile similar to the concept of employee retention, Bushe (2012), defines academic staff retention as the ability of an institution to not only recruit qualified academic staff but also retain competent staff through established quality of work-life, motivated staff climate, best place of work and

being an employer of choice contingents of upon committed formulation and execution of best practices in human resources and talent management. Once again, the role of institutional leadership in ensuring staff retention cannot be exaggerated. Bushe (2012), argues further that while the problem of academic staff retention may be global one, the severity appears to be more in Africa. Bushe (2012), further cites Tettey (2006), claiming that Africa is losing in significant numbers a fundamental resource in socio-economic and political development, which lies in its intellectual capital. A research conducted in South Africa on academic staff turnover and retention seems to offer some explanations to this problem. According Taylor, Murphy and Price (2006) cited in Theron, Barkhuizen and Du Plessis (2014), when a country has a depressed economy, it leads to lack of salary increases, resulting in employee attitudes such as dissatisfaction, indifference and the intention to leave. For Mouton (2010) and HESA (2011) also cited in (Theron et al., 2014) another significant problem is that universities in sub-Saharan Africa continue to operate under conditions that are under-resourced, which poses serious problems for the academics involved. Though these reasons are presented from a South African study, it may be applicable to the Ghanaian situation.

There are many works that support the claim by Armstrong (2009) that employees join companies and leave managers. According to a study by Challenger, Gray and Christmas (1999), cited in Samuel and Chipunza (2013), low pays is not as important as trust in the chief executive ability to take decisions, when managers are listing factors that determine employee loyalty and their intention to leave an organization. Bushe (2012), additionally argues that in contemporary times it has been established that leadership style is one of the main reasons people decide to stay or leave an organization but from the supervisor. For

Irshad (2012), the supervisor support that is produced by the style of leadership plays a pivotal role in employee retention. After conducting a study on academic staff recruitment and retention strategies at the University of Limpopo, Mokoditoa (2011), concluded that poor management leadership constituted 10% of the reasons why academic staff left the university.

Factors such as the lack of staff involvement in decision making and the general role of leadership in giving directions to organizations and creating enabling environment, support many other studies (Kotze 2005; Bushe, 2012; Ekong, Olusegun & Mukaila, 2013; Musah & Nkuah, 2013; Ng'ethe, 2013; Mohamed, Nor & Dahalan, 2014) which asseverate that leadership style is a fundamental determinant of employee retention. For Bushe (2012), the effectiveness of other predictor variables like motivational factor, job satisfaction factors, organizational commitment and employee engagement factors in working to retain competent staff in academia are even dependent on leadership. But it is not just any type of leadership, because many studies (Irshad, 2012; Ng; ethe et al., 2013; Musah & Nkuah, 2013) appears to support participative leadership or the involvement of staff in decision making and regular communications as being cardinal to staff retention.

The lack of literature on private universities in Ghana especially on the issues of academic staff retention and general, means that much of the reference are based on what has been done on this topic from the public organizations domain. This problem appears to be a common characteristic private university in Africa, because Bushe (2012) also confirms the dearth of studies and methodologies that study academic staff retention among private colleges and tertiary institutions in Botswana.

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2.8 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework shows the relationship that exists between the independent, moderating and dependent variables (Ng'ethe, 2013).
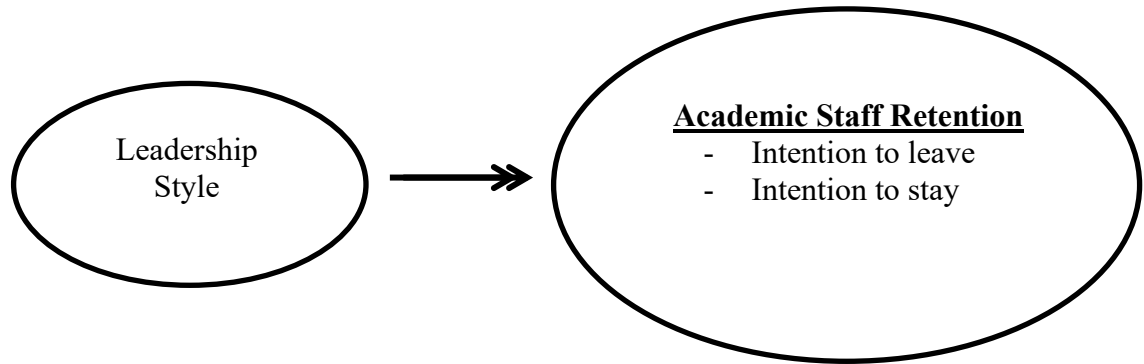
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework (Adopted and Modified from Ng'ethe, 2013).

As illustrated in figure 1, the independent variable is the leadership styles, while the academic staff retention is the dependent variable. The study however, did not focus on measuring the role of moderating variables such as age and gender on the dependent variable. It concentrated on measuring how the independent variable, the leadership styles influence the dependent variable, the academic staff's intention to leave or stay.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to explaining the methodology that was used in this study. It provides information on the research design, target population, and sampling techniques. It also deals with procedures for data collection, description and administration of instruments and equipment used in both data collection, and analysis. It also considers a pilot study, and reliability test and concludes with how the data was analyzed.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey to investigate the influence of leadership styles on academic staff retention in some private universities. According to Musah and Nkuah (2013), the descriptive survey method is used for the study because of its flexibility and ability to obtain in-depth information from respondents. This method is appropriate when the population involved is geographically spread (Ng'ethe, 2013). The use of this approach was justified by the conviction that a survey research strategy is an effective tool to get opinions, attitudes, and descriptions of a phenomenon (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013).

3.2 Study Area

The study areas comprised of Christian Service University College, Garden City University College and Spiritan University College in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. . These private universities are located in the Ashanti Regions of Ghana. They have all been

duly accredited by the National Accreditation Board and have been operating for close to a decade (National Accreditation Board, 2022).

3.2.1 Christian Service University College

The Christian Service University College is located at Odeneho Kwadaso along Kumasi –Obuasi highway near Opoku Ware School in Kumasi in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. It was established in 1974 with Vision statement as 'To be a Christian university, known for excellence in Teaching, Research and Training of Ethical Leaders for societal advancement and mission statement as**'** To promote knowledge for the training of men and women in Christian values principles, academic and professional excellence for the transformation of society**'.** The university has three (3.**)** Faculties which include Faculty of Humanities College, Faculty of Health and Applied Sciences and School of Business with four (4) departments. The departments are, Department of Business Administration, Department of Computer Science Studies, Department of Communication Studies and Department of Nursing with about 1700 students enrolment.

3.2.2. Spiritan University College

The Spiritan University College is a private higher education college founded in 1990 by the Catholic Church. It is located at Ejisu along Kumasi –Accra highway in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The vision of the College is to strive for academic excellence in research and teaching in Africa, through a comprehensive Catholic and particularly Spiritan formation. Spiritan University College is devoted to helping students seek practical wisdom and truth and to develop a harmonious relationship between faith and

reason. It aims to do this through a comprehensive, qualitative, liberal, professional, Catholic, and Spiritan education in a serene and conducive environment.

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3.3.3 Garden City University College

Garden City University College is located at Kenyasi, Kumasi about 2km off the Airport Roundabout-Antoa. The vision of the university is to empower students to acquire and demonstrate knowledge and skills in their various field of academic study to become the Next Generation of Innovators who will be agents of social change and development of society. The mission of the school is providing a center of excellence in teaching, learning and research with distinctive scholarship and competence , by blending business, information technology , education , social science and health sciences to develop innovators in the industrial and other socio-economic sectors in Ghana an the international communities. There University has three faculties, Garden City Business School, Faculty of Applied Sciences, Faculty of Education and Humanities, Faculty of Health Sciences and Centre for Open Distance and eLearning (CODeL). Garden City University College has eleven departments within the Faculties offering undergraduate programs in business, health, and applied sciences with a students enrolment of about two thousand five hundred (2500)

3.4 Population

A population is the entire group of individuals or items from which a sample may be selected for statistical study. The population for this study was made up of the academic staff members of Christian Service University College, Garden City University College, and Spiritan University College in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. 154 academic staff

members in these universities were targeted for this study. The academic staff population of Christian Service University College, Garden City University College, and Spiritan University College were 52, 54, and 48 respectively.

Table 3.1: Population and sample size for the study

Universities	Academic Staff Number	Sample Size(50%
Christian service university college	52	26
Garden City University College	54	27
Spiritan University College	48	24
Total	154	77

Source: School Files, 2022

3.5 Sample and Sampling Techniques

According to Osuala (2007), "Sampling is taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe." A sample is a set of individuals or participants selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey (Salant & Dillman, 2004). A non-probabilistic sampling technique, convenience sampling, was used to select a sample of 77 lecturers from all the three universities. Adopting the rule of thumb of Nwana (1992) cited in Agyeman –Dua (2007), if a population is hundred and above, then 40% and above could be used as a sample. This means 50% was multiplied by each university population target to get the sample size. The total academic staff population of Christian Service University College, Garden City University College and Spiritan University College were 52, 54 and 48 respectively. The sample size of 50% of the population was obtained mathematically as follows;

Christian Service University College $\frac{50}{100} \times 52 = 26$

Garden City University College $\frac{50}{100} \times 54 = 27$

Spiritan University College $\frac{50}{100} \times 48 = 24$

Therefore the total sample size selected for the study was $26 + 27 + 24 = 77$

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The primary data was based solely on self-administered questionnaires sent to academic staff. The researcher obtained assistance and approval from the administrators of these universities prior to the administration of the questionnaires. Letter of introduction was obtained from Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skill Training and Entrepreneurial Development. I ensured that participants' anonymity and confidentiality were considered.
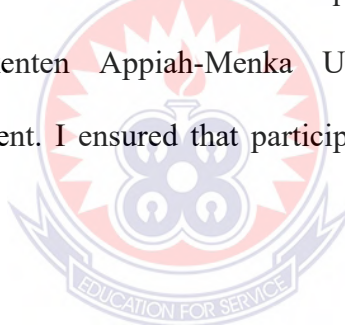
3.7 Research Instrument

This study used questionnaire with closed and open-ended items. The questionnaire had twenty-nine (29) items with twenty-eight (28) being closed-ended items and the remaining being an opened-ended item. The questionnaire was sub-divided into three parts. Part I concentrated on the socio-demographic characteristics of participants designed for obtaining information on the background characteristics of the respondents that are relevant to the study. It included items on gender, age, academic qualifications, religious affiliation, current rank, and employment status in the university. Part II also focused on information on the leadership styles practice in the institution. Finally, Part III, obtained

information on the role of leadership style on academic staff retention in the universities. Part II and III of the questionnaires used a five-point Likert scale (SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, D = Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree) scale. Part IV focused on areas of leadership styles the university management should S improve on in order to enhance academic staff retention.

The instrument was administered to the targeted respondents through the academic registrars of these universities.

3.8 Pilot Study Testing

A similar survey experimented with ten questionnaires in the home university of the researcher for the purpose of clarity and relevance to the study. It was also conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of the study. Few areas of the questionnaire were modified to suit the final work.
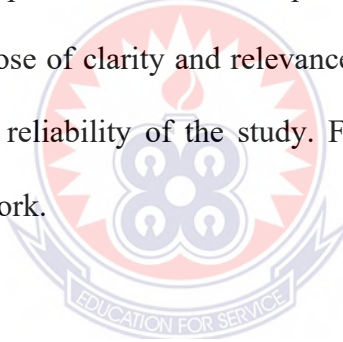
3.9 Reliability Test

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to estimate the reliability of the instrument. It was found out that the instrument had reliability coefficient of 0.70. According to Ng'ethe (2013), a reliability coefficient of 0.70 is adequate. Data from Research Question 1 was analyzed using descriptive statistic tools like percentage, frequency, mean and standard deviation. Data from Research Question 2 was analyzed using descriptive statistical tool such as mean, percentage, frequency and standard deviation.

Content analysis was performed on Data from Research question 3 and the results were presented as frequencies and percentage table.

Table 3.2: Reliability Summary of the Data

Variables	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
1.Leadership practices	12	0.74
2 Intention to leave or stay	4	O.71

Source: Fieldwork, 2022

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to presenting and discussing the outcomes of the study in light of the objectives that were established for the study. A total 77 questionnaires that were sent out. According to Nwana's rule of thumb, 50% is considered appropriate for the investigation because it reflects more than 40 percent of the respondents. The outcomes of the study are presented with the help of statistics that are both descriptive and inferential in nature.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents which include gender, age, marital status, religion, educational background, professional standing, and employment status are presented in Table 3

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	50	64.9
	Female	27	35.1
Age distribution	18-35	31	40.1
	36-45	27	35.1
	46-55	13	16.1
	60 and above	6	7.8
Marital status	Married	55	70.1
	Single	17	22.1
	Divorced/widowed	5	6.4

Religious practice	Christian religion	67	87.1
	Islamic religion	10	12.9
Academic qualification	Doctorate Degree	15	19.4
	Master's Degree	60	77
	Bachelor's Degree	2	2.6
Ranks of respondents	Associate professor	5	7.8
	Senior lecturer	13	6.8
	Lecturer	50	64
	Assistant Lecturer	5	6.4
	Teaching Assistant	4	2.6
Employment status	Full time	57	74.1
	Part-time	**20**	**25.9**

Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

According to Table 4.1, of the 77 respondents, 64.8% are men and 26.2% are women. This outcome is in line with a study done in a few other private universities in Ghana by Danquah (2012), who discovered that 66.7 percent of the academic staff were men. Furthermore, it agrees with studies (Tettey 2006; Musah & Nkuah 2013) that revealed male dominance in comparable tertiary institutions. This is consistent with the typical male domination in the bulk of official labor sectors in Africa. It could negatively affect their motivation and retention if their requirements are not satisfied. In most committees and management meetings where concerns regarding worker welfare are raised, female employees are likely to be underrepresented (Musah & Nkuah, 2013).

Academic staff employees between the ages of 18 and 45 make up the majority, according to the respondent's age (82.5 percent). Most respondents (42.7%) were between the ages of 18 and 38. With 39.8% of the vote, the group of voters between the ages of 36

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and 45 finished in second position. Age groups 46 to 55 and 61 and older, respectively, accounted for 12.6 percent and 4.9 percent of the remaining respondents. The findings of this study appear to be at odds with those of (Tettey, 2009, cited in Ng'ethe, 2013), which assert that the bulk of the academic staff in African universities is over 50 years old. The staff at a few other private universities in Ghana are trustworthy, nevertheless. The responses have a chance to develop and further their professions because they are still young. Further, it suggests that customers might switch to services with better terms, demanding appropriate management strategies to ensure retention (Musah & Nkuah, 2013). The majority of respondents (63.1%) who were asked about their marital status reported being married, while just 32% reported being single. The ultimate outcome is similar with Zhou's findings from a related poll performed in the US in 2003, which showed that most respondents (54.8 percent) were married. Although it is not a reliable indicator of whether an employee wants to leave, it is believed that their marital status has a substantial impact on how they feel about their jobs (Ghazali, 2010). But according to Zhou (2003, single faculty members are more likely to leave than married faculty members). Despite this positive outlook, managers at these universities must nonetheless develop work schedules and compensation plans that include the demands of the families of this set of academic staff members.

The majority of respondents to the religious survey (77.7%) identified as Christians, while the remaining respondents (22.3%) identified as Muslims, according to the survey's findings. According to this result, which shows that Christians make up 71.2 percent of the population and Muslims make up 17.6 percent, the religious composition of Ghana's population is accurately represented (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). The Christian

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dominance may also be attributed to the fact that Christian Service and Spiritan University Colleges, two of the three private institutions examined in the study, appear to have a strong Christian focus and foundation. According to the study's findings, every respondent is a follower of one or more religions, regardless of their personal preference. Managers at these universities are under pressure to develop plans for fostering a tranquil and tolerant work atmosphere in order to achieve organizational success.

In terms of academic credentials, 15.5 percent of respondents had doctorates. The majority of participants (66 percent) held master's degrees, while a sizable portion (18.4%) held bachelor's degrees. The findings of the respondents' academic backgrounds differ from those of Ng'ethe (2013), who found that a remarkable 52.5 percent of academic staff in Kenyan public universities had doctorates, even though they are consistent with Tettey (2006)'s findings that the majority of academic staff in African universities lack doctoral degrees. The few doctoral degrees may assist to explain why most private colleges in Ghana are not fully operational and rely on public universities and industry for tuition, as the national Accreditation Board stipulates that a doctorate degree is a minimum prerequisite for teaching in a university (Osman, 2015).

Teaching assistants made up 7.8% of the respondents, who were listed in order of academic standing from lowest to highest. The majority of respondents (66%) were lecturers, with assistant lecturers making up 11.7% of the total. The remaining percentages are 6.8% for senior lecturers and 7.8% for associate professors, respectively. The results for the respondents' ranks in the assistant lecturers, lecturers, and senior lecturers' categories were 14 percent, 76.4 percent, and 7.5 percent, respectively, for the same class of academics, according to Danquah's (2012) research on some other private universities in

Ghana. Additionally, this result appears to be in line with Ng'ethe's (2013) study, which categorized the majority of the academic staff as lecturers. According to these comparative evaluations, most professors working for African universities are instructors.

A part-time job with a university accounted for 51.5 percent of respondents' responses to the question about their employment status. The remainder of the respondents (48.5%) were full-time university employees. According to this result, these private universities' instructors are largely independent contractors. This is consistent with Effah's (2006) claims that part-time professors from public organizations and companies in Ghana support private colleges. Additionally, it most likely shows that the essential human resources are either lacking or that private colleges do not appeal to full-time academic staff in a way that would attract them.

4.3 Descriptive Analysis of the Leadership Practices

Research Question 1

What leadership styles are practiced by the managers of private universities?

The results of the participants' responses to the thirteen questions about the leadership techniques used by managers at the universities under investigation are presented in this section. The leadership practices items are listed in Table 4 along with the averages, frequencies, and percentages (in brackets). The results were based on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 representing strongly agree and 5 representing strongly disagree.

Table 4.2. Descriptive Analysis of Leadership Practices

Leadership Practices	SA	A	N	D	SD	Mean
1. Organizational leadership in this university makes a positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organization.	8(7.8)	36(35.0)	38(36.9)	21(20.4)		27
2. My manager treats everyone fairly	1(1.0)	32(31.1)	27(26.2)	39(37.9)	4(3.9	3.13
3. Leaders/supervisors assist individual lecturers in their personal problems.	3(2.9)	36(35.0)	25(24.3)	25(24.3)	3(2.9)	2.89
4. Leadership/supervisors present my needs, ideas, and suggestion his or her manager		35(34.0)	30(29.1)	37(35.9)	1(1.0)	3.04
5. The leaders often involve staff in decision-making, problem-solving, and policy making		21(20.4)	28(27.2)	49(47.6)	5(4.9)	3.37
6. Leaders/supervisors rarely assist individuals in their personal problems.		23(22.3)	44(42.7)	34(33.0)	2(1.9)	3.15
7. I have the opportunity to interact with the management above my immediate supervisor.		32(31.1)	38(36.9)	29(28.2)	4(3.9)	3.05
8. I am satisfied with the competence of the supervisors and leadership in this university		16(15.5)	71(68.9)	14(13.6)	2(1.9)	3.02
9. The leadership of the		30(29.1)	44(42.7)	27(26.2)	4(3.9)	3.01

university listens to and addresses staff issues promptly.					
10. The leaders communicate to staff regularly on matters important to them.		16(15.5)	37(35.9)	43(41.7)	2(1.9)	3.45
11. The leadership of this university creates the enabling environment for effective teaching and research.		46(44.7)	33(32.0)	22(21.4)	16(15.5)	3.61
12. The leadership of this university has policies and programs for the training and development of academic staff.	7(6.8)	22(21.4)	25(24.3)	47(45.6)	2(1.9)	3.15
13. I am satisfied with the compensation package provided by the leadership of this university.	7(6.8)	20(19.4)	8(7.8)	52(50.5)	16(15.5)	3.54

Source: Fieldwork, (2022).

From Table 4.2, the role of leadership in promoting the overall effectiveness of private universities recorded a mean of 2.7. This figure is closer to 3 and therefore implies a neither agree nor disagree response from the participants of the study. This is confirmed by most of the mean figures recorded. For instance, leadership practices items on fair treatment, leadership assistance to personal problems, presentation of needs, ideas and suggestions to management, participation in decision making, and the opportunity to interact with senior management recorded mean scores of 3.13, 2.89, 3.04, 3.37 and 3.05 respectively. Even though there are differences in the mean figures, they all hover around

3, which implies a neutral response from the participants. In addition to the above, other leadership practices items like the competence of leadership (3.02), prompt response to staff issues (3.01), regular communication with staff (3.4,5), and leadership policies on training and development (3.15) also hang around the neither agree nor disagree figure of 3 on the Likert scale. It is very difficult to engage in any meaningful discussions and relate it to literature in a situation where respondents assume the neutral position in a survey. Some common interpretations have been ascribed to this pattern of response in a survey by some experts.

In the first place, the president's choice of neither agree nor disagree is interpreted by some scholars to mean that respondents are undecided or do not have opinion (Raaijmakers, et al., 2000), cited in Tsang, 2012). Respondents often choose the midpoint as a more legitimate alternative in an attempt to hide either their ignorance or the fact that they do not hold an opinion (Shaw & Wright, 1967; Blasius & Thiessen, 2000; Sturgis & Roberts, 2011, cited in Baka, Figgou & Triga, 2012).

Another interpretation of this pattern of response is that participants in a study select neither agree nor disagree to avoid reporting what they see as less socially acceptable (Garland 1991, cited in Tsang, 2012). This is supported by Sturgis and Roberts (2011), who claim that respondents choose the midpoint, possibly due to a certain degree of social pressure exercised on them (Sturgis and Roberts, 2011). By selecting the middle point response, respondents felt that they are devoid of the need to express their clear-cut opinion, and it is an option that is evaluated as satisfying (Sturgis & Roberts, 2011). The ultimate meaning ascribed to the selection of the middle category, according to Sturgis and Roberts (2011), is understood as the result of a social desirability bias.

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Finally, one other common interpretation that is attributed to the selection of the midpoint in a Likert scale is linked to indifference or a limited degree of interest in the topic of the statement or figure (Cronbach, 1946; Goldberg, 1971; Kaplan, 1972; Dubois & Burns 1975; Krosnick, 1991, cited in Baka et al., 2012). The researcher agrees with this assertion that either the respondents were not interested in that aspect of the study or it is a probable reflection of the cagey and reluctant posture of private universities concerning research, thus confirming the claim of lack a of research culture in private universities in Ghana by Effah (2006).

The only exceptions to this trend are recorded in the leaderships practice items on creating the enabling environment for teaching and research (3.61) and the satisfaction with the compensation package provided by leadership of the universities (3.54). These two exceptional mean figures which are close to 4, suggest that the respondents disagreed with the managers of their universities on these two leadership practice items. It also possibly means that these two items are very crucial to the respondents. This result of the respondents on management's inability to create the environment for research is corroborated by Bushe (2012), who claims that one of the factors that trigger the intention of academic staff to leave their jobs in private universities in Botswana is the lack of opportunities to do research and control of their research works.

The dissatisfaction with the compensation provided by the management of the universities is also considered as very critical in influencing job satisfaction and the academic staff intention to stay in Botswana private universities (Bushe, 2012). Other studies (Zhous, 2003; Musah & Nkuah, 2013) also affirm the influence of remuneration or compensation as cardinal in predicting academic staff retention.

4.4 Perception of Influence of Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention

This section presents the findings and discussion on the perception of the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention.

Figure 4.1 Influence of Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention
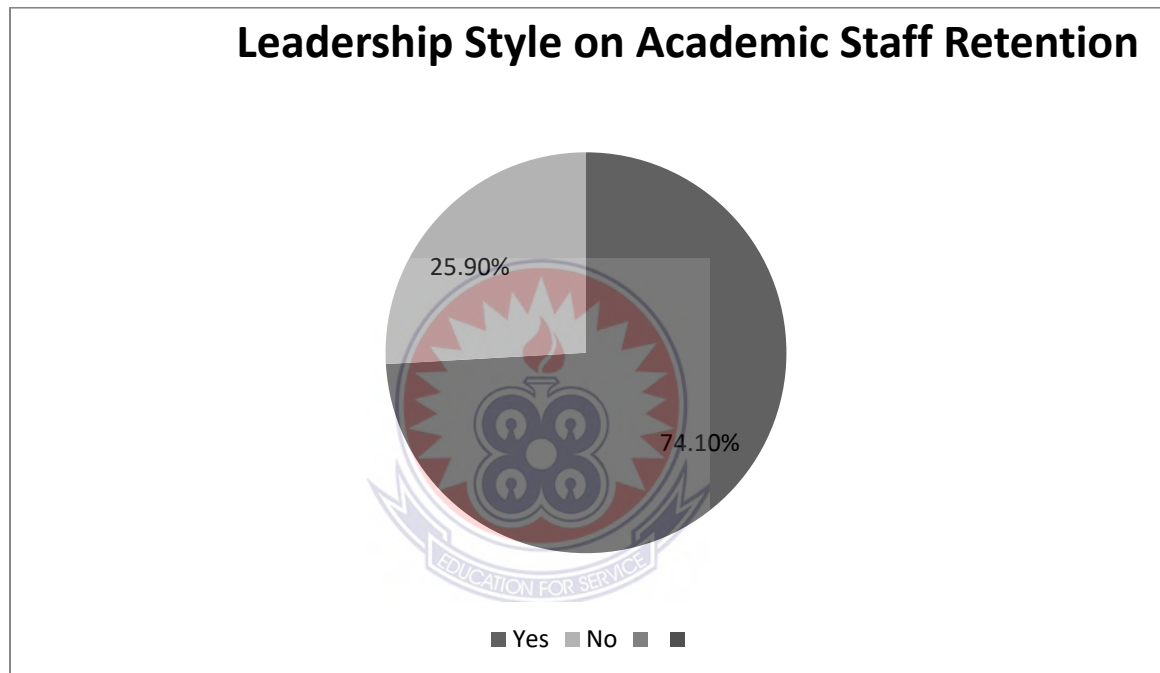
Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

It can be inferred from Figure 5 that the majority (74.1%) of the respondents indicated that indeed leadership style do influence the retention of academic staff. The remaining (25.9%) responded negatively to these items. The result is congruous with the perception that leadership style influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities by 63.62% (Ng'ethe, 2013). It is also consistent with the view that leadership is a cardinal determinant of academic staff retention in Botswana private universities (Bushe, 2012).

4.5 Management Leadership Style

This part presents the result and discussion on the management leadership style that is commonly practiced by managers of the universities as well as the most preferred leadership style by the respondent.

Table 4.3. Management Leadership Style

Leadership Style	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Commonly Practiced	Authoritative	21	27.27
	Democratic	13	16.8
Mostly Preferred	Democratic	23	25.9
	Laissez faire	20	29.8

Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

The result from Table 4.3 of the study points to authoritative leadership (27.7%) as the dominant style of leadership practiced by managers of the universities. This is followed by democratic (16.8%) and Laissez-faire (29.8%)/. This result is in line with the work of Ng'ethe (2013) on Kenyan public universities which also points to a dominant authoritative (53.57%), followed by democratic (38.35%) and Laissez-faire (8.08%) leadership style Laissez-faire, responses to the most preferred leadership style showed that majority (21%) of the respondents preferred the democratic or participative leadership style, while the remaining (29.8%) chose the Laissez-faire or free reign leadership style. None of the respondents preferred the authoritative leadership style indicating that it is not desirable in modern managerial practice. This outcome is in agreement with several

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studies (Irshad, 2012); Ng'ethe et al., 2012b; Ekong et al., 2013; Musah & Nkuah, 2013) which state that participative leadership is the most preferred leadership style in organizations. The dominant choice of the democratic style of leadership implies that the respondents desire to partake in the major decisions in their respective universities.

4.6 Leadership Style Influence on Intention to Leave or Retain

What ways do leadership styles influence the retention of academic staff in private universities in Ashanti Region?

This segment of the report presents the outcome and discussion on the influence of leadership style on the intention to leave or stay. This analysis is indispensable to enhancing our understanding of the extent of leadership style influence on academic staff retention. Four items were used to establish the respondent's intention to leave to stay due to management leadership of the universities. The mean figures, frequencies and percentages (in brackets) of the responses are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Leadership Style Influence on Intention to Leave or Stay

Intention to Leave or Stay	SA	A	N	D	SD	Mean
1. I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible		27(26.2)	35(34)	39(37.9)	2(1.9)	3.16
2. I am actively searching for an alternative to this university	5(4.9)	19(18.4)	49(47.6)	27(26.2)	3(2.9)	3.04

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3. As soon as possible, I will leave this university	5(4.9)	15(14.6)	53(51.5)	22(21.4)	8(7.8)	3.13
4. I am in this university for lack of an alternative employer	12(11.7)	31(30.1)	18(17.5)	39(37-9)	3(2.9)	2.90

Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

With a mean figure of 3.16 from Table 4.4, the respondent indicated that they neither agreed nor disagreed with planning to work in the universities for as long as possible. Like the output of the leadership practices (Table 4), similar neutral mean figures were recorded for actively searching for alternative universities (3.04), leaving the university as soon as possible (3.13), and remaining in the university for lack of alternative employer (2.90). The summary of this output is that the respondents showed a neutral position, implying that they neither had the intention to leave nor stay because of leadership.

Despite the expression of disagreement to the leadership practices items on effective teaching and research, and remuneration (Table 4), which are considered by Bushe (2012) as major determinants of academic staff retention in Botswana private universities, the respondents did not indicate any intention of leaving their jobs. This probably implies that the socio-economic situation in Botswana is different from Ghana. The outcome also contradicts the participants' response to the questionnaire items on the perception on leadership style (Table 4.4), which indicated a strong (68%) influence of leadership on retention. This means that having the mere perception or indication of leadership's style's influence on academic staff retention, does not influence an intention

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to leave or stay. This output contradicts Zhou's (2003) reports that faculty working in private institutions in the US generally do have stronger intentions to leave than their counterparts in public institutions.

Another possible meaning to this output is that some other leadership practices like improving compensation and creating of a conducive environment for teaching and research with mean scores of 3.54 and 3.61 (Table 4) respectively, may have stronger influence on academic staff retention on these universities than other considerations. It is also possible that the current unemployment rate among graduates and lack of job opportunities in Ghana is a major influence on the participants' response. Figures from the Ghana Unemployed Graduates Association show that the registered number of unemployed has doubled from 12,000 in 2012, to 24,647 in 2022 (The Finder, 2022). This probably explains the indecision on intention to leave or stay.

Coupled with the lack of employment opportunities is also the fact that most of the respondents (84.4%) with master's and bachelor's degree (Table 3), lack the minimum requirement of doctorate degrees to teach in public universities and therefore have limited choice as far as job in the academia is concerned.

One other possible for the neutral position is that even though there's the perception that leadership that leadership style has influence on retention, it appears that it cannot alone determine an intention to leave or stay because many studies (Bushe, 2012; Irshad 2012; Ng'ethe et al., 2012a, Ng'ethe 2013) indicate multiple determinants of academic staff retention. Like the response to the leadership practices in Table 3, this pattern of response probably confirms what the researcher believes to be the unwilling and reticent attitudes of private universities towards research.

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Table 4.5 Rates of Academic Staff Retention Occasioned by Leadership Style

Rate of Retention %	Frequency	Percentage
1-25	15	19.5
26-50	23	29.8
51-75	32	41.6
76-100	7	9.1
Total	77	100

Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

Figure 4.2 Academic Staff Retention occasioned by Leadership Style
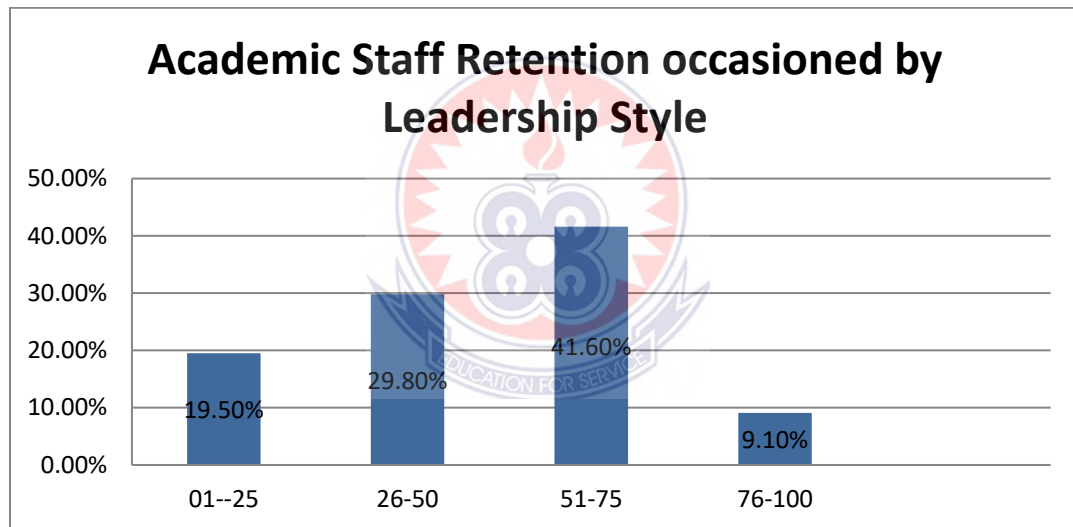
Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

From Figure 4.2, most (41.6%) of the respondents suggested a rate of 51-75%. About 29.8% indicated 26-50%, 19.5% also chose 1-25% and the remaining 9.1% indicated 76-100%. A combination of the two topmost rates (51-75) produced a percentage of 41.6%. This figure implicitly affirms the respondents' perception that indeed leadership style has an influence on academic staff retention (Figure 4.1). It is however in contrast to

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the findings of Ng'ethe (2013), which indicated a majority (41.4%) of the respondents' estimation of 1-25%, in a similar study among Kenyan public universities.

Inferential Analysis

Inferential Analysis is done to help in making statistical conclusions from studies. This section focuses on correlation and regression analysis of leadership style and academic staff retention. Correlation is used to test the degree to which the scores on the two variables co-relate while linear regression analysis is conducted to establish the predictability of one variable by another variable (Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray & Cozens, 2005).

4.8.1 Correlation Analysis of leadership style and academic staff retention

This section presents the correlation analysis of the two variables under study; leadership style and academic staff retention. Table 10 shows the results of the correlation analysis conducted for the two variables.

Table 4.6: Output of correlation Analysis

		Leadership style	Academic staff retention
	Pearson Correlation	1	.192*
Leadership Style	Sig. (1-tailed)		0.28
	N	100	100
	Pearson Correlation	.192*	1
Academic Staff	Sig. (1-tailed)	.028	
Retention	N	100	77

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Findings from Table 4.6, indicated that there is a weak positive correlation between leadership style and academic staff retention, (i.e. 0.192, p<0.05). A weak correlation means that the relationship is not good enough for any meaningful inference (Hinton et al., 2005). A unit increase in leadership leads to a 0.192 increase in academic staff retention. This implies that there is no strong connection or association between the two variables. This result contradicts a similar study which indicates that leadership style has a stronger relationship with the intention to leave in Kenyan public universities (Ng'ethe, 2013).

4.9.2 Simple Regression Analysis for leadership style and Academic Staff retention

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict academic staff retention based on leadership style. Reporting the regression results usually considers at least the unstandardized, which is more interpretable given the data, along with the F value and the corresponding significance level, as well as the percentage of variance (Khan, 2010). The adjusted R Square is reported because it takes care of the bias in the R Square (Hinton et al., 2005). Table 4.7 represents the estimate of the regression parameters.

Table 4.7: Estimate of Regression Parameters

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig	df
Constant	2.240				.000	1
Leadership style	.140	.037	.027	3.762	.055	98

Dependent variable: Intention to leave. P < 0.05

An analysis of the variance from Table 4.7 indicates that the regression model is not statistically significant, since (F (1, 98) = 3.762, P < 0.05). Therefore, there is no significant relationship between leadership style and academic staff retention. Leadership styles could not significantly predict intention to leave scores, with b = 0.141, P > 0.05. The coefficient of the determination of the model (Adjusted R Square) of 0.027 means that the independent variable of leadership style accounts for almost only 3% of the variance of academic staff retention.

The fitted model is as follows:

Academic Staff Retention = 2.240 + 0.140 leadership Style

This model means that a unit change in leadership style will increase academic staff retention by 0.140.

It can be inferred from the summary of the outcome of the regression analysis that leadership style could not predict the intention to leave these private universities. Therefore, based on this study, it can be concluded that leadership styles have no influence on academic staff retention. This outcome is at variance with many research findings (Mododitoa 2011; Bushe 2012; Ng' ethe et al., 2012a, Ng'ethe et al., 2012b; Ng'ethe 2013) which indicate that leadership style is a major predictor of academic staff retention. It is also contradictory to many other studies (Branham 2005; Armstrong 2009; Irshad 2012; Ekong et al., 2013; Mohamed et al., 2014) which indicate that leadership style influences employee retention in organizations.

4.7 Recommendations for Leadership Improvement

Research Question 3

What recommendations could be made to improve the influence of leadership styles on the retention of the academic staff in private universities?

This part presents the various recommendations made by the respondents on the areas of leadership practice that require improvement to help retain the academic staff of the universities. Based on the various concerns expressed by the respondents, the output on this questionnaire item were coded into five responses (1=participating or involvement in decision making, 2=effective communication between management and staff, 3=remuneration, 4=work relationship, and 5=general working conditions).

Table 4.8. Recommendations for Leadership Improvement

Respondents Recommendation	Frequency	Percentage
Decision making	10	18.4 12.9%
Effective Communication	18	23.4%
Remuneration	20	31.2%
Work Relationships	4	7.8% 5.2
General Working Conditions	25	32.5%
Total	77	100

Source: Fieldwork, (2022)

The majority of respondents (32.5%) who responded to table 4.8 suggested that working conditions be improved. Working conditions refer to a work environment that encourages effective performance of job tasks by employees. This includes factors like physical working conditions, availability of office space, tools and equipment that facilitate job performance, hours of work, internal customer support service from the

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administration department, nature and tenure of the contract, safety in the workplace, and the necessary support from supervisors (Bushe, 2012). These are poorly managed, which causes academic staff retention issues and dissatisfaction (Tettey, 2006).

Concerns about compensation were also noted at 31.2 percent, correlating with the mean 3.54 response in table 4 to the questionnaire item on compensation. The works of (Zhou, 2003; Braham, 2005; Bushe, 2012; Musah & Nkuah, 2013) and others further support the idea that a bad compensation package is a significant predictor of employee satisfaction and retention. The magnitude of the overall salary is considered as an indicator of the value businesses place on their employees (Braham, 2005). Therefore, inadequate pay shows that employers place little value on their employees.

Effective communication between management and university workers was the second pressing problem for improvement in management leadership, receiving a score of 23.4% from the respondents. One of the supervisor's tools for reducing employee turnover and boosting engagement is open communication with the workforce (Greenhaus 1994 cited in Irshad 2012). Therefore, the absence of this behavior suggests that management does not support staff.

12.9 percent of respondents expressed concern about the necessity of including academic personnel in the decision-making process. The ability of the professional to choose work schedules, actively participate in major academic decision-making, to have their performance evaluated by professional peers, and to be relatively free of bureaucratic regulations and restrictions is known as staff autonomy (Daly et al., 2006), cited in Ng'ethe et al., 2012a. The respondents' strong preference for a democratic leadership style (Table

6) and implicit rejection of the authoritarian leadership style are both confirmed by their concern over the participation of staff in decision-making.

The need to strengthen working relationships was the respondents' last suggestion for enhancing managerial leadership, with a 5.2% response rate. Work relationships primarily concern coworker relationships and relationships between employees and supervisors (Metcalf, et al., 2005, cited in Bushe, 2012). According to Bushe (2012), a working connection has some logical influence on retention even though research on it has yielded inconsistent results. By creating rules of conduct for all university employees, working relationships can be enhanced. These suggestions made by the respondents are an implied recognition of weaknesses in managers' leadership styles that have the potential to affect academic staff retention.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter primarily focuses on summarizing the study's findings in light of its goals. Additionally, it offers conclusions and ideas for further research based on the findings and study objectives.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The human resource of any organization is its source of competitive advantage. Therefore, for any company to thrive, adopting tactics for retaining key employees is crucial. Because leadership has been demonstrated to be an important element in employee retention across many organizations, the researcher is interested in examining the effect of leadership style on academic staff retention.

This study sought to ascertain the impact of leadership style on academic staff retention at various private universities in Ghana. The study's specific goals were to identify the management methods used by these private colleges, measure the effect these practices had on the retention of academic staff at these institutions, and develop recommendations for leadership style enhancements.

A representative research design was used for the study. The study, which was totally quantitative, used descriptive, correlational, and regression analysis to ascertain the effect of leadership style on academic staff retention. With the cooperation of university administrators, questionnaires were used as the major data collection tool. The study's target population included all of the academic staff at the three private universities in

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Ghana's Ashanti region, and 154 respondents were requested. Because every academic staff member was a part of the population, simple random sampling was used. 77 respondents, or 40.3 percent of the anticipated population, fully engaged in the study, in accordance with Nwana's rule of thumb, which states that if a population is in the hundreds, the 40 percent and above may be used as a sample (Nwana 1992 cited in Agyemang-Dua, 2007). Data was analyzed using IBM SPSS version 20.

The second objective of the study was to evaluate the impact of leadership style on academic staff retention in these universities. Both the correlation and regression studies show that the two variables have minimal relationship and low predictability. There was a marginally favorable correlation between leadership style and academic staff retention of 0.192 (P 0.05). When P is set to 0.05, the regression findings show that just 3.7 percent of the variation is reliably insignificant.

The final aim of the study was to develop recommendations based on respondents' concerns regarding leadership styles that could improve academic staff retention in these institutions. The replies from the participants revealed a number of crucial leadership areas that require careful consideration if academic staff retention is to be improved. Among them were relationships, the working environment, pay, effective management and employee communication, and staff participation in decision-making.

5.3 Conclusions

According to the findings of this research, managers in private universities prefer democratic leadership styles over authoritative ones. The findings of this study show that leadership style had no impact on academic staff retention at the universities studied. A comprehensive research of private colleges in Ghana has found that leadership effectiveness may be improved by enhancing working conditions and remuneration, effective communication, participative decision-making, and work relationships, among other things.

5.4 Recommendations

In Ghana's private universities, there is a shortage of research on leadership style and academic staff retention, as the literature study revealed. We have come to the following conclusions based on our results and objectives.

- The major findings of the study indicated that, leadership styles had no influence on academic staff retention in these universities, the study also revealed that, authoritative leadership style was the dominant practice, though democratic leadership style was most preferred.

- The study further showed that improvement in working conditions, remunerations, effective participative decision making and work relationship are imperative for academic staff retention.

- The study recommended the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, in addition to multiple variables for future studies

5.5 Suggestions for Further Reading

In spite of the fact that the study made a significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge, it did have certain shortcomings. There is a possibility that being overly reliant on quantitative methods was a restriction.

1. It is for this reason that it is suggested that future research on the influence of leadership style on the retention of academic personnel include both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. In addition, the leadership style was the only factor that was examined in this study as a potential predictor of academic staff retention.

2. The researcher recommends that similar studies be carried out in different regions of Ghana for the purpose of conducting a comparative and thorough analysis on the topic of leadership style and academic staff retention among private universities in Ghana.
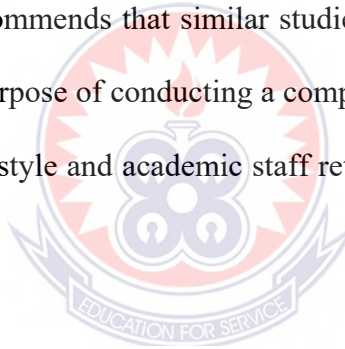
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ACADEMIC STAFF

This questionnaire is meant to collect data on the topic "The Influence of Academic Staff Retention in Some Selected Private Universities in Ghana".

The research is purely for academic purposes. Your responses and opinions on this topic would be helpful in drawing a successful conclusion. The following are statement and their responses. Please read and tick the appropriate responses in the column provided shall be treated with utmost confidentially.

PART 1: Socio Demographic Characteristics

1. Gender: Male [ ]   Female[ ]

2. Age in years

   a. 18-35 [ ]

   b. 36-45 [ ]

   c. 46-55 [ ]

   d. 56-60 [ ]

   e. 61< [ ]

3. Marital status: a) Married [ ]   b) Single [ ]   c) Divorced/widowed [ ]

4. Which of these religions do you practice?

a) Christian religion   [ ]   b. Islamic religion [   ]

c) Traditional religion [   ]   d. Others

(Specify)…………………………………..

5. Academic qualifications

a. Doctorate degree [ ]   b. Master's Degree [ ]

c. Bachelor's Degree [ ]   d. Others

(Specify)…………………………………….

6. Your current rank: a) Professor [ ]   b. Associate Professor [ ]   c. Senior Lecturer

[ ]   d. Lecturer [ ]   e. Assistant [ ]   f. Teaching Assistant [ ]   g. Research

Assistant [ ]

7. Employment Status a) Full time [ ]   b. Part Time [ ]

PART II: Leadership Style

Use the Likert type scale below; indicate how accurately the following statements describe the leadership style in your University. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree
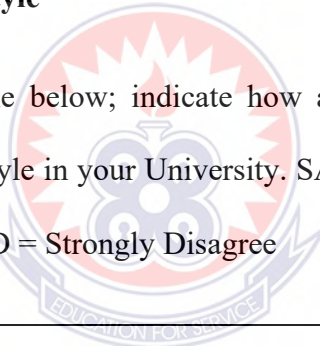
No	Leadership style	SA	A	N	D	SD
8	The organizational leadership style in this university makes a positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organization.					
9	My manager treats every one fairly.					
10	Leaders/supervisor assists individuals' lecturers in their personal problems.					
11	Leadership/ supervisors present my needs, ideas and suggestions to his/her manager.					

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12	The leaders often involve staff in decision making, problem solving and policy making in the university.					
13	Leaders/supervisor rarely assists individual lecturers in their personal problems.					
14	I have the opportunity to interact with the management above my immediate supervisor.					
15	I am satisfied with the competence of the supervisors and leadership in this university.					
16	The leaderships of this university listen to and address staff issues promptly.					
17	The leaders communicate to staff regularly on matters important to them.					
18	The leadership of this university creates the enable environment for effective teaching and research.					
19	The leadership of this university has policies and programmes for training and development of academic staff.					
20	I am satisfied with the compensation package provided by the leadership of this university.					

21. In your opinion does leadership style of the management in your university influence academic staff retention? (Tick one)   [   ] yes   [   ] No

22. Which of the following is the leadership style commonly practiced by the management in your university? (Tick one)   a) Authoritative/ Dictatorship [   ]

b) Democratic/Participative [   ]   c) Laissez faire/Free reign [   ]

23. Which among the following leadership style is mostly preferred? (Tick one)

a) Authoritative/ Dictatorship [   ]   b) Democratic/Participative [   ]

c) Laissez faire/Free reign [   ]

PART III: Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention

Using the scale given below, indicate how accurately the following statements describe your intention to leave or stay occasioned by leadership of this university.

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

No	Leadership style	SA	A	N	D	SD
24	I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible.					
25	I am actively searching for an alternative to this University					
26	As soon as is possible, I will leave this University					
27	I am in this University for lack of an alternative employer.					

APPENDIX B

RELIABILITY TEST TABLES

1. Reliability for Leadership Practices

Case processing summary

	N	%
Valid	100	97.1
Cases excluded[a]	3	2.9
Total	103	100.0

a) List wise decision based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standarized Items	
.740	.834	13

2. Reliability for Intention to leave

Case processing summary

	N	%
Valid	100	97.1
Cases excluded[a]	3	2.9
Total	103	100.0

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standarized Items	
.592	.558	4

APPENDIX C

INFERENTIAL ANALYSIS

Regression Analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.192^a	.037	.027	.63341

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Style

Anova^a

Model		Sum of square	Df	Mean of square	F	Sig.
	Regression	1.509	1	1.509	3.762	.055^b
1	Residual	39.3.18	98	.401		
	Total	40.827	99			

a) Dependent Variable: Retention

b) Predictors: (Constant), Leader. Style

Coeefcients ^{a}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	2.240	0.429		5.227	.000
1	Leader. Style	0.140	0.073	0.192	1.940	0.55

a) Dependent Variable: Retention

28. Using the scale provided what in your own estimation or opinions is the effect of leadership style on the rate of the academic staff retention. (Tick one)

a) 1 – 25% [ ]   b. 26 – 50% [ ]   c. 51 – 75% [ ]   d. 76 – 100% [   ]

29. What areas of leadership style should the university management improve on in order to enhance academic staff retention?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………