

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**ATTRITION AND RETENTION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH
TEACHERS IN THE K.E.E.A MUNICIPALITY**



EVA ANSAH

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UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

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TEACHERS IN THE KOMENDA EDINA EGUAFO ABREM
MUNICIPALITY**

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**A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION, FACULTY OF
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DECLARATION

STUDENTS' DECLARATION

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

SIGNATURE:

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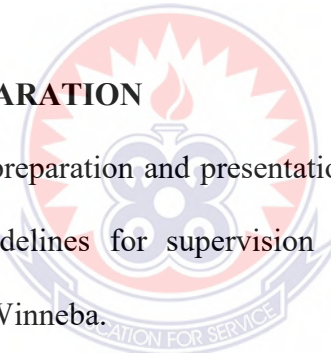
SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. DOMINIC KWAKU DANSO MENSAH

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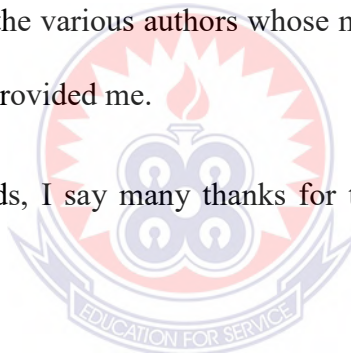
To God be the glory for giving me life, wisdom and directions through the power of Holy Spirit in the composition of this work.

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To my family and friends, I say many thanks for the words of encouragement and support.



DEDICATION

To God be the Glory.

I dedicate this work to my Sisters Adelaide Adriana, victoria, our husbands and Rev.

Isaac – Ofori Agyei and his family.

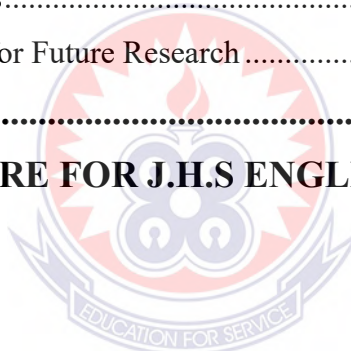


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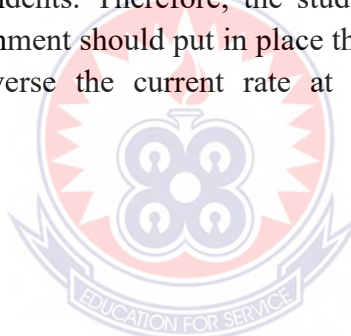
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ABSTRACT

Education delivery at the basic school level cannot be carried out effectively without the required quality and quantity of teachers. This implies that the government and educational administrators must ensure that at any point in time, measures have been instituted to retain teachers. In view of this realization, an investigation was conducted in why teachers leave the service and how they can be retained in the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipality. The research design for this study was the descriptive survey. A sample of 190 respondents made up English teachers and those who have left the service were selected for data collection but in the end 140 took part in the study. A self-administered questionnaire and interview guide were the instruments used for data collection. Data collected were edited and analyzed using the SPSS and descriptive statistical tools such as simple frequency and relative frequency tables and percentages. Results of the study indicated that lack of motivation and poor compensation and working conditions were the main causes of teacher attrition in Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipality. It was revealed that adequate retirement benefit for teachers will enable them to stay in the service. A good number of teachers also mentioned end of year bonuses to teachers and improved medical services for teachers and their dependents. Therefore, the study recommended that in order to retain teachers the government should put in place the necessary measures in the short to medium time to reverse the current rate at which teachers are leaving the classrooms.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Education is one of the most powerful weapons every government can render to its citizens due to its great impact on the nation. People receive knowledge and information through education which can change the world. One of the main purposes of education is to produce citizens who are self-reliant and useful to the society. In totality education is any act or experience that has a formative effect on the individual's character, mind or physical ability. The accumulation of knowledge, values from one generation to another through instructions is basically what education is. The role of formal education in the development process is well recognized anywhere in the world.

According to Oduro (2000), knowledge and technology are increasingly becoming the basis of competitive advantage in the world. Formal education is also the most effective means of skills acquisition and the development of the human capital stock. Moreover, education increases the ability to understand, appreciate and critique new ideas and it can facilitate the adoption and modification of technology to suit a country's peculiar developmental challenges. For every nation to develop there is the need for its citizens to be literate. This is to say that education is a must if a nation aspires to achieve growth and development and to maintain its sustainability. It can well further be explained that developed countries of the world have a very high literacy rate and productive human resource. This has contributed greatly owing to these nations' impartation and selection of training and education programmes for them to meet the new demands of technology of the 21st century.

In Ghana today, there has been a conscious effort to educate its citizens especially the young ones for the challenges of the 21st century. Currently the government of Ghana has taken steps towards educational delivery and is seen from what had taken place since Ghana's Independence in 1957. Educational delivery in totality should commensurate the numbers of teachers at all levels of education.

In order to ensure quality education, teachers need to have indepth knowledge of subject to be able to deliver its essence to students. The aim is to establish a sound knowledge base on which students will be able to build as they encounter different life experiences. Education is life itself. The function of education is to teach one to think intensively and to think critically. Intelligence plus character is the true goal of education. The transmission of knowledge from generation to generation helps individuals to become useful members of society. Resourceful teachers can translate information, experience and wisdom into relevant knowledge that a student can understand, retain and share with others. From other parts of the world including Ghana studies have shown that the quality of teachers is one of the most important factor affecting performance and that countries which score highly on international test have multiple policies in place to ensure that they employ teachers who are as effective as possible (Calxton, 2008).

However, attrition among teachers is a serious challenge in Ghana which adversely affects basically the quality aspect of the national educational goals. Many factors responsible for teachers leaving the profession are the same for all basic school teachers in Ghana. The late 1970s and early 1980s saw a sharp economic decline. The real value of government financing for education dropped to 1.4% in 1983, and resulted in near collapse of the education system. Teachers were not paid promptly, there was little supervision or inspection, schools were in disrepair, and

there were inadequate textbooks and instructional materials (Nti, 1997). The deteriorating economic climate and working conditions prompted an exodus of trained teachers to find better paid work in other countries.

Teachers leave in a predictable U-shape curve that is tied to their life cycle and career stages (Grissmer & Kirby, 1987). This means that the highest rate of attrition occurs early in the teacher's career (change jobs, attend graduate school and child birth) and at the end of one's career (retirement, illness and death). Teachers in deprived communities generally have very little opportunities for self-development and the development of their children. They are sometimes compelled to work for long hours and engage in multiple tasks. Support and supervisory services are lacking and facilities and resources for effective teaching are woefully inadequate. The equitable distribution of teachers in terms of numbers, qualification, experience and gender continues to be a mirage. Notable among these challenges is the concomitant teacher leverage required to ensure that Ghanaian children, most of who are in rural areas access quality basic education. In the context of the Education Strategic Plan 2003-2015 (ESP), the Millennium Development Goal of Universal Primary Education is guided by the principle of equity and optimum utilization of available scarce resources. Within this spectrum of challenges, teacher shortage, which is largely associated with low rate of teacher training and high level of teacher attrition, has been identified as one of the most intractable problems facing the education system in Ghana. It is against this background that this study seeks to investigate teacher attrition and retention in basic levels of education in Ghana particularly the K.E.E.A Municipality.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teacher attrition has always been a problem in the education system the world over including Ghana. This is because there have never been enough teachers to meet the demands of the ever increasing number of students and pupils especially in Ghana. Teachers are always leaving the profession for one reason or the other, especially in the public schools. Thus, recruiting and retaining teachers for the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) poses a challenge for educational planners.

Available records show that teacher attrition and retention in the various District, Municipal and Metropolitan Education Directorates poses a challenge to education. Some of these challenges still persist today due to several factors. At Independence, Ghana had a relatively good educational system. That system was criticized for not being responsive enough to the unique developmental agenda for the country at the time. In view of this there is the need for major reforms to be undertaken at all levels of education to meet the developmental aspirations of the country. The current educational system is therefore an outcome of several decades of transformation from a structure inherited from our colonial master's administration.

The last two decades alone have witnessed series of initiatives with the support of some development partners. The aim of these initiatives is to address deficiencies in the educational system and to improve overall quality of educational outcomes. The introduction of capitation grant, school feeding, Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) Free uniforms, exercise books and sandals have improved access to education for the school age population across the nation.

Apart from the focus on children, the reforms in the Ghana's educational system over the years have also sought to increase the number of teachers trained and retained in the classrooms. Among these measures was the payment of allowances to

teacher trainees to motivate more people to enroll in teacher training institutions. These allowances were withdrawn by the NDC government in 2016 but were restored by the NPP government in March 2017. These measures have, in the past, resulted in high turnout rate from the teacher training colleges.

Paradoxically, Ghana's education sector is facing many challenges. The challenges include poor and inadequate infrastructure, insufficient financing and shortage of teachers especially in the rural areas. Within this spectrum of challenges, teacher shortage, which is largely associated with low rate of teacher training and high level of teacher attrition, has been identified as one of the most intractable problems facing the education system in Ghana.

Even though successive government of Ghana have instituted interventions such as 15% retention premium, single spine salary structure best teacher awards and allowances for deprived area teachers to enhance teacher retention, the problem still persist. Intuitively, could the phenomenon of teacher attrition be as a result of inappropriate leadership styles, poor working conditions, and inadequate instructional resources? Answers to these questions and more are elusive to the researcher. It is against this backdrop that this study dwells on investigating the factors that account for attrition and retention of English teachers in public basic schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The main objective of this study is to find out why public basic school teachers leave the teaching service and also investigate how to retain them in the teaching service. In addition to the general objectives, some specific objectives were used as guide poles. These specific objectives of the study were;

- i. to find out why teachers leave the K.E.E.A Municipality.
- ii. to find out the strategies put in place by the K.E.E.A Municipal Directorate to retain teachers.
- iii. to find out the effect of attrition on KEEA Municipality.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study.

1. What reasons account for basic school English language teachers leaving the K.E.E.A Municipality?
2. What effect does attrition have on the KEEA Municipality?
3. What strategies are instituted by the K.E.E.A Municipal Education Directorate to retain English language teachers?

1.5 Significance of the Study

It is expected that the findings of this study will be useful in the formulation, implementing and review of policies aimed at reducing the attrition of English language teachers in the country to meet the goal of Education For All.

It is also expected that this study will contribute to the literature relating to teacher attrition and specifically provide knowledge regarding the unique populations of basic school teachers.

The study is also intended to help the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipal Education Directorate in human resource planning and management. This is because the study will help to explain what accounts for the numerous challenges encountered by the education authorities in attrition and retention of teachers.

1.6 Delimitations of the Study

The study was restricted to the KEEA Municipality out of the 2016 districts in Ghana. This has the potential of affecting the generalisation of the findings of the study. The study was also limited to the basic school teachers in the KEEA Municipality. All the teachers within the public basic schools were considered and they helped to determine the teacher attrition ratio and how they may be retained.

1.7 Limitations

It is obvious that research work cannot be totally free from limitations. Hence, some limitations were also encountered in this study. Some of the participants were unwilling to fill in and return the questionnaire as per the required time. Another limitation was lack of contemporary and relevant literature on the topic especially in the Ghanaian context. There is acute shortage of books or lack of update related literature in the area. In spite of these shortcomings, however, it was attempted to make the study as complete as possible.

1.8 Organisation of the Rest of the Study

The study is made up of five chapters. Chapter two discusses the related theoretical and empirical literature on the attrition and retention of teachers in basic schools. Chapter three deals with the research methodology including data gathering and analysis procedures while Chapter four focuses mainly on result and discussion of data. Last but not least Chapter five discusses the major findings of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggested areas for further research.

1.9 Definition of Key Terms

The following concepts require operational definitions;

Basic School: This refers to the first eleven years of formal education which constitutes two years of kindergarten, six years primary and three years of Junior High School.

Public: This refers to anything that belongs to the state of which all citizens have a stake.

ESP: Education Strategic Plan

Attrition: This refers to a situation where by some members of a profession leave due to some reasons

1.10 Summary

This chapter is the introduction of the study. It had the Background to the study which talked about Education as one of the most important assets every government can render to citizens since it has an immense impact on the society. The background had Oduro (2000) who shared his view on education.

Other important aspects that would be considered were the statement of the problem which dealt with Attrition and Retention of teachers in the basic schools that had posed challenges and continue to pose challenges to the authorities. The purpose of the study would be another aspect where the main objective is to identify why teachers leave and how they would be retained in the basic schools. In addition some specific objectives would be used as guide poles. Then Research Questions that would serve as guide to the researcher to the study. After the research question, significance of the study which would be intended to help the K.E.E.A Municipal Education Directorate human resource management would lastly be discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Overview

This study is concerned with the attrition and strategies for retention of Basic School teachers in the KEEA Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. This chapter deals with the review of literature relating to attrition and retention modalities in Ghana and particularly in Elmina and the surrounding villages and towns. The areas that were reviewed in this literature were:

- Ghanaian Education in the Colonial Era
- Education in the Post-Independence Era
- Current State of Education in Ghana
- Meaning of Teacher Attrition
- Theoretical Context of the Study
- Overview of Teacher Attrition in Ghana
- Teacher Retention Strategies
- Impact of Attrition

2.1 Ghanaian Education in the Colonial Era

At independence, Ghana had a relatively good educational system. The only weakness of that system was its huge colonial imprints. That system was criticized for not being responsive enough to the unique developmental challenges that faced the country at the time. This necessitated the need for major reforms so that education at all levels would meet the developmental aspirations of the country. Formal education in Ghana dates back to 1592. The current educational system is therefore an outcome

of several decades of transformation from a structure inherited from the missionaries and the British colonial administration.

During the colonial period, the focus of education was on spreading the gospel and creating an elite group to run the colony. As was the case in many other colonies, education in the Gold Coast began with colonial administrators and the merchants setting up schools in their forts and castles to educate the children (mulatto) they have had with native women. Christian missionaries were very instrumental in the introduction of formal education in Ghana. They needed well-educated local assistants to spread the gospel.

By 1874, before the British took full authority of the Gold Coast as crown colony, the missionaries had already established a number of mission schools particularly in the southern part of the country. For instance, by 1881, more than 139 schools had been established with an enrolment of about 5,000 students. Thirteen years later, the Basel missionaries established a Teacher Training College, 3 grammar schools, 7 boarding schools and 98 day schools.

During that period, there was a wide variation in the educational system in terms of curriculum and management of the schools. This prompted the authorities to draw up plans in 1882 to guide or standardize educational development in the country. As a result, the proposed targets for the development of education were set in 1918 by Sir Hugh Clifford. They included the following:

1. Primary education for every African boy and girl;
2. A Training College for teachers in every province;
3. Improved salaries for teachers; and
4. A Royal College to improve access to education

The authorities instituted a poll tax in 1852 to expand educational facilities. But the measure became unpopular and was abolished after nine years of its implementation. Several industrial schools were established, focusing on technical and agricultural education. At the Prince of Wales College scholarships were awarded to students to continue their studies in British universities. A separate department of education was created to take charge of education in the neglected northern territories.

In the early part of the 1930s emphasis was placed on the training of teachers by the government. This additional impetus to education development can be traced to Governor Guggisberg's ten-year Development Plan, announced in 1919, in which education was given a special place. His policies did not only stress the need for improved teacher training, vocational training, and equal education for girls but also Europeans were replaced with well-educated Africans in many administrative setups in the Gold Coast. Even though English remained the principal language of instruction in the school system, local languages (vernacular) were also allowed in primary schools. Textbooks were published in some local languages.

It is clear from the foregoing that the colonial administration laid a solid foundation for the development of formal education in Ghana. By the 1950s there were about 3000 primary and secondary schools in Ghana and about seven percent of the population of 4.2 million was in school.

2.2 Education in the Post-Independence Era

Post-independence education was given a further boost by the Nkrumah Government. Nkrumah saw education as the key to national development. Nkrumah introduced the policy of education for all. Basic education was made free and compulsory by the Education Act, 1961 (Act 87) which made education compulsory and free. There were free textbooks for all students and local education authorities

were created and charged with the responsibility for buildings, equipment and maintenance for primary schools (Asiedu-Akrofi, 1982). The objective was to bring about Free Universal Primary Education (FUPE).

The pre-university system of education at this period was structured as follows: 6 years of primary education; 4 years of middle level education; 5 years of secondary education and 2 years of sixth form education (i.e., the 6-4-5-2 system). This was followed by four years of university education for those who qualified to enter the university. Students, who could not qualify for sixth form, could proceed to do two years of pre-vocational or three years of post-secondary training college.

There was a dramatic increase in the number of elementary and secondary schools as well as in enrolment during the reign of Kwame Nkrumah. Between 1951 and 1961, the number of schools had increased from 571,580 to 875,980 (a 53 percent increase). Within the same period the number of secondary schools increased almost six-fold from 12 to 68, while the number of training colleges nearly doubled from 19 to 32. Primary and middle schools together increased fivefold from 1,592 to 7,660. The phenomenal growth in the number of schools led to an equally phenomenal increase in school enrolment. For instance, in 1961, the total enrolment for secondary schools and training colleges were 19,143 and 4,552 respectively. But the system of education was said to be too long and academic. These concerns led to some educational reforms in 1974 with the introduction of the Junior Secondary Schools (JSS). The JSS brought with it practical subjects allowing students to acquire occupational skills. The JSS system started on a trial basis and never survived the experimental phase due to a number of challenges. The challenges included the severe economic decline in the 1970s, bureaucracy and sheer lack of political interests in the system. Between the mid 1970s and the early 1980s the Ghana education system was

in a state of crisis and had began to slip slowly into decline prompting several commissions of inquiry. Apart from disruptions by military coups, the system was challenged with drastic reduction in government financing, lack of educational materials, deterioration of educational infrastructure, low enrolment levels and high dropout rates. According to the World Bank (2004: 7), between 1976 and 1983, Ghana's education sector budget as a share of GDP, declined from 6.4 to 1.4 percent. The poor conditions at home led to a large scale exodus of qualified teachers to Nigeria where new found oil wealth was funding a rapid expansion of basic education. Consequently, untrained teachers filled the places of those who left. According to Colclough with Lewin, (1993) there was a steady fall in gross enrolment ratios from 80 percent in 1980 to 70% in 1987.

In 1987, education was further reformed based largely on the recommendations of the Dzobo Commission and with assistance from various development partners such as the World Bank and UK Department for International Development (DfID) The 1987 reform which formed part of the economy recovery programme (ERP) described as one of the most ambitious programmes of educational reforms in sub-Saharan Africa. The 1987 reforms re-introduced the Junior Secondary School system and made it a nationwide educational system and replaced the 6-4-5-2 pre-tertiary school system with 6-3-3 (i.e., 6 years of primary education, 3 years of junior secondary and 3 years of senior secondary) thus shortening pre-tertiary education from 17 to 12 years.

In 1996, ten years after the implementation of the new system, government introduced an education sector policy known as "Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE)". The FCUBE programme was an effort to ensure that all school-age children received free quality basic education. The FCUBE created the

framework for donor support to education through a coordinated sector programme, and brought about educational decentralization with greater recognition of the important role of community participation in the management of schools through School Management Committees (SMCs) and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs). Thus, there have been three major educational reforms in the post-independence era - 1961, 1967 and 1987. There have also been several reviews of the education system. They include the reviews in 1966, 1974, 1993, 2002 and the most recent one in 2008.

2.3 Current State of Education in Ghana

Currently, Ghana has the 6-3-3 pre-tertiary system (i.e., 6 years of primary education, 3 years of Junior High School education, 3 years of Senior High School education) and 4 years of University (Bachelor's) education. Students who pass the SHS examination can also pursue courses at the polytechnics and teacher training colleges.

The search for an 'ideal' education system for Ghana has, however, remained elusive. The government of Ghana, under the leadership of the New Patriotic Party (NPP) proposed changes in the education system in August 2007. A new 6-3-4 pre-tertiary system was introduced in 2008 (i.e., 6 years of primary; 3 years of Junior High School and 3 years of Senior High School). Key among the reforms was the shift from 3 to 4 years of secondary education as well as the focus on technical and vocational education. But these changes were reversed by the NDC Government in 2009 even before they were implemented.

Broadly, the existing national educational system is made up of two components: Pre- tertiary and higher education. The pre-tertiary education is subdivided into: pre-school education (below 6 years); primary education (6-12years); junior secondary education (13 years and above); and senior

secondary/technical/vocational education. As the foregoing shows, the education system in Ghana has undergone many changes since independence. The last two decades alone have witnessed series of initiatives with the support of some development partners. These initiatives have all aimed at addressing inequities in the educational system and to improve overall quality of educational outcomes. While a number of policy reforms and interventions (e.g., capitation grant, school feeding and Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) have improved access to education for the school-age population across the country, instructional quality, student achievement, teacher motivation and retention remain critical challenges.

Over the last decade, there has been some improvement in physical infrastructure for schools. Enrolment at most levels has also increased significantly partly as a result of some of these policies and interventions. For instance, between 2003 and 2006 the Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) at the primary school level increased from 87 percent to 92 percent. Gross enrollment at the secondary level increased from 73 percent to 77 percent. Currently (in 2009), the gross enrolment at the primary level stands at about 95 percent. Net enrolment rate (NER) has also witnessed significant improvements in the past two decades.

Despite the increase in physical infrastructure (i.e., the number of educational institutions) and improved access to education, the critical issue has always been inadequate resources for the education sector. Schools at all levels of education continue to lack the very basic and essential inputs such as textbooks which are necessary for effective teaching and learning. School buildings and their contents – furniture and equipment – are often left in dilapidated conditions. Above all, the poor teacher motivation and shortage of teachers still exist at all the levels of education.

The proportion of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) devoted to education declined from 6.4 percent in 1976 to about 1.0 percent in 1983 before increasing to 1.7 percent in 1985 (World Bank, 1996). But the situation has improved significantly after the 1987 educational reform which was considered as the most fundamental reform ever undertaken in the educational system after independence. For instance, for the period between 2000 and 2005, public expenditure on education increased from 3.8 percent of GDP to 5.6 percent. In 2006, central government allocation to the education sector increased further to 7.2 percent of GDP but fell to 5.9 percent in 2008. Government's desire for improved educational outcome is also reflected in the increased resource allocations to the education sector compared to other sectors.

2.4 Meaning of Teacher Attrition

Employee attrition has been one of the most studied subjects in organizational behaviour literature. Schwab (1991) yet continues to elude any concrete conclusions. According to Grissmer and Kirby (1987) there is no single appropriate definition of teachers' attrition. They argued that, one cannot define teacher attrition until one defines the policy or research context in which a particular definition will be used. Again, to better understand the implications of attrition, one must understand how attrition is defined. Different studies use different terms for the action of teacher attrition. Terms such as leaving, alienation, transferring, burnout, shortage, turnover, dropout, and others are widely used in the literature in this regard (Al Kaabi, 2005). Price (1977) defined employee attrition as the degree of individual movement across the membership boundary of a social system. This definition includes accession and the hiring of new employees. Macy and Mirvis (1976) succinctly argued that turnover is any departure beyond organizational boundaries although the literature is filled with many other definitions. Mobley (1982) indicated that turnover is the cessation of

membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization. Mobley's (1982) definition most accurately reflects the conceptual position of this study.

The phenomenon of teacher attrition has been a worry to school authorities and policy makers in both developed and developing countries. Substantial research has been carried out on this subject to explore the causes and the attendant implications. Several causes of teacher attrition have been identified in the literature. Some empirical work has shown that one of the causes of the high rate of teacher attrition is the level and type of human capital accumulated by teachers. For instance, studies (Guarino, Santibañez, Daley, & Brewer, 2004) show that teachers with advanced degrees from prestigious colleges or teachers with degrees in "high market-value" subjects such as mathematics, engineering and science typically leave teaching for jobs in other, non-education fields at higher rates than do their colleagues without these educational qualities. For such teachers, the opportunity cost of staying in the classroom is higher than they are for teachers with skills and knowledge less well-rewarding outside the teaching profession.

Other studies have shown that attrition can be divided into several types, each affected differently by human capital and by social capital. Some teachers leave fulltime classroom teaching either for jobs in unrelated fields or they depart the workforce all together. According to Ingersoll, (2002) others can remain working as teachers, but "migrate" to other schools. It is also argued that others may still leave the classroom temporarily, perhaps to have children, and then return to the classroom after hiatus (Murnane, Singer, Willett & Kemple., 1991). Yet some teachers leave for different jobs in the field of education (Anderson & Olsen, 2007).

Retirement is naturally assumed to be one of the primary reasons for teacher attrition. But research has shown that the number of teachers retiring from the profession is not a leading cause. In a study of teacher turnover by Ingersoll (2003), retirement was cited less often for leaving the teaching profession than job dissatisfaction or „to pursue another job. Thus, great number of teachers leave the profession altogether because they see no hope for change.

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is often cited and rendered important in both research on teacher attrition and teacher retention (Stockard & Lehman, 2004). Heller, 2004; Stockard and Lehman (2004) tried to understand the high teacher turnover rate among ‘beginning teachers’ by investigating the reasons and causes behind both teacher retention and teacher attrition. They found that the common problems identified by the majority of teachers include job dissatisfaction, poor working conditions and low salary, inadequate support from parents, administration, colleagues and the public, discipline, management, and attendance problems, increasing class sizes (leading to increase in workloads), poor motivation of students, and lack of space for teachers to participate in key decisions affecting the school.

Particularly on the poor salary, studies by Brewer (1996) confirmed that higher wages reduce teacher quit propensity. The researchers therefore offer suggestions on school policies, school administration, and mentoring programs between senior teachers and novice teachers.

2.5 Theoretical Context of the Study

For this study, Human Capital Theory, along with Maslach and Leiter’s (1997) Burnout Theory will be the primary lens, while exploring factors leading to teacher attrition in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality. The Human Capital Theory as applied to Kirby and Grissmer (1993) posits that individuals make

systematic assessment of the benefits and costs of entering or staying in a profession. The primary idea of the human capital theory of occupational choice is that individuals make systematic assessments of the net monetary and non-monetary benefits from different occupation.

The theory of teacher attrition was developed by Grissmer and Kirby in 1987. It theory this involves the patterns in a career and life cycle context. The birth of children, timing of marriage, geographical migration, retirement, working conditions, benefit levels and teacher salaries play an important role in explaining teacher attrition. The career progression patterns in the teaching profession are also important. The theory predicts that the patterns of teacher attrition will assume a “U” curve over the life cycle. For example, in considering the age, the probability of attrition will be high for younger teachers in their early career, very low for middle age teachers and higher during retirement. The theory also draws from some concepts of the human capital theory some of which are concepts of location and occupation to explain the movement between and within occupation.

Regarding the Burnout Theory, Maslach and Leiter (1997) define burnout as a type of job stress that involves a lingering response to chronic interpersonal job stressors. While burnout is a problem in many professions, it is significantly higher in education because of the added burden for students (Dworkin, 1987). Additionally, teacher burnout has increased over time because of changes within the educational system that have led to an increase in the intricacy of the teacher’s role, as well as the school’s role within society (Manassero, Garcia Buades, Torrens, Ramis, Vazquez & Ferrer, 2006). The increased pressure has in turn, led to occupational dissatisfaction among educators (Manassero et al., 2006). Truch (1980) suggests that teacher anguish through absenteeism, attrition, and poor performance, costs billions of dollars

annually and of those, roughly one-quarter of all teachers, at any given time, feel burned out (Dworkin, 1987). Burnout theory asserts that teacher burnout is comprised of three stages: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment (Leiter & Maslach, 2000), which eventually lead to teacher attrition. Emotional exhaustion refers to teachers feeling frustrated and emotionally overwhelmed (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). It is suggested by Leiter and Maslach (2000) that the main factors of emotional exhaustion include personal conflict with co-workers and/or students, and excessive work. While emotional exhaustion may be easily covered up in other professions, in the educational setting, it directly affects a teacher's ability to perform and truly enjoy their job. When a teacher has no motivation to improve their performance, they either level off and lower their performance levels, or leave teaching (Kaiser, 1982).

Depersonalization is a direct cause of emotional exhaustion and refers to a negative disconnected response to those around one (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). In education, depersonalization can severely impact a teacher's relationship with co-workers and students, which affects their own achievement and self-worth. Lastly, feelings of reduced personal accomplishment refer to one's sense of competency and productivity at work, which leads to a low sense of self-efficacy (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). If a teachers' productivity in the classroom suffers, not only is the teacher affected, but the students are affected as well. The students would not be receiving a quality education from that teacher and could potentially cause that teacher more disciplinary problems. Understanding how emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment play into the mind-set of teachers could help to reveal why these teachers are leaving the classroom. In addition to Leiter and Maslach's (2000) belief that burnout can be broken down into three stages, Manassero

et al. (2006) suggest that factors such as constant personal interaction with students and co-workers, the need for patience, the idea of being evaluated by others, salaries, personal expectations, and student motivation exacerbate teacher burnout. Within those factors, individual and situational variables need to be examined (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey & Bassler, 1988).

Burnout often takes place when a worker experiences work overload, lack of control, and/or lack of reward (Maslach & Leiter, 1997); this issue is more documented in education than in other professions. Work overload in education takes place when teachers feel that they have too much to accomplish in a short amount of time with limited resources. Work overload can take place in and out of the classroom. In the classroom, teachers may feel rushed when trying to teach all of the required standards in a specific period of time. Lack of control is another precursor to teacher burnout. Teachers can control what they teach and how they teach, but they cannot control student outcomes. Students choose to study, pay attention, and/or complete the assessments upon which teachers may be evaluated. Lastly, a lack of internal and external rewards can lead to teacher burnout, but most devastating...is the loss of the internal reward that comes when a person takes pride in doing something of importance and values to others, and doing that job well (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Burnout occurs in education when teachers no longer feel rewarded, whether it is in the form of praise from co-workers, administration, students, or even themselves.

2.6 Maslow's Hierarchy of Need Theory

The Hierarchy of need theory of Maslow (1943) can be used to explain teacher retention and attrition. According to Maslow (1943), people are motivated to satisfy

their needs and those needs can be classified into the following five categories that are in an ascending hierarchy.

1. Physiological needs which may include basic pay, workspace, heat, water and company cafeteria
2. Safety needs security needs which may include job security, benefits like life insurance, safety regulations.
3. Belongingness needs such as good co-workers, peers, superiors, customers.
4. Esteem needs like important projects, recognition, prestigious office and location
5. Self-actualization needs like challenging projects, opportunities for innovation and creativity training

It is important to note that the first three are characterized by lower order needs while the last two are higher order needs. In the organizational setting, physiological needs are reflected in the needs for adequate heat, air, and a base salary to guarantee survival. Safety needs on the other hand are needs for security and protection from danger. In the work place, safety needs refer to the need for safe, jobs, fringe benefits and job security. Social needs are also for interaction with other people belongingness, love and so on. These needs reflect the desire to be accepted by one's peers, have friendships, be part of a group and be loved. In the work environment, these needs affect the desire for good relationships with co-workers, participation in work group and a positive relationship with supervisors.

Also, esteem needs reflect the desire for respect, which is affected by the person's standing reputation, the need for attention, recognition, achievement, and appreciation. Maslow illustrated two versions of esteem needs; a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect for others, the need for status,

recognition, attention, reputation an appreciation, and dignity and the higher form includes the need for self-respect including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence and freedom. Within school establishments, esteem needs reflect a motivation for recognition, an increase in responsibility, high status and appreciation for contributions to the organization.

Self-actualization refers to the desire for self-fulfilment; it is drive for individuals for self-development, creativity and job satisfaction. They are related to developing one's full potential, increasing one's competence and becoming a better person. Providing people with opportunities to grow to be creative, and to offer training for advancement are the means that self-actualization needs can be met with in the organizations.

Maslow argued that, as each lower level need is substantially satisfied in sequence. According to Maslow's argument, a person designing job security would dedicate one's efforts to ensure it and would not be concerned with seeking recognition. Maslow also claimed that higher levels of satisfaction for a particular need decrease its potential as a motivator.

There are some criticisms to Maslow's monarchy of needs theory. One main criticism is that there is little empirical evidence to support Maslow's assumptions, second his methodology was problematic (Boeree, 1998). Maslow's methodology was that he picked a small number of people that he himself declared self-actualizing such as Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Jefferson, Albert Einstein, then he looked at their biographies, writings the acts and words of those he knew personally and so on. From these sources, he developed a list of qualities that seemed characteristic of these people and reached conclusions about what self-actualization is. Third, Maslow assumes that human beings will move up the hierarchy, satisfying one need before

moving on. However, there are many examples that refute this though. Many of the best artists and authors, which can be thought of as self-actualized, suffered from poverty bad upbringing, neuroses and depression (Boeree, 1998).

Chandan (1997) observes that Maslow's model is a general model in which all needs interact with each other to some degree. The needs are not necessarily linear nor are the order of needs so rigid. Similarly, in an educational enterprise, the needs of teachers may not necessarily be linear, but will influence the turnover intentions of a teacher whose needs are mostly neglected by their schools.

2.7 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

To explain teachers' retention, Frederick Herzberg (1966) building on the work of Maslow identified two elements, Motivators and Hygiene factors. He concluded that factors which seemed to make individual feel satisfied with their jobs were associated with the content of the job that were labelled motivators, yet factors that seemed to make individuals feel dissatisfied were associated with the job context and these he labelled hygiene factors. Herzberg argued that two entirely separate dimensions contribute to employee behaviour at work. Hygiene factors and motivator's hygiene factors refer to the presence or absence of job dissatisfies. When hygiene factors are valued, work is dissatisfying. There are considered maintenance factors that are necessary to avoid dissatisfaction but they do not themselves contribute to the jobs satisfaction and motivation of personnel. That is, they only maintain employees in the job. Therefore, managers should provide hygiene factors to reduce sources of worker dissatisfaction and be sure to include motivators because they are the factors that can motivate workers and lead ultimately to job satisfaction. In line with Herzberg's view, it is prudent to note that, unsafe working conditions or a noisy work environment would undoubtedly cause employees to become dissatisfied

with their job but their removal will not lead to a high level of motivation and satisfaction. Perhaps it is worth considering other examples of hygiene factors include salary, status, security, supervision and company policy.

On the other hand, motivators, leading to job satisfaction are associated with the nature of the work itself. They are those job related practices such as assignment of challenging jobs, achievement, work itself, recognition, responsibility advancement and opportunities for growth in the job. Herzberg concluded that when motivators are absent, workers are neutral towards work, but when motivators are present, workers are highly motivated to excel at their work.

To Cheptoeck (2002) while studying factors, which affect job satisfaction, and dissatisfaction of teachers, came up with the view that the factors, which contribute to their satisfaction, are achievement, recognition and responsibility while those contributing to dissatisfaction were school policy and administration, interpersonal relationship, supervision and personal life.

Chandan (1997) in agreement with Herzberg argued that it is only natural that people who are generally satisfied with their job will be more dedicated to their work and perform it well as compared to those who are dissatisfied with their jobs.

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, (2004) offer another framework for understanding the motivational implications of work environments. Herzberg, who introduced his theories in the late 1950s, suggested that there was a “two-dimensional paradigm.

In his research, he conducted interviews with 200 engineers and accountants who worked in different organizations. They were asked to relate times when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their present/previous job, then give reasons and a description of the sequence of events giving rise to that feeling.

Responses to the interviews were generally consistent and revealed that there were two different sets of factors affecting motivation and work. This led to the two-factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 2004). Herzberg's theory of motivation is called the motivation-hygiene theory which describes two dimensions of conditions: motivators and hygiene factors. This is represented in the figure below:

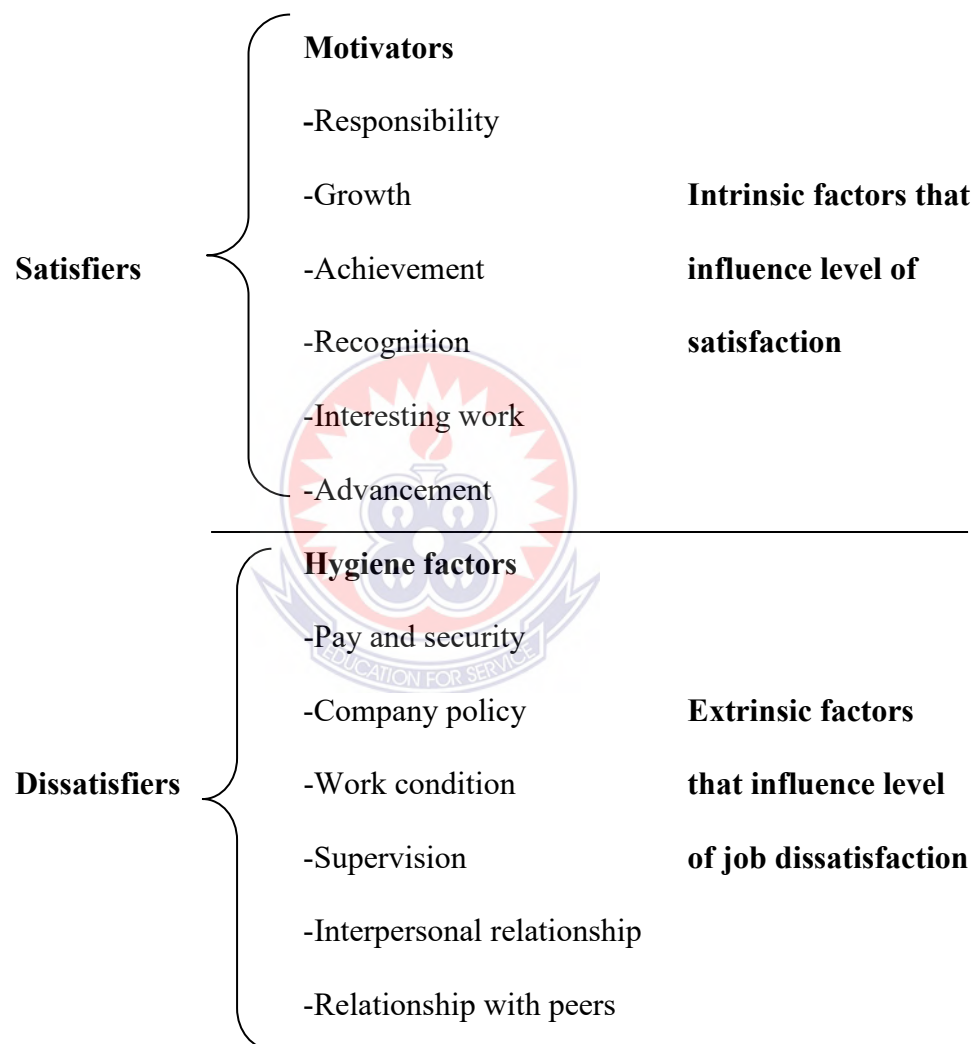


Figure 1: Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Source: Bassy (2002).

Herzberg's theory of motivation is called the motivation-hygiene theory which describes two dimensions of conditions: motivators and hygiene factors as shown in Figure 1. Factors which increase the satisfaction at work were called motivators. He

stated that workers' satisfaction is related to what they actually do (job content). Motivators, akin to Maslow's higher-level needs, are what lead to job satisfaction and are associated with the nature of the work itself: achievement, recognition, responsibility and growth (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The hygiene factors are the same as Maslow's physiological needs, safety needs and social needs (Herzberg et al., 2004); they do not lead necessarily to motivation or satisfaction, but rather are extrinsic and simply reduce job dissatisfaction. Examples of hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision, relationships with supervisors and work conditions.

The factors classified as motivators are:

1. Responsibility: The workers should have responsibility and control of the working situation. They should be given responsibility from the manager, for their own work or having responsibility for others.
2. Growth: The worker should achieve development through the tasks and the work to develop their own skills and professional knowledge. (Herzberg et al., 2004)
3. Achievement: Satisfaction about doing a job very well, solve problems, the ability to see result from the work.
4. Recognition: For a well done job, from management or co-workers.
5. Interesting work: The work or task of the job should be interesting, varying and demanding.
6. Advancement: The worker should be able to advance either by increased status or in position.

The hygiene factors that prevent dissatisfaction at work are:

1. Pay & security: Relates to company stability and to know that you are not in a risk of being fired as well as compensating the worker with increased salary.
2. Company policy: This concerns the company as an entity. Examples are adequacy or inadequacy from the management, the organization and company policy's that generate benefits and protection for the workers.
3. Work conditions: The design of the work conditions, related to the actual work. For example, ventilation, light, space and other environmental characteristics.
4. Supervision: The competence of the managers and the way in which they guide their subordinates. This point also includes fair treatment and willingness to teach and delegate.
5. Interpersonal relations: The relations and interaction between peers, managers and subordinates in the company (Herzberg et al., 2004).

An example is talking during coffee breaks. Herzberg asserts that the dissatisfaction–satisfaction continuum contains a zero mid-point at which dissatisfaction and satisfaction are absent. For example, an organization member who has good supervision, pay and good working condition, but a tedious and an unchallenging task with little chance of advancement would be at the zero mid-point (Herzberg, 1966). Mullins (1996) cited Graen's experiment, in which workers were induced to perform better in their jobs either by verbal recognition of good work or by a pay rise found that performance was increased more significantly by the 'intrinsic' reward of verbal recognition than by the 'extrinsic' reward of additional money. Di Cesare and Sari (2003) in a study of 93 Indian middle level workers and managers revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors cause a feeling of satisfaction and

dissatisfaction. The researchers concluded that respondents endorsed job factor difference from what the motivation-hygiene theory would have predicted. Herzberg addressed money particularly (referring specifically to 'salary' in his study and analysis). Herzberg acknowledged the complexity of the salary issue (money, earnings, etc), and concluded that money is not a motivator in the way that the primary motivators are such as achievement and recognition. Herzberg viewed salary (i.e., money, earnings, etc.) within the context of the sequences of events, salary as a factor belongs more in the group that defines the job situation and is primarily a dissatisfier. This view was confirmed in a survey by Development Dimensions International, published in the UK Times newspaper in 2004 1,000 staff from companies employing more than 500 workers were interviewed, and found many to be bored, lacking commitment and looking for a new job (Sadler, 2004). This implies that pay actually came fifth in the reasons people gave for leaving their jobs.

2.8 Adams' Equity Theory

Adams (1963), a behavioural scientist working at the General Electric Company, proposed the first systematic account of the concept that an employee's perception of fairness in comparison with that of others influences their motivation and job satisfaction. Equity is achieved when the ratio of an employee's outcomes (for example, pay, recognition and promotion) to inputs (for example, experience, education, qualification, effort and skills) is equal to that of other employees (Adams, 1963). That is, employees will evaluate how much they receive from the job (outcomes) in relation to their contribution (inputs). Each employee compares his or her ratio to the ratios of employees working inside or outside the organization. When workers perceive their compensation as being equal to what other workers receive for similar contributions, they will believe that their treatment is fair and equitable.

According to this theory, equity exists only when a person's perception of his input and outcome is equal to the input and outcome of others in a similar position. Spector (2008) indicate that if the ratios are equal, the result is job satisfaction; otherwise, job dissatisfaction results, although with different consequences for positive and negative inequities.

In effect, feelings of inequity might arise when a person's ratio of outcomes to inputs is either less or greater than that of other employees. For instance, when workers think the salary they receive is relatively less than that received by others in work inputs, they will perceive a feeling of negative inequity, whereas workers who feel the salary they receive is relatively greater than that received by others will have the feeling of positive inequity (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn 2005; Spector, 2006).

According to Adams (1963), underpayment or negative inequity leads to anger and positive or overpayment inequity induces guilt. Consequently, perceived inequity can lead to negative outcomes, such as tensions and dissatisfaction and a high turnover rate.

Employees will be motivated to reduce inequity through several methods, as follows: changing the inputs (for example, reducing performance efforts), changing the outcomes (for example, asking for rewards), cognitive distortion of inputs and outcomes, leaving the field (for example, resigning), influencing others, or changing the object of comparison (Daft, 2007). Although equity theory is considered a key aspect of process theory, it has been criticized by some researchers as follows:

Equity theory oversimplifies the motivational issues by not explicitly considering individual needs and perceptions. This oversimplification becomes extremely important when the workforce becomes more diverse. The feeling of equity or inequity will depend on the worker's perception, which may be inaccurate, not to

mention the individual differences in terms of the sensitivity to equity ratios and the balance of preference (Rowden, 2002).

The components of the comparison are highly subjective, which is difficult to test empirically (Vroom, 1964). Also, the inputs to and outputs from a job might not be accurately identified by individuals (Bennett, 1997).

Cross-cultural differences may play a role in employees' preference for equity. Research has shown that people who feel underpaid are less comfortable than those who feel overpaid. Such results are particularly tied to individualistic cultures, where self-interest tends to govern social comparison, more than to collectivist cultures. The concern of collectivist cultures, such as those of many Asian countries, often focuses more on equality than on equity. This allows for solidarity with the group and helps to maintain harmony in social relationships (Schermerhorn, et al., 2005).

2.9 Overview of Teacher Attrition in Ghana

Teacher attrition in Ghana began as far back as the colonial days. Events that took place in those days clearly suggested trends of teacher attrition in Ghana. For example, Akwapem teachers who were displeased with their salaries resigned and went into cocoa farming (McWilliam & Kwamena Poh, 1975). Between 1956 and 1960, 3000 teachers resigned to seek greener pastures in Nigeria. Among teacher's who did not go to Nigeria between 1974 and 1980, most migrated to other jobs to find better living. This caused inadequate staffing in Ghanaian schools (Manson, 1980).

Teacher attrition rates are difficult to estimate. Mireku (2000) estimated that training colleges produced 54,100 teachers who were posted to the basic school system. This figure represented those posted. There is no data on how long they may have remained in these postings or if they actually took them up. In 1988, there were about 59,700 trained teachers employed in primary and Junior high schools. Ten years

later the number was 83,600, an increase of 23,900 or 40%. Thus the rate of increase in the number of trained teachers employed was a little below 40%. The rate at which newly trained teachers were being posted was averaging about 9% of the number of trained teachers employed, gives an estimate of the underlying rate of trained teacher attrition from all causes (Mireku, 2000). There are reasons to suppose that the attrition rate may be rising. Mireku (2000) notes that the teachers' intake into the University College of Education, (UCEW) programmes to upgrade their Certificate "A" has increased dramatically from about 300 per year in the early 1990s to 2300 in 1999. These teachers study full-time and therefore create temporary vacancies in the schools. If most teachers do not return to primary or JHS teaching after completing their upgrading they will increase the rate of attrition of trained teachers by between 1% and 2% in his view (Mireku, 2000).

A survey report on teacher attrition rate in Ghana and its causes and solution, commissioned by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and the Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU) in 2009, revealed that the Ghana Education Service estimates that about 10000 teachers leave the classroom every time for various reasons including study leave. According to the report, about 3000 teachers leave the classroom annually to pursue further studies. However, 9000 teachers come out from the Colleges of Education every to join the Ghana Education Service (Daily Graphic, 19th February, 2010, 10000 teachers leave classrooms every year).

2.10 The Principle Underpinning Teacher Education

Teacher recruitment starts from teacher education and training generally that is if the issue is being treated in the realm of professionally trained teachers. To this end, it should be emphasised that there are principles that govern teacher education.

According to Summers (1992), teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the school and classroom. Teacher education is often divided into: initial teacher training/education (a pre-service course before entering the classroom as a fully responsible teacher); induction (the process of providing training and support during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school); teacher development or continuing professional development (an in-service process for practicing teachers).

In the view of Anamuah-Mensah (2005), teacher education plays a crucial role in empowering a group of people to assist the greater majority of individuals to adapt to the rapidly changing social, economic and cultural environment to ensure the development of human capital required for the economic and social growth of societies. It is said that “if they (teachers) acquire the professional competence and attitudes that enable them to effectively perform their multiple tasks in the classroom, in the school and in the community, teachers become the single most important contributing factor in ensuring quality educational provision” (Anamuah-Mensah, 2005, p. 2). A critical aspect of this professional competence is the practicum. It is the heart of teacher education and an inseparable aspect of any professional training. Additionally, Anamuah-Mensah quoted the principle of teacher education as put forward by the Ministry of Education, Ghana (1993):

..... to provide teachers with better knowledge and skills, together with better incentives to use their knowledge and skills for the benefit of children, through the creation of an accessible, integrated teacher education and training system which provides a structure for continuous professional development throughout their teaching careers (p. 4).

This principle is succinct and straight to the point and it is on this basis that teachers are educated to come out and teach children to become useful citizens.

2.11 Teacher Recruitment Modes in Ghana

Deploying newly-trained teachers from the various training institutions is just the end of the entire recruitment process. There are different modes of teacher training or recruitment in Ghana. The main one for basic education is through the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

Commenting on the importance of teacher education, Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) revealed that teacher education or development as is used by many teacher educators is a complex, multi-faceted process, made up of initial teacher training, in-service training (or continuing education) and lifelong education. They further indicated that in some places, teachers go through an additional process of induction and licensing. These processes cannot be carried out in isolation from one another. A strong synergistic relationship among the different elements especially between the practical experiences and the theory is required for quality teacher education. Currently, the major institutions that collaborate to provide teacher education in Ghana are: Ghana Education Service (GES), University of Education, Winneba (UEW) and University of Cape Coast (UCC). The Ghana Education Service provides initial teacher education through Colleges of Education located in various regions of the country.

Another mode of teacher education these days is the Untrained Teacher Training Diploma in Basic Education Programme (UTDBE). A feature article written by Owusu-Mensah (2008) discussed the need to improve the quality of education to the Ghanaian child, especially those in the rural communities. He observed that quality education for the rural child has been the concern of not only the government

but also the entire society. It is true that the lack of infrastructure, such as proper classroom blocks, furniture, textbooks, toilet facilities, teacher's accommodation and libraries have conspired against the provision of quality education in rural public basic schools. As a result, trained and professional teachers are unwilling to accept postings to these remote areas. The rural children, therefore, depend on the services of untrained teachers popularly call "pupil teachers" for their education. Even though pupil teachers have made significant contribution to education in the rural communities, their efforts have not been able to bridge the academic gap that exists between the rural and urban child. The high dropout rate in rural areas is attributed to lack of professional teachers to use the appropriate methodology and teaching techniques to guide the children to develop their academic potentials at the tender age and to encourage them to continue to build upon them in order to progress academically. It is in the light of this, that the decision by the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service (GES) to provide professional training to these pupil teachers, is seen as a very laudable enterprise (Owusu-Mensah, 2008).

Furthermore, in the estimation of Owusu-Mensah (2008) there are about 24,000 untrained teachers currently serving in basic schools throughout the country. The four-year distance education programme (UTDBE), among other things, aims at advancing the personal and professional competence of the trainees in order to improve the quality of education at the basic school levels in Ghana. It is also to produce teachers, who have a clear grasp of intended outcomes of their teaching activities and skills in monitoring, diagnosing and providing suitable equal opportunities to all pupils. The programme would also help to reduce the percentage of the number of untrained teachers in the system. The UTDBE programme is being

carried out in four phases with the Northern, Upper East, Upper West and the Afram Plains District in the Eastern Region constituting the first phase.

In an informative manner, Owusu-Mensah (2008) revealed that already about 6,000 candidates have been enrolled. Again, he said that in the Ashanti and Brong Ahafo Regions, which have started the second phase of the programme, they were expected to enroll about 8,000 candidates. The Western and Central Regions form the third phase, while the Volta, Greater Accra and the remaining part of the Eastern Region form the fourth phase of the UTDBE. Furthermore, it is estimated that, about 60 per cent of the 24,000 untrained teachers in the country would be enrolled as candidates to pursue the programme by the end of 2006. It must be emphasized that, the UTDBE programme is a bold attempt by the government not only to reduce the inequalities that existed in the country's educational system, but a recognition of the importance of pupil teachers who readily accept postings to remote and deprived areas to cater for the schools there.

In another deliberation, Owusu-Mensah (2005) indicated that the government is also demonstrating its commitment to poverty reduction since the trainees would be accepted into the formal teaching system and thereby receive appropriate and sustainable incomes at the end of every month. "What makes the programme timely and appropriate is the introduction of the capitation grant by the Government to all public basic schools in the country" (p. 2). With the introduction of the capitation grant coupled with the ongoing expansion of school infrastructure, school enrolment is increasing and there is the need for a corresponding increase in the number of professional teachers to teach in these schools.

However, the 38 Teacher Training Colleges in the country are unable to produce the number of teachers required every year to teach in public basic schools.

Meeting teacher demand in public basic schools has, therefore, become a challenge to the GES and Ministry of Education. The provision of adequate professional teachers in rural schools through the UTDBE programme would, therefore, help to increase and sustain school enrolment and draw the Government nearer to meeting the Millennium Development Goal of education for all in the country. It is important and opportune for the district assemblies and nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) concerned with the provision of quality education in their districts to embrace the programme and take keen interest in its implementation. District assemblies should initiate sponsorship and attractive incentive packages to get untrained teachers in their districts to enroll and complete the programme. This would not only increase the number of competent teachers in the district, but would also help to improve upon the quality of education in their respective districts. These pupil teachers are already staying in the districts and would automatically continue to live and teach there after the training programme. Already some teacher trainees and nurses, who have been sponsored by some district assemblies, have refused to accept postings to these districts. Parent Teacher Associations, School Management Committees, traditional authorities and other influential people in the communities should also identify and support "pupil teachers" in their communities to pursue the programme to improve the academic status in their schools. It is important that the whole Ghanaian society look for alternative ways of improving education in rural communities. Society cannot continue to deny rural children the quality education that they deserve. And it is only through education that the country can achieve the objective of halving poverty in rural communities by 2025, as proposed in the Millennium Development Goals (Owusu-Mensah, 2008).

In a further deliberation, Col.org (2009) underscores that the Institute for Educational Development and Extension (IEDE) of the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) pioneered tertiary teacher education by distance learning in Ghana. Col.org indicates that the mission of IEDE is to provide leadership in the development, provision and maintenance of effective extension services in education to prepare teachers, educational professionals and people from other professions and industries for service to the nation. It seeks to provide greater access to higher education in a much more efficient manner with the application of better equipment and human resources at the Institute and various Study Centres located in the ten Regions of the country. The Professional Teacher Distance Education programme being offered by IEDE is in line with the University of Education, Winneba's mission to equip teachers with the requisite academic proficiency and professional competency for teaching at the pre-tertiary level.

Again, Col.org (2009) reveals that about 15,000 Certificate 'A' teachers leave the classroom each year for further studies, creating vacancies that are difficult to fill. This situation affects teaching and learning. This mass departure of teachers from the classroom for upgrading is in response to the Ministry of Education's directive that the minimum qualification for teaching in Ghanaian basic schools by the year 2005 should be a Diploma instead of a Certificate. Up till 2002/2003 academic year, there existed a government policy which enabled over 3000 teachers to pursue higher education each year. Quotas have now been allocated to various courses resulting in a drastic reduction in the number of teachers who can pursue university education each year. The greatest advantage of the Distance Education (DE) programme is that teachers will remain in the classroom and will continue to offer their services while upgrading themselves. Also, the DE programme will make higher education

accessible to all teachers without any restrictions. Several pronouncements by government officials indicate the support government is prepared to give to Distance Education. Currently, the annual enrolment into DE is about 2,000. It is expected that this will increase to 10,000 in five (5) years, thus further increasing access to, especially, women. Generally, women seem to prefer Distance Education (which allows them to combine family commitment with higher education) to residential programmes. This is borne out of the fact that while women form only 31% of residential students, they form 54% in the Distance Education programme. Thus Distance Education will address the issue of gender equity. The IEDE, which is responsible for the delivery of DE in UEW, was established in the second year of the University's existence. Since its establishment, DE, as a second mode of delivery of University courses (UEW runs a dual-mode programme), has been a prominent part of UEW programmes. It focuses on teacher education, with the same academic and professional components as the on-campus programmes. The academic component comprises specific subjects taught in primary/secondary schools and colleges (such as Mathematics and Social Studies). The professional component, on the other hand, consists of the theory of education, school management and pedagogy. The DE programme therefore has been in line with the University's mission to equip teachers with the requisite academic proficiency and professional competency for teaching at the pre-tertiary level (Col.org, 2009).

2.12 Models of Teacher Education Practicum

The practical training that students undergo and the characteristics they develop in their teacher education programmes are determined to a large extent by the type of "model and method of teacher education" (Ben-Peretz, 2000). Ben-Peretz further identifies two models - the master teacher model and the joint problem-solving

model. A third model used in Ghana is the college or university supervision model which gives the university or college supervisor the sole responsibility for shaping the thoughts and practices of the student teacher. Although this could be considered as a master teacher model, an attempt has been made to differentiate it from that at the school level. In this model, schools are used as authentic sites for student teachers to practice what they have been taught in the college or university without any assistance from the teachers in the school. Indeed, the teachers in the schools perceive the period of student teachers' practice teaching as a time to have a break. In the master teacher or traditional apprenticeship model, significant individuals such as method lecturers, school-based mentors serve as personal models of professional practice through their knowledge, actions and attitudes. The teacher mentors and university or college supervisors are seen as experts whose actions and advice should be followed (in most cases without question) by the student teacher. The student teacher is thus thought as one with no ideas and experiences which could be tapped. For the joint problem-solving model, student teachers, teacher educators and mentors participate jointly in solving real-life school and classroom problems, the solutions to which are not known to any of them. The three agencies for teacher development in the country employ aspects of the three models. Some use the university supervision model (e.g., UCC), while UEW uses a cross between the master and the joint problem-solving models. Teacher training colleges are transiting from college supervision to school mentor-based master teacher model (Anamuah-Mensah, 2005).

Again, Anamuah-Mensah (2005), who is a former Vice Chancellor of the University of Education, Winneba indicates that the introduction of the 4-year IN-IN-IN-OUT programme at UEW was an innovation introduced to meet the need for quality education in the schools. With this, the students spend 3 years doing academic

work in the university and use the last year for internship in schools across the country. He says the new system extends the 4-week teaching practice to 40 weeks. It involves the following innovative strategies:

- i. Introduction of mentoring system and the formation of Professional Development Schools (PDS) for professional teacher education through university-school's partnerships.
- ii. Introduction of Portfolio as an appraisal system as well as the basis for reflection during the practicum experience.
- iii. Engagement of student teacher in developing his/her philosophy of teaching; this is intended to challenge pre-service teachers to engage in the exploration of their beliefs and expectations or what may be termed their 'native theories'.
- iv. Introduction of action research as a tool for engaging in reflection on their 'native theories' as well as the problems they encounter in their teaching.
- v. It allows pre-service teachers to bring their private and public theories into the public domain. Action research allows the teachers to systematically codify their practical experience and make it part of the shared professional knowledge of teachers just as is done by many recognised professions such as engineering and medicine.
- vi. Involvement in school community activities such as Parent-Teacher association activities (Anamuah-Mensah, 2005).

The above model of partnership and mentoring attempts to follow the work of Hargreaves and Fullan (1992). Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) suggested three approaches to teacher development, namely, the acquisition of knowledge and skills, development of self-understanding (of personal beliefs and knowledge about teaching), and ecological change, i.e. the development of collaborative school culture. These have been found to be critical to the development of competent teachers.

2.13 Empirical Studies on Teacher Retention

According to Manuel (2003), studies on this transition to the first years of teaching have indicated a move by teachers from an initial buoyant state of energy and enthusiasm to a reality zone of day-to-day school life that is confronting. Goddard and Foster (2001) and Schuck, Aubusson, Buchanan and Russell (2012) also reported similar teacher transitions in Canada and Australia respectively. The experiences of teacher attrition have been extensively researched in the literature and studies indicate the problem of attrition is considerable. Manuel's (2003) research study used teacher-centred data in a bid to address the alarming attrition rates of beginning teachers in their first three to five years of service. Ewing and Manuel (2005) observed that up to one third of teachers in Australia and other developed countries leave within the first five years. However, accurate Australian figures are difficult to obtain because each state and territory education department gathers its own exit statistics and there is often a reticence to publicly reveal the data, in particular, concerning the number of years of service of those leaving the profession. Manuel (2003) noted the lack of data on attrition available in Australia. However, a survey of 1351 beginning teachers conducted by the Australian Primary Principals Association (APPA) indicated that 24% of teachers felt it was likely they would leave teaching within 5 years (APPA, 2006). The Australian Education Union (AEU) found in a survey of 1200 ECTs that 45% indicated that they did not believe they would still be teaching in 10 years' time (AEU, 2006). Paris (2010) suggests statistics for Australia of 3040% attrition in the first five years, but she does not indicate the source of this statistic. However, she makes the point that the situation was of sufficient concern to prompt a parliamentary enquiry into teacher education in 2007. Further insights about attrition are provided by smaller-scale studies. For example, O'Brien, Goddard and Keeffe (2007) found

that by their second year of teaching 29% of the teachers were thinking about leaving teaching and 10% indicated they had already made the decision to leave. The major factor for these teachers was burnout. Plunkett and Dyson (2011) suggest that attrition rates for teachers do not differ markedly from those in other professions but suggest that the implications for the workforce are greater. They highlight the problem of possible compromise of students' learning to the general productivity costs associated with attrition in any profession. McGaw (2002) points out the need for qualitative research to address the quantitative problem of teacher retention and attrition. Studies about beginning teachers' views of their first years in the profession (Buchanan, 2006; Fetherstone & Lummis, 2012) highlighted the following issues: adjusting to full-time teaching demands, managing colleague and parent relationships, understanding the cultural contexts of the school and coping with the clash between expectations of pre-service teaching and the realities of in-service teaching. Manuel's (2003) report suggests a range of strategies identified by the teachers in his case study, which, they consider to be a first step to overcoming some of the major difficulties experienced during the first year out. These recommendations include release from full teaching load, harnessing the rich resources of professional teaching associations, funding to participate in meaningful professional development over time, additional support for new teachers in hard-to-staff schools, pastoral care and substantial links between universities, education authorities and schools. Manuel (2003) points out, however, that these findings cannot be generalized and that not all beginning teachers experience the kind of hardship that leads to a decision to leave the profession. Other studies have also explored teachers' positive experiences as they evolve from student teachers to novice educators. For many teachers the experience of being a beginning teacher is neither traumatic nor upsetting (Hebert & Worthy, 2001;

Brown, 2008). Positive experiences among teachers were often associated with having a supportive and empathic mentor. In spite of the many studies indicating positive experiences, Cherubini's (2009) literature review on teachers' experiences over the last 35 years points out that new teachers seem consistently to resign themselves to negotiating the tension inherent within disjointed teaching experiences. A consequence of this tension is that new teachers may abandon those pedagogical practices that resonate with students' emotional, creative and intellectual development. Cherubini (2009) describes,

Goddard and Foster (2001) analysed teachers' experiences using a critical constructivist approach and reported how beginning teachers move through different phases with the transitions occurring at varying rates and triggered by experiences particular to the individual practitioner. Further, these phases or themes were able to provide a means to better understand the relationship between effects of the experience and the broader issue of high attrition rate among the beginning teachers. The authors also called for researchers to seek out those neophytes who show resilience and who do more than simply survive their first years to stay in the profession. Schuck, Brady and Griffin (2005) identified school culture as a major determinant of early career teachers' satisfaction. Where the school culture was supportive and encouraging, these characteristics appeared to be a critical variable for helping teachers to cope with the challenges of their new careers.

Perceptions of success and sense of worth are consistently noted in the literature as being associated with the retention of beginning teachers. The literature highlights the importance of ensuring that beginning teachers feel valued and that they receive the support needed to experience sustained success in their teaching (Blase, 2009; Dyson, Albon & Hutchinson, 2007). The challenge is to create programs that will

prepare the beginning teacher for the intricacies of life in the classroom (Bean, & Stevens, 2002; Cavanagh & Prescott, 2008).

The literature draws attention to the differing needs of teachers. For example, when considering the policies relating to early career teachers, Skilbeck and Connell (2004) emphasized the importance of matters such as: motivation and preparation to teach; school leadership and environments; recognition of quality teaching; career advancement prospects; and the attraction of particular fields of teaching and school locations. Mayer (2006) suggested the teaching profession of the future should consider opportunities for teachers to advance their careers in the profession, and find autonomy and flexibility in their work lives. The formation of professional learning communities in schools to support and provide a collegial and enabling context is also noted to be beneficial in retaining teachers (Blase, 2009). Fetherston and Lummis (2012) for example, refer to resignation pathways, and, in a discussion of burdensome workloads, observe that fatigue generated by unaudited human resource expectations eventually creates serious wellbeing issues among teachers. The experiences of ECTs are inextricably linked to their teacher preparation. Accordingly, it is essential for teacher educators to be aware of, and analyse, these experiences so that they can modify their courses to ensure relevance and support for graduates in their early years. A number of longitudinal studies investigating the transitions from teacher education programs to the early years of teaching have been conducted with the purpose of improving teacher education by understanding the experiences of teachers (Kosnik & Clift, 2009). Such studies indicate the importance of research by teacher educators in the area of retention and attrition, and lead to valuable feedback for their own teaching in teacher education programs (Schuck, 2002). Manuel (2003) illustrates the importance of her study for pre-service teachers and teacher educators because

everyone in the profession should hear the voices of the new teacher: ‘to know about their expectations and their aspirations; to understand how they have constructed and interpreted this thing called teaching; and to make an authentic and visible space for the new teacher to enact their vision of what it means to be part of the teaching profession’ (Manuel, 2003). When teacher educators understand the experiences of the early career teachers, their preparation of pre-service teachers for the rigours of teaching can be more realistic. Being able to incorporate discussion about the challenges of early years of teaching and how to survive those challenges is an essential component of teacher education. Studies also indicate ways in which support can be provided to teachers by their teacher education programmes. It is clear that the decision to remain in or to leave teaching is influenced by many factors, including the experiences of teachers during their first few years in the profession.

2.14 Types of Teacher Attrition

Teacher attrition could be permanent or temporary, while some teachers may combine teaching with other jobs. Thompson (2008) holds the view that some teachers leave full time classroom teaching for jobs in unrelated fields or depart the teaching profession to new or different fields. Some teachers remain in the profession but move to other jobs while others leave the job, temporarily to have children, start a family and return to continue their jobs.

Another group of teachers leave the teaching profession for different jobs in the field of education. For example, teachers may join the Ministry of Education or the education board from the classroom. This type of teacher attrition elevates such teachers into higher status in the profession as they could become Board Chairmen, Board Secretaries, coordinators, Heads of school services or even Education Commissioners. This is peculiar to teachers who have high level social capital,

personal contacts, information access and mentors who make available information to them to gain access into such rewarding job opportunities especially if they possess the generic human capital to embrace such jobs. Teachers with strong academic background belong to this group as they are more or less redundant in the classroom. Teachers who are high performers are also likely to leave the profession as their performance could pave ways for better job – opportunities for them in other areas.

Teachers who wish to attain high status in the teaching profession can only aspire to become school administrators. Thompson (nd) report that teachers who sought greater status in their careers had only one choice, they could become school administrators. This situation limits the ambition of teachers who aspire to such positions as only a few of them can actually become school heads out of the large number of teachers in service. Thus, teachers who wish to aspire higher must leave the profession to other areas in order to actualize their dreams. Teacher attrition could be subject based. Teachers in the sciences and other core subjects areas often leave when the conditions of service are not favourable to them or when they are posted to places where there are no modern facilities.

2.15 General Factors Leading to Employee Attrition

Controlling employee attrition can constitute a complex and challenging task for both the workplace and administrators. Employers may have difficulty understanding and or accepting employee attrition within their organizations, due to a myopic perspective of the situation. However, identifying the underlying causes, quantifying the problem, and identifying possible solution to high employee attrition can prove to be valuable information for employers who wish to make a difference (Mobley, 1982).

Numerous researchers have tried to identify the various contributing factors to employee attrition in the workplace in addition to the cause of attrition and dissatisfaction. Tradition has focused on how employees make their decision to leave the workplace. There are leading underlying factors that exist in causing the actual act of attrition.

2.1.6 Intent to Leave

Intent to leave is ones' attitude to withdraw from the organization. Intent to leave has replaced job satisfaction and organizational commitment as the strongest predictor of attrition in the studies of attrition (Keaveney, 1992). Intent to leave is based upon an attitudinal variable and in job-related attrition (Cotton & Tuttle, 1996).

2.15.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be explained as the positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job or experience. Developing more slowly over than satisfaction and being more extensive, organizational commitment is one's identification with and loyalty to an organization (Mowday, 1979). The vast majority of evidence supports the claim that job satisfaction leads to organizational commitment (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

Job dissatisfaction has been found to be a common occurrence with several levels of severity. A direct positive correlation was found in the employee's level of dissatisfaction and the chance that the employee would leave the organization. For managerial trainees in a large merchandising firm, Porter, et al., (1976) found that commitment diminished prior to the individual's actually leaving the organization. Also, the level of job dissatisfaction did decrease when employers attempted to accommodate all reasonable requests for improving the work situations.

2.15.2 Role Stressors

Staw (1980) identified three role stressors, which contribute to employee attrition. These three role stressors are role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. Almost the opposite of lack of responsibility, role stress is a result of work environment perceptions and thus, influences affective responses such as organizational commitment. Role ambiguity results when an employee is uncertain how to perform the job. This could occur when there are undefined management positions within an organization. Role conflict is experienced when an employee receives two or more sets of expectations or demands that are incompatible and cannot be simultaneously satisfied (Church & Waclawski, 1996). The first two, role ambiguity and role conflict are stressors that are experienced within the organizational framework itself. The third, role overload is when extra organizational variables are added into the context of the workplace. An example of this could be work-family conflict, where the pressures of the two roles conflict and one or both areas are in need of consideration. Work-Family conflict is likely to directly affect intent to leave, and the more work-family conflict an employee experiences, the greater the employee's intentions to leave the organisation.

The company will be less likely to pressure the employee or manager into a conflicting situation that could contribute to the work-family conflict, knowing that increased levels of role conflict will negatively affect commitment to the organization.

2.15.3 Poor Employee Training and Orientation

Training is a method used to increase job related employee knowledge or skills. Employees beginning a new job need to be introduced to the job, its duties, and the expectations that will be placed upon them. This training should be only the beginning process to mould the employee into the corporate culture and ideals.

Warshauer (1988) identified eight critical elements in successful training sessions. These items include programme content, training methods, employee input, and an assurance that the training meets organisational needs.

2.15.4 Remuneration

It is not uncommon for people to leave one position for a higher paying position, sometimes within the same company. It is hard to keep employees when paying significantly less than others is offering, which has been common in the retail setting. However, in past studies on income has been consistently related negatively to attrition (Cotton & Tuttle, 1996).

2.15.5 Lack of Respect

Certain businesses have been criticized for not giving employees the respect that they feel they deserve. Employees expect to be treated with dignity and respect at all levels of the job. Employees can be the deciding factor in an organization's success. For this reason, employers should treat employees with respect and in the same manner in which they would like to be treated. If management does not realize that employees are its most important assets, it will continue to have substantial attrition, mediocre productivity and inadequate customer relations (Blanchard & Johnson, 1982).

2.15.6 Lack of Responsibility

It has been argued by Weinstein (1992) that responsibility is the single greatest motivator in business. In some instances, individuals perceive that they are ready to make the decisions yet, management may never give them the chance. Responsibility is a major factor that can provide a lasting change of attitude Herzberg (1966).

Therefore, empowering the employee could be a critical investment in a company's future.

2.15.7 Separation, Replacement and Training Costs

Cascio (1995) breaks attrition costs into three broad areas. These are separation cost, replacement costs and training costs. Costs associated with separation include administrative processing and exit interviews. The most apparent cost of attrition, for researchers and practitioners alike, is the administrative one. Replacement costs are typically associated with job posting and advertising, interviews, testing, travel and moving expenses. Training costs include formal and informal activities, materials, and management time. Other miscellaneous costs could occur in the standard “out-processing” costs for employees that are leaving (Mobley, 1982).

These costs may increase if the attrition is generated by downsizing and requires premium severance packages. Also, if the attrition is the result of involuntary termination there may be additional administrative costs to document, along with possible legal fees if the employee claims to have been the victim of discrimination or unfair practices.

2.16 Causes of Teacher Attrition

Boyd, Lankford, Loeb and Wyckoff (2007) posited that many factors can contribute to teacher attrition and retention. The researchers mention further that among reasons that determine whether a teacher will remain on his job or quit the profession depend on individual factors, but these may vary from one country to another. Bobbitt (1994) posits that not minding these, there are factors that are peculiar to different areas and countries, the main cause of teacher intention to leave

is the low salaries and unsatisfactory working conditions. Reports in sub-Saharan Africa suggests that attrition and turnover is associated with the HIV and AIDS epidemic and also due to such reasons as lack of adequate salaries, allowances, housing and promotion (Boyd et al., 2007). Attrition and retention of classroom educational managers is a complicated issue, with reasons to remain or leave usually linked to personal variables, still, some themes and patterns may be connected (Boyd et al., 2007). A variety of constructs can be related to the challenges of teacher attrition. Nonetheless, the variables may vary from one country to the other. The dimensions in USA may not be the same in Malaysia or in Ghana but notwithstanding the differences in these variables that are common to all countries.

Studies done by Brewer (1996) confirmed that higher wages reduce quit propensity. Some empirical work has shown that one of the causes of the high rate of teacher attrition is the level and type of human capital accumulated by teachers. For instance, studies (Guarino, Santibanez, Daley & Brewer, 2004) revealed that teachers with degrees and advanced degrees from prestigious colleges has “high market-value” as well as subject such as mathematics, engineering and science teachers look for jobs in other non-education fields at higher rate than do their colleagues without these educational qualities. For such teachers, the opportunity cost of staying in the classroom is higher than teachers with skills and knowledge outside the teaching profession. Socio-economic status of every family is measured by occupation of the head of the house’s (Guarino et al., 2004) income and the level of education. Another study done by Guarino et al., (2004) found that teachers who came from high status families were and are more likely to seriously consider quitting teaching than those from medium-status or low status families. The teacher salary increase has been a concern in order to address teacher’s working conditions so as to retain teachers in the

teaching profession, in particular in schools and classrooms. GNAT and TEWU's (2009), study in Ghana where teachers gave their opinions such as; "The take home salary cannot take me home "This reminds the government and other education stakeholders to re-think about teacher's salary and remuneration in order to rescue the teaching profession from being a profession at risk. It has been unveiled that the contribution of teachers towards the attainment of students' achievement is only weak when teacher qualification and teacher quality is judged on observable and quantifiable teacher's attributes such as academic credentials and test scores (Goldhaber, 2007; Gordon, 2006). Therefore, with the increase of the salary, inter alia the government and education stakeholders such as institutions need to ensure that they professionally groom qualified quality teachers.

According to Leimann, Murdock and Waller (2008), teachers who were interviewed mentioned low salary as their major reason for quitting the profession. In another deliberation, Parker, Ndoye and Scott (2009) opined that some teachers cannot afford their basic needs and in order to sustain themselves, they combine teaching with other business (Rees, 2006). However, when there is an opportunity for them to leave to another profession, teachers quickly leave (Osunde & Omuruyi, 2005; Yusuf, 2010). In another development Veenman, (2010) found out that apart from low salary, poor learning environment is the next major factor to attrition among teachers. The lack of basic amenities makes the school environment not conducive and this has adverse effect on the teachers which in turn discourage them from putting on their maximum best (Ahmed, 2003).

One of the most critical factors that result in teacher attrition is poor leadership style (Boyd et al...2009). Luekens (2004) surveyed teachers in Washington D.C. it was revealed that about 40% of the teachers who left teaching responded that lack of

administrative support from their principals was the main reason for their leaving. Again Adams (2010) indicated that teachers who experience partial support from their principals further expressed interest of leaving the teaching profession when the need arises or there is an opportunity.

High rates of teacher attrition consequently limit schools' ability to create productive learning atmosphere and disrupt continuity of program and staff development. This in effect turns to over burden the administrator's work load where the new recruit would require supervisory increase and curriculum training (Allen, 2005; Theobald & Michael, 2001). Attrition once more put pressure on districts which in effect increase their financial budgets. (Allen, 2005 & Benner, 2000). On the other hand, there was an estimated teacher turnover costs districts between 25 to 35 percent of employees' annual salaries, which include the resources needed to recruit and hire new teachers.

In the specific case of Ghana, Education International (2010) reported that Ghanaian Teacher Unions, Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU), under their national EFAIDS Programme which is supported by Education International recognized that the number of teachers leaving the profession each year is a challenge to achieving Education for All (EFA) in Ghana. Recognizing and identifying the cause of the problem, is the key to addressing the problem, they sponsored a survey of teachers to uncover the reason behind this attrition.

In February, 2010, a report presented by the joint bodies the results of the Commission's report which uncovered the reasons why teachers are drawn away from teaching. The Ghana Education Service estimates that 10,000 teachers leave the sector each year. With a mere 9000 newly graduated teachers every year, and an existing

teacher shortage, the Ghanaian education sector needs to do more to encourage teachers to stay in the classrooms. The survey found that teachers were attracted to leave the profession in search of better working conditions, higher salaries or to pursue further studies. While 9 out of 10 teachers surveyed reported that they hope to pursue further studies, reassuringly almost two-thirds of those indicated that they would return to the education sector. This indicates that better in-service training and professional development opportunities as well as a scaled pay-structure could prove to be good incentives to encourage teachers to continue teaching. Although, the vast majority of teachers surveyed reported their take-home pay to be insufficient, twice as many teachers called for better conditions of services than those who called for higher salaries. The report notes “while policies, strategies and measures have improved access to education and teachers’ workloads have increased, teachers are not seeing corresponding improvement in their conditions of service.

Opfer (2004) stated that the efforts of recent educational reform in the United States have focused on improving schools by retaining high quality educators; however, high teacher attrition is becoming more critical in schools across the country. Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) estimate that approximately 25% of post-secondary students who complete a teacher education program never enter the field of education, or leave within the first five years (as cited in Przygocki, 2004). Lynch (2012) noted that, excluding those who retire from the field, 500,000 teachers leave their jobs annually, costing the country approximately \$4.9 billion. That cost does not include the undocumented cost of the school’s non-monetary investment and the student’s investment in those teachers.

Of those half a million teachers, educational researchers have investigated how working in a particular school, or with a particular co-worker, can influence

one's decision to leave or remain in the profession (Hancock & Scherff, 2010). Lynch (2012) argued that the location of a school, along with certain positions, can greatly impact teacher attrition. He adds that this is the case because research has shown that urban schools have higher attrition rates than their suburban and rural counterparts. Teacher attrition is also found to be highest in the areas of Science, Mathematics, and Language (Macdonald, 1999), which has a major impact when those positions are in high poverty urban schools.

Another factor of teacher attrition is the population of students. Urban schools have higher teacher attrition rates, as do schools with high percentages of minority students (Guarino et al., 2006). Teacher attrition is higher in schools with high percentages of minority students because teachers in those schools often leave for more appealing educational opportunities (Guarino et al., 2006). Teachers need to feel comfortable with their school in terms of ethnicity, traditions, customs, and/or languages; if not, they can become less satisfied with their job, leading them to seek employment elsewhere (Macdonald, 1999). If a teacher feels out of place, uncomfortable or burned out, he/she will leave for a more appealing job, in education or another field.

While the racial makeup of a school is one indicator of teacher attrition, Lynch (2012) also stated that teachers of low achieving students tend to have higher attrition rates than their counterparts. Teachers of low achieving students have major challenges regarding student achievement, which could make the school less appealing than one where students are already achieving on or above par. In essence, teachers of low-achieving students have more ground to cover with their students than those whose students are performing at or above grade level.

Teachers of low-achieving students and urban schools have the potential to burn out much more quickly than their counterparts. Manassero, Garcia, Buades, Torrens, Ramis, Vazquez and Ferrer (2006) suggested that student motivation, personal expectations, and the idea of being evaluated can intensify teacher burnout.

Schools with induction and mentoring programs, especially collegial support, tend to have fewer problems with teacher attrition than schools without these programs (Lynch, 2012). Research has shown that effective induction and mentoring programs are essential to retaining teachers in the classroom. Parker, Ndoye, and Imig (2009) found that teachers are more likely to stay in the classroom if they are part of an induction/mentoring program and have consistent contact with their mentor. Additionally, many research studies have cited specific job-related factors that contribute to the significant teacher attrition in high-poverty schools (Certo & Fox, 2002; Ingersoll, 2004; Jacob, 2007; Smith & Smith, 2009). Certo and Fox (2002) noted that researchers have linked a number of job aspects of job satisfaction to teacher retention, and there is general agreement that all of these aspects are a part of the teacher retention puzzle. Among the predominant problems cited are: insufficient salaries for the demanding work to help impoverished students succeed academically (Certo & Fox, 2002; Ingersoll, 2004), lack of administrative support (Certo & Fox, 2002; Ingersoll, 2004), inadequate planning time as educators take on extra tasks to help students achieve (Certo & Fox, 2002; Ingersoll, 2004), and student behaviors that impede the teaching and learning process (Ingersoll, 2004; Smith & Smith, 2009). These factors need to be addressed for high-poverty, *Title I* schools to make significant improvements in recruiting and retaining teachers. Jacob (2007) noted that, in fact, problems in both recruitments and retention contribute to disparities in teacher characteristics. Many researchers have also blamed working conditions (Lynch, 2012;

Wang, 2007; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009; Greenlee & Brown, 2009) as the most compelling elements of teacher retention, along with job stressors (Andera & Bullock, 2010; Perrachione, Rosser & Peterson, 2008), teacher preparation programs (Mastekaasa, 2011; Cochran-Smith, Cannady, McEachern, Piazza, Power & Ryan, 2011), recruitment (Thompson, 2008; Cherubini, 2007; Corbell, Osborne & Reiman, 2010; Madkins, 2011), and mentoring programs (Lynch, 2012; Oliver, 2009; Thompson, 2008; Corbell, Osborne & Reiman, 2010; Leimann, Murdock & Waller, 2008; Parker, Ndoye, and Scott, 2009), or lack thereof.

2.2.4 Inadequate Salary

In any profession salary and other monetary related benefits are said to be a motivating factor for employees. In other words, inadequate salary can create dissatisfaction among employees which may cause some teachers to leave the profession or a particular school because they are dissatisfied with their salaries. Different research findings show that low salary is the most significant factor that contributes to teacher turnover (Aklilu, 1967; Bame, 1991; Crousman, Hampton & Herrman, 2006). Research conducted by Bame (1991) revealed that out of the list of eight reasons the most important factors which drive out teachers from teaching in Ghana; poor salary, lack of opportunity for promotion and low prestige in teaching were ranked to be the first three prominent reasons among which salary ranked first. And according to Bloland and Selby (1980) review of the literature, salary appears to be an important factor in the career change of male educators, but not female educators.

Moreover, research findings show that teachers salary in developing countries and even in developed countries is less than that of equally qualified professionals in other fields of specialization (Croasmun, Hampton & Herrmann, 2006; Fineman-

Nemeser ,1996; Ingersoll, 2001). Although teachers' salaries have improved in recent years, they remain low compared to those of other similarly-educated workers. Thus they leave the teaching career seeking higher paying jobs in other professions (Croasmun, Hampton & Herrmann, 2006). In Ethiopia the results of research have revealed that the inequality in salary between teachers and non-teachers with similar qualification and service years has been as critical issue for teachers dropout or turnover of teachers (Aklilu, 1967). On the other hand there is a research finding which indicate that although monetary reward is an important means of satisfying need beyond a certain satisfaction level the amount of compensation is not necessarily as important as non-monetary rewards (Antony, 2001). Teachers can have favorable feelings about teaching job on conditions that the following items are fulfilled in order of importance, getting respect, achieving recognition, receiving reinforcement, taking parts in research endeavors, being a member of a teaching team, earning grants for curriculum developments, being encouraged by principals, parents, colleagues and students Schlechy and Vance (1983).

Several special education studies suggest that salary is related to turnover. In three studies, researchers looked at the salaries earned by teachers who actually left and those who stayed. Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener and Weber (1997) report that for a national sample of special and general educators, moving and leaving decreased as salary increased. Both Miller and Pigge (1997) and Singer (1993) also found that special educators with higher-paying jobs were more likely to stay than those with lower-paying jobs.

In summary, researchers found that salary is clearly associated with attrition behavior in special education. Henke, Choy, Chen, Geis, and Alt (1997) suggest that compensation is an important consideration for current teachers weighing the

“tangible and intangible costs and benefits of remaining in the teaching field or in a particular district or school. Given the consistent findings in three studies of attrition behavior among special educators, salary should be a strategy that school systems consider to increase retention. However, there are equity implications. As Henke et al. (1997) point out, districts and schools that cannot offer competitive salaries are likely to be at a serious disadvantage when it comes to hiring and retaining teachers. It is interesting to note that over half of the nation’s large districts use financial incentives, such as cash bonuses or placement on a higher step of the salary schedule, as a *recruitment strategy* (Carlson & Billingsley, 2001). These bonuses help attract teachers, but the effects of these bonuses on the retention of teachers beyond the negotiated period remains a question.

2.2.5 Poor Working Condition

In the literature one reason given for teachers’ turnover is poor working condition of the schools (Ingersoll, 2001). Poor working conditions includes inadequate administrative support, heavy work load and inadequate instructional materials, living conditions such as housing and access to medical services and others major areas of dissatisfaction of teaching conditions (Cororen, Walker, & White, 1988). Moreover, Getachew (1999) states poor working conditions such as lack of adequate resource and time to work, lack of opportunity to participate in decision making on matters of teaching and work load were some of the conditions that interfere with their teaching and which negatively affect their profession.

Teachers have a significant contribution in the education process through implementing the designed curriculum to achieve the desired educational goal. And the successful implementation of the curriculum depends to a large extent on positive working environments that reinforce teaching job satisfaction, career commitment and

plan to remain in the profession (Weiss, 1999). Thus having Poor working conditions could lead teachers to develop negative perceptions that could become obstacles which affect teaching and weaker teachers' commitment to their work and their decision to stay or leave their profession or their school. Duffrin (1999) stated poor working conditions as reason for high turnover especially among teachers leaving within the first five years of being in the profession.

Similarly, Aklilu (1967) in his study of brain drain in elementary schools of Ethiopia stated that teachers have tremendously withdrawn due to unfavorable working conditions in the schools. Although it has been a long time since the study have been done and it's on elementary schools' poor working condition is one of the prevalent problem in secondary schools of Ethiopia until this time. Recent studies done in a different part of Ethiopia shows poor working condition such as large class size, poor physical condition and poor school facility among of the frequently mentioned cause for teachers' turnover from a particular school or from their profession (Alaezar, 2007; Motuma, 2006; Temesgen, 2005).

2.2.6 Students' Character and Disciplinary Problem

Students' character and disciplinary problem is one mentioned cause for teachers' turnover in different literatures. Students' disciplinary problem can be manifested through disruptive behavior and rowdyism (Dunham 1981 cited in Dereje, 2007). The term disruptive refers to a wide range of behavioral problems which includes students who declined to cooperate and do little or none of the class activities and overtly aggressive towards other children and teachers (Getachew, 1999). And rowdyism is a deliberate lateness for lesson, pupil disturbance in the lessons, verbal abuse and refusal to cooperate (Dereje, 2007). According to Dunham students character and disciplinary problem is one of the major factors leading to teachers'

exodus. Some teachers are dissatisfied with students' character and disciplinary problems which enforce them to quit their job or move to different school.

Especially controlling students with disciplinary problem is very difficult for less experienced teachers and this is the major reason that less experienced teachers give for leaving or changing school (Cockburn & Hayden, 2004). Studies conducted in different parts of Ethiopia (Alaezar, 2007; Darge, 2002; Temesgen, 2005) indicated that students character and disciplinary problem is one of the causes for teachers' decision to leave or change their school. Furthermore, as research finding shows the problem of students' character and discipline is worse in urban schools as compared to rural ones. According to Pollack (1979) urban high school teachers are nine times more vulnerable to violence than any other group.

2.2.7 Poor Administrative Support

The general purpose of educational administration is to ensure that the school system function properly according to preconceived purpose and plan of action (Prestine & Thurston, 1994). The school administrators have responsibility to create conducive working environment for teachers to do the job of teaching. Thus educational officials in different levels should have the quality such as the ability to communicate effectively with teaching staff followed by being supportive, appreciable, fair and consistent (Hutchings et al. as cited in Cockburn and Hayden, 2004). Educational administrators should ensure a sense of fairness and efficiency particularly over the matters of posting appointments, promotions and transfer (William, 1979). The commitment of the organization to employee can be beneficial because high levels of perceived organizational support increases job satisfaction and decrease turnover. This is because when there is a good administrative support teachers tend to stay in school. In a national study done in the USA Boe, Bobbitt,

Cook, Whitener and Weber (1997) cited in Billingsley (2004) reported that teachers who stayed in their positions were almost four times more likely to strongly perceive administrators' behavior as supportive and encouraging.

On the other hand, lack of administrative support can create an environment of helplessness frustration and employee turnover (Singh and Billingsley 1997 cited in NCTAF, 2009). A teacher is more likely to leave teaching or indicate intent to leave in the absence of adequate support from administrators. Unfair and incompetent educational matters create teachers job dissatisfaction and great psychological stress, which facilitate teacher turnover (Getachew.1999). In a study conducted in the United States on urban teachers, 25% of those who left teaching identified dissatisfaction with support from central administration and 20% indicate that dissatisfaction with principal support influenced their decision to leave (Billingsley et al. ,1995).

In Ethiopia recent research findings (Alazar, 2007; Temesgen,2005) revealed that in different parts of the country administrative problem is one of the cause for teachers to quit their job. For instance, Motuma (2006) in his study of teachers' turnover in government secondary schools of Oromia regional state revealed that administrative problems are major reason contributing to teachers' turnover. Motuma pointed out that poor performance evaluation, unnecessary intervention, lack of clear unit of command and unity of direction, unfair power given to school principals and lack of democratic school management were problems that related to administrative problem. Focusing on the support needs of early teachers is important because teachers are at risk of leaving during these years. A large body of literature in general education suggests that the optimism that beginners bring to their work is often replaced with disappointment, discouragement, and disillusionment (Gold, 1996). Novice teachers struggle with a range of problems, for example, discipline, parent

difficulties, insufficient support, apathy from colleagues, and problems with student behavior (Gold, 1996; Veenman, 1984). Special educators, like general educators, must engage in educational planning, understand the curriculum, and become familiar with school routines. Special educators have numerous additional responsibilities and concerns related to working with students with significant learning and behavioral problems. A few qualitative studies have documented the concerns experienced by beginning special educators, for example, managing paper work, making accommodations for instruction and testing, developing and monitoring IEPs, scheduling students, and collaborating with teachers, paraprofessionals, parents, and related services personnel (Billingsley & Tomchin, 1992; Boyer & Gillespie, 2000; Kilgore & Griffin, 1998; MacDonald, 2001; Magliaro & Wildman, 1990).

It is critical that teachers obtain support during the early stages of their careers when they are most likely to leave. Although early career teachers are at risk of leaving, only two special education attrition studies specifically report on the relationship between induction experiences and attrition. Whitaker (2000) investigated what beginning special educators perceive as effective mentoring programs and examined the impact of such programs on their plans to remain in special education. Although the effect size is small, perceived effectiveness of mentoring is significantly correlated with teachers' plans to remain in special education and with special educators' job satisfaction. Billingsley (2002) did not find the level and helpfulness of induction support provided to beginning teachers to be significantly related to their plans to stay; however, those with higher levels of induction support were more likely than those with lower levels of support to see their roles as manageable, believe that they can get through to the most difficult students, and believe they are successful in providing education to students with IEPs.

Billingsley and Whitaker used different types of measures and populations, which may account for conflicting results on the relationship between induction support and career intent. For example, Billingsley (2004) investigated intent to stay over an entire career span, while Whitaker (2000) looked at plans to remain in or leave special education for the following school year and in the next five years.

An important contribution of Whitaker's (2000) study is the identification of specific aspects of effective mentoring, which includes selecting a special education mentor (as opposed to a nonspecial educator), even if that special educator works in a different school. Assistance provided in the area of emotional support and the mechanics of the job are particularly important.

Billingsley (2002) and Whitaker (2000) also found that more informal contacts were perceived as more effective than formal mentor programmes. Carefully designed induction programs can help teachers cope with these challenging tasks (Rosenberg, Griffin, Kilgore, & Carpenter, 1997; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1997). Novice teachers who are given reasonable assignments, adequate feedback, and personal support are more likely to acquire the skills needed for a satisfying teaching career and to develop greater commitment to teaching (Yee, 1990).

Reducing attrition should not be the primary goal of induction programs; indeed, carefully designed induction programs would be needed even if a teacher surplus existed. Induction programmes must be designed with the primary purpose of helping teachers become more effective in supportive and carefully designed environments. If this is the primary goal and teachers develop competence and satisfaction in their work, attrition will likely be reduced. A model for providing individualized support for special educators proposed by Rosenberg and colleagues (1997) is an excellent resource for those developing induction programs. Their model

considers both the “full series of dynamic interacting factors that are specific to the individual and specific to the teaching environment and tasks that are to be accomplished” (p. 301).

2.2.8 Lack of Teachers’ Continuous Professional Development

Individuals increase their knowledge through formal schooling and on the job training which includes professional development programs. Continuous professional development is needed because most teachers have limited preparation in the academic content that students are required to learn and schools are being asked to educate a more diverse student population to higher academic standards than ever in complex and ever changing society which calls for further training (Chai, 2008). Thus increasing the content knowledge of current teaching work force require unprecedented level of on the job training. Teachers should get in service training programs established for self-fulfillment and professional advancement (UNESCO, 1996), because professional development can provide opportunities for teachers to grow professionally and increase their capacity for effectiveness.

Teachers’ professional development is a means for increasing professionalism which could have a positive influence on their commitment to and retention in their school and their profession. In a study of teacher attrition in three urban systems Manna and Tesfay (2000) found that professional development had an indirect effect on teachers’ intent to leave and a direct influence in their commitment to the profession. In line with this Aklilu (1967) noted in his study many teachers’ joined the teaching profession because they believe that it will give them a chance to further education and development. Thus while having a chance to continue professional development may increase their retention, lack of chance for professional

development may have effect on teacher decision to leave their school or their profession.

2.2.9 Low Social Status Given to Teaching and Teachers

Status plays an important role in attracting academically equipped and experienced employees and encourages them to remain in the system (Darling-Hammond, 1990). Teachers must have a status which is equivalent to their key role in the advancement of education and the significance of their contribution to the development of the individual and the society as a whole. However, teaching profession is characterized as low prestige occupation and the desire to enter the profession is mainly the absence of other real alternatives Akaleweled and Jung (1990 as cited in Dereje, 2007). Low social status noted by Kyriacu (1989 cited in Getachew, 1999) refers to teachers' perceptions that their profession is held in a low self-esteem by the wider society and this impact is reflected by the level of salaries for teachers and how teaching is discussed by the wider society.

It is widely argued in the literature that the status of teachers in most countries has declined drastically during recent decades. As Kennedy (1998) indicated as compared to the very high status of teaching in the past it has now declined to a level which can intimidate one's decision to stay in the profession. In Ethiopia as Tesfay and Demoze (2004) noted before the 1970's teaching career in Ethiopia had passed through a relatively high status and prestige. The respect they held in the society was very high; teachers were taken as the symbol of knowledge and skill are were respected by their pupil and held in high self-esteem by their community. However, over the last few decades the societies respect for teachers and their occupation appeared to have gradually worn out their social status. That teachers as a social and economic group and teaching as a profession are reported to be accorded low socio-

economic status in Ethiopia (Tesfay & Demoze, 2004). The society at large has developed low opinion of the teaching profession or to the professionals. And this low social status accorded to teachers by the society is one of the outstanding reason that teachers compelled to leave the profession (Manna & Tesfay, 2000). The dissatisfaction of teachers by the rank attributed to them by the society along with their living standard can lead teachers to quit their job in search of better alternative. As Aklilu (1967) noted, several teachers left their job because of the low prestige attached to teaching by parents, government officials and the community at large.

2.3.0 Teachers' Characteristics and Personal Factor

In the literature different research findings have tried to look into the relationship between teachers' personal characteristics like age, sex, qualification and experience with teachers' turnover.

Age: As research finding shows the age of a teacher is one of the salient predictors of the likelihood of their turnover. According to Ingersoll (2001, p.14) both younger (under 30) and older (above 50) teachers are more likely to depart than are middle age teachers. Ingersoll stated that older teachers leave teaching due to retirement and younger teachers tend to leave the profession in search of other opportunities.

Sex: Results of research concerning the relationship of sex with teacher turnover appears to be both complex and inconsistent. Some studies reported that males are more satisfied than females, others however did the opposite and still others reported no such difference.

According to Ingersoll (2001) male teachers are less likely to leave teaching than females. Similarly, Charter (1970) identified that female teachers remain in teaching less than male teachers. In line with this Motuma (2006) in his study of causes of

turnover in Oromia government secondary school described that male teachers' stay more than female teachers'.

On the contrary Wu and Wu (2001) as cited in Akalewold (2004) has indicated that higher level of satisfaction is generally found in female teachers. Similarly, Manna and Tesfay (2000) have indicated that female teachers are more likely stay in teaching than male teachers. Furthermore, in another study Bloland and Selby (1980) investigated that the impact of sex on teachers' turnover is minimal. Similarly, Chapman and Hutcheson (2001) in Alaezar (2007, p.11) have revealed no significant difference between male and female teachers in leaving or staying in teaching job.

Qualification and Experience: Teacher Attrition may also be related to teacher qualifications. The most highly qualified teachers may be are the most likely to leave, as they can easily get alternative employment (Macdonald, 1999). Research done by McClure, Weidman, Sharp (1988) shows that the more qualified teachers appear to exhibit dissatisfaction with their work as compared to less qualified teachers which can be a cause for turnover. This is because individuals with more education have more options in the job market than less qualified ones. On the other hand, McClure, Weidman and Sharp (1988) indicated that a year of experience in teaching is positively associated with job satisfaction. In their finding the researchers indicate that teachers' turnover is high in the first two years of service. On the contrary Manna and Tesfay (2000) in their study revealed that the level of qualification and work experience in teaching were not found to be significantly related with decision to stay or leave the teaching profession.

School Characteristics

Turnover studies in education have linked teacher turnover to school characteristics such as school level, region, and type.

School level: Different research findings have shown that there is a relationship between a school's level (elementary, middle or high school) and teacher turnover (Murnane et al., 1991; Shin, 1995; Weiss, 1999 cited in Chai, 2008). Weiss (1999) found that while middle school teachers had lower morale than teachers in elementary or high schools, high school teachers were more likely than their middle or elementary school counterparts to say that they planned to leave the profession. Moreover, high school teachers report lower levels of satisfaction than do elementary school teachers (Perie & Baker, 1997 cited in Chai, 2008, p.35).

School Type: In the literature different researches have shown that there is a relationship between school type and teachers turnover. Analyses of teacher turnover in National studies conducted in the United States including both private and public school teachers have shown that private school teachers, exhibit higher turnover rates than do public school teachers (Ingersoll, 2001).

School Region: Different research findings have shown that rate of teachers turnover vary in relation to the region which the school is found. In a research conducted by Smith and Ingersoll (2004) the highest teacher turnover rates have been seen at urban schools in high poverty areas. Similarly, Ingersoll (2001) found that teacher turnover is least likely in rural public schools. On the contrary, Rust and Dalin (1990) cited in World Bank Report (2007) noted that qualified teachers are often reluctant to stay in rural settings. Similarly, in Ghana, over 80 percent of teachers said they preferred to teach in urban schools (Akyeampong & Lewin 2002).

2.3.0 Teacher Retention Strategies

In general, to retain teachers in teaching Mulkeen and Crowe-Taft (2010) are of the view that attrition of this kind responds to deployment practices which are teacher family friendly or are perceived to offer greater safety, such as appointment that are near to relatives, near communities from the same ethnic group, or posting of newly qualified teachers in pairs. This would shove into obscurity all sense of isolation and loneliness. Retaining qualified teachers in the school system notwithstanding has become a nagging issue in several jurisdictions. It would have been easier for one to think that teacher retention in all developed countries such as Britain and United States of America should not be of a much problem. But whoever thought that the issue of teacher retention in that light was wrong. There are enough literatures supporting the fact that teacher retention in basic schools in America is a big challenge because of a mirage of factors. One can imagine if schools in America and other developed countries have challenges in retaining teachers in their basic schools then little would be said about a developing country like Ghana. In the remaining paragraphs the views and research findings of scholars and researchers are discussed in respect of teacher retention strategies in basic schools. This is because most of the literature is sourced from the American educational landmark.

A study conducted by Ingersoll (2001) in Boston and Dallas give a clearer picture of why teachers leave the teaching field in search of greener pastures. Ingersoll intimated that the implication of rampant changes is that not only does teaching quality matter, it matters a lot. Students are the unfortunate victims because they face several bad teachers in a row and these results in devastating odds against their success. Another scholar also indicated that at every level of education delivery, the churning staff turnover in schools has high costs. As a results, too many of the

schools are riding a downward spiral that diminishes the dreams of both the teachers and their students. The way ahead is clear stakeholders must balance the teacher retention and attrition efforts with stronger efforts to reward and retain good teachers who are in the system. Simply replacing those who leave with short-term quick fixes serves only to keep the revolving door Spinning (Brewer, 2011). With the answers to the nagging of teacher retention in schools, another pertinent question can be posed, thus, how can we reduce high teacher turnover in our schools? There has been a number of suggestions given by researchers and scholars such as Darling-Hammond (2000), Reichard and Guarino (2000), Ingersoll (2001), Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (2002) and Loeb, Darling-Hammond and Luczak (2007) allude to the situational critical strategies that could be tapped. The total views of these scholars is to help us to understand the causes of attrition. Consequently, they intimated that there are four major factors are especially that prominently influences on how and when teachers leave specific schools or profession entirely. These measures are salaries, Working conditions, preparation and monitoring support in the early years of teaching. In summary, their research findings, Loeb, Darling-Hammond and Luczak (2007) took note of the reasons for teacher dissatisfaction and the impacts this dissatisfaction has on teacher turnover. For example, they maintained that working conditions and salaries are both significant reasons for leaving, but the relative importance of these features varies depending on the specific teachers' experiences. For instance, poor administrative supports are mentioned more often by teachers leaving low-income schools where working conditions are often more stressful, while salaries are mentioned somewhat more often by teachers leaving more affluent schools.

Dilating on salaries as basis for teacher retention or teacher turnover, Ingersoll (2001) and Carroll, Reichard and Guarino (2000) indicated that there is substantial

evidence that wages are at least as important to teachers in their decision to quit teaching as they are to workers in other occupations. Teachers are more likely to quit when they work in districts with lower wages and when their salaries are low relative to alternative wage opportunities. The effects of wage differentials are strongest at the start of the teaching career, but the effects of wages on retention persist at high levels of experiences as well. Teachers in high demand fields like mathematics and science are especially vulnerable to salary differences in their decisions to remain in teaching. Such fields have especially high opportunity costs for remaining in teaching given much higher salaries in alternative occupations; the attrition rates in these fields are significantly higher than in other fields. Higher salaries also appear to attract better prepared and higher quality teachers. Student achievement may be associated with increases in teacher salaries as well (along with teacher experience and education, which are rewarded in teacher salary schedules).

Another important factor affecting teacher retention is the issue of working conditions. Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (2002) maintained that working conditions, including professional teaching conditions, play a substantial role in decisions to leave teaching in a particular school or district, and they contributed to decisions to leave the profession altogether. National survey data in the United States show that teachers who plan to remain in teaching are highly sensitive to perceptions of their working conditions. According to Ingersoll (2003), teachers may still leave the classroom occasionally, in order to either have children, and the resume after maternity leave (Murnane, Singer, Willet & Kemple, 1991). Better still some teachers leave for different jobs in the field of education (Anderson & Olsen, 2007). In another study of teacher turnover done by Ingersoll (2003), it was revealed that retirement was less cited often for leaving the teaching profession rather than “job dissatisfaction or “to

pursue another job. Again, large numbers of teachers leave the profession entirely since they see no light at end of the tunnel for change. Above all, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is often cited and rendered important in both teacher retention and attrition research (Stockard & Lehman, 2004).

A study conducted across the United States revealed that attrition rates have increased. This can be proven by the U-shaped pattern of attrition where teachers in their early and late years leave at higher rates than those in their middle years (Allen, 2005). However, Theobald and Michael (2005) in their study found that teachers who entered the profession at younger age (30) left at a higher rate than those who were 31 years and above. In another development Provasnik and Dorfman (2005) found out that those who enter teaching at a more mature age are less likely to leave than those who are younger.

Again teacher retention and satisfaction with professional development at the high school level was equally related to teacher retention at the elementary level (Centre for Teaching Quality 2004). In conclusion Allen (2005) and Ingersoll (2001) pointed out that schools with greater teacher autonomy also have lower turnover rates. Education Week (2000) reported that beginning teachers with less than five years of experience with student discipline are likely to the profession. However, Ingersoll (2001) reported that national turnover rates were lower in schools with fewer students' discipline problems Luekens, Lyter and Fox (2004) in their comparative study of teachers nationwide who changed schools or districts with teachers who left the profession entirely found out that those who moved are more analytic of their instructional leaders than leavers. Bolich (2001) further reported that 16% of the teachers who left the profession gave dissatisfaction with teaching and inadequate support from administrators as their main reason. In another study, in Texas, almost

20% reported they left teaching after their first year due to lack of professional support.

Agency (1995) in a study found out that over 26 percent of teachers receiving lower salaries left after first year of teaching as compared to 17 percent of those receiving higher salaries. However, Ingersoll (2001) concluded that teachers were likely to leave high poverty schools because of working condition than salary. A similar study done by Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin (2002) in Texas revealed that teacher turnover was more strongly related to students' characteristics than salary differentials. Bolich (2001) on a Public Agenda Survey reported that 82 percent of teachers prefer to teach in a school with strong administrative support as against 17 percent who preferred significantly higher salaries. An economic study conducted in Texas revealed that teachers would have at least 50 percent more to teach in hard-to-staff schools (Hanushek et al., 2002).

According to Brewer (1996), Baugh and Stone (1982) some studies have found that teacher attrition seems related to the demographic characteristics of schools' student populations: specifically, teacher's transfer out of high-minority schools into schools with fewer minority students. But other data suggest that much of this plight is due to the difficulties posed by the kinds of working conditions that often pertain in high-minority, low-income schools. For example, a California survey found that teachers in high-minority, low-income schools report significantly worse working conditions-including poorer facilities, less availability of textbooks and supplies, fewer administrative supports and larger class sizes and that teachers are significantly more likely to say they plan to leave a school soon because of these poor working conditions. A subsequent analysis of these data confirmed that turnover problems are

more strongly influenced by school working conditions and salary levels than by students' characteristics in these schools.

According to literature another factor that influences teacher attrition and retention in schools is “Beginning Teacher Mentoring” which is advocated by Loeb, Darling-Hammond and Luczak (2007). There is also clear evidence that beginning teachers who have access to intensive mentoring by expert colleagues are much less likely to leave teaching in the early years. There has been a number of school districts, including Cincinnati, Columbus, and Toledo Ohio and Rochester, New York which have reduced attrition rates of beginning teachers by more than two-thirds (often from levels exceeding 30% to rates of under 5%), by providing expert mentors with release time to coach beginners in their first year on the job. They indicated that these young teachers not only stay in the profession at higher rates, but they become competent more quickly than those who must learn by trial and error.

Kelly as cited by Cobbold (2007) indicated that one essential factor that can also influence element induction process offers opportunities for new teachers in early interaction that is important to commitment, development, and effectiveness in one's profession thus improves teacher retention. Chediel (2010) posits that attrition is caused by teachers pursuing further studies at the master's degree level in law, administration and Information Technology, which offer them the opportunity to other profession. Komba and Nkumbi (2008) proposed that on-the- job training and continuous professional development provides teachers with opportunities to explore new techniques and strategies to improve on teaching methods. This is a strategy to retain good teachers in the profession. In another development, Appleton, Bertram, Muthukrishna, Wedekind (2010) opines that teaching should be ranked as a highly selective profession, and countries such as Finland, Singapore, and South Korea has

given high respect to the teaching profession and has now attained scintillating results. Therefore, the bar for entering teaching should be raised so as to recruit those who love teaching.

Effective teacher induction programmes pair new teachers with a more experienced mentor who provides support and assistance to help novices navigate the difficulty of early years of teaching as they perfect their teaching skills. Well-designed induction programmes have proven their value in reducing attrition rates among new teachers.

Adding another dimension to the discourse on teacher retention, Niemann (2008) saw that within the purview of employee retention has become a key focus for human resource professionals; and companies and organizations are calculating (based on current cost per hire data) that hundreds of thousands of dollars can be saved annually by reducing employee turnover. However, this is more important in the school system.

Many ideas have been proposed by various policy makers, administrators, and union officials regarding rewards and incentives to improve teacher retention. While the intentions of these officials are good, the ideas are generally based on guesswork or at best what seems to be working in other localities. Increasing teacher salaries is often regarded as a panacea, yet it is clear that good teachers enter the field for reasons other than money. The surest way to solve the retention issues is to go directly to the source to find out reasons why teachers leave, and how they may be maintained. This information needs to be tracked consistently and recruitment, attrition and retention of experienced teachers should be emphasized as much as seeking higher numbers of new teachers to enter the profession. Teacher turnover and retirement trends, when coupled with the “highly qualified” teacher licensure

requirements of the No Child Left behind Act (NCLB), are growing issues of significant that education leaders and policy makers in our state must address.

Ingersoll (2001) stated that studies in Boston and Dallas give a clearer picture of why teachers leave the teaching field in droves for greener pastures. Ingersoll intimated that the implication of rampant teacher changes is that not only does teaching quality matter, it matters a lot. Students are the unfortunate victims because they face several bad teachers in a row and these results in devastating odds against their success. Another scholar also indicated that at every level of education delivery, the churning staff turnover in schools has high costs. As a result, too many of the schools are riding a downward spiral that diminishes the dreams of both the teachers and their students. The way ahead is clear. Stakeholders must balance the teacher preparation and recruitment efforts with stronger efforts to retain and reward the good teachers who are in the system. Simply replacing those who leave with short-term quick fixes serves only to keep the revolving door spinning (Brewer, 1996).

In proffering answers to the nagging question of teacher retention in schools, another pertinent question can be posed, thus, how can we reduce high teacher turnover in our schools? Suggestions given by researchers and scholars such as Darling-Hammond (2000a), Ingersoll (2001), Carroll, Reichard and Guarino (2000), Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (1999) and Loeb, Darling-Hammond and Luczak (2007) allude to the situational critical strategies that could be tapped. The collective view of these scholars is that to fix the problem we need to understand the cause. Consequently, they intimated that four major factors are especially prominent influences on whether and when teachers leave specific schools or the profession entirely. These measures are: salaries, working conditions, preparation and mentoring support in the early years of teaching.

In summarizing their research findings, Loeb, Darling-Hammond and Luczak (2007) took note of the reasons for teacher dissatisfaction and the impacts this dissatisfaction has on teacher turnover. For instance, they maintained that working conditions and salaries are both significant reasons for leaving, but the relative importance of these features varies depending on the specific teachers' experiences. For example, poor administrative supports are mentioned more often by teachers leaving low-income schools where working conditions are often more stressful, while salaries are mentioned somewhat more often by teachers leaving more affluent schools.

Dilating on salaries as a basis for teacher retention or teacher turnover, Ingersoll (2001) and Carroll, Reichard and Guarino (2000) indicated that there is substantial evidence that wages are at least as important to teachers in their decision to quit teaching as they are to workers in other occupations. Teachers are more likely to quit when they work in districts with lower wages and when their salaries are low relative to alternative wage opportunities. The effects of wage differentials are strongest at the start of the teaching career, but the effects of wages on retention persist at higher levels of experience as well. Teachers in high demand fields like mathematics and science are especially vulnerable to salary differences in their decisions to remain in teaching. Such fields have especially high opportunity costs for remaining in teaching given much higher salaries in alternative occupations; the attrition rates in these fields are significantly higher than in other fields. Higher salaries also appear to attract better-prepared and higher-quality teachers. Student achievement may be associated with increases in teacher salaries as well (along with teacher experience and education, which are rewarded in teacher salary schedules).

Another important variable affecting teacher retention is the issue of ‘working conditions’. Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (2002), Darling-Hammond (2000a) and Ingersoll (2001) maintained that working conditions, including professional teaching conditions, play a substantial role in decisions to leave teaching in a particular school or district, and they contribute to decisions to leave the profession altogether. National survey data in the United States show that teachers' plans to remain in teaching are highly sensitive to their perceptions of their working conditions. The proportion of teachers who report that they plan to remain in teaching as long as they are able are strongly associated with how teachers feel about the administrative support, resources, and teacher voice and influence over policy in their schools. There are large differences in working conditions that affect teachers in high- and low-wealth schools. Teachers in more advantaged communities experience much easier working conditions, including smaller class sizes and pupil loads, and much more control over decision making in their schools.

According to Brewer (1996), Baugh and Stone (1982) some studies have found that teacher attrition seems related to the demographic characteristics of schools' student populations: specifically, that teachers' transfer out of high-minority schools into schools with fewer minority students. But other data suggest that much of this flight is due to the difficulties posed by the kinds of working conditions that often pertain in high-minority, low-income schools. For example, a California survey found that teachers in high-minority, low-income schools report significantly worse working conditions—including poorer facilities, less availability of textbooks and supplies, fewer administrative supports, and larger class sizes, and that teachers are significantly more likely to say they plan to leave a school soon because of these poor working conditions. A subsequent analysis of these data confirmed that turnover

problems are more strongly influenced by school working conditions and salary levels than by student characteristics in these schools.

One other factor that influences teacher attrition and retention from/in schools is 'beginning teacher mentoring' which is advocated by Loeb, Darling-Hammond and Luczak (2007). There is also clear evidence that beginning teachers who have access to intensive mentoring by expert colleagues are much less likely to leave teaching in the early years. A number of school districts, including Cincinnati, Columbus, and Toledo Ohio, and Rochester, New York have reduced attrition rates of beginning teachers by more than two-thirds (often from levels exceeding 30% to rates of under 5%), by providing expert mentors with release time to coach beginners in their first year on the job. They indicated that these young teachers not only stay in the profession at higher rates, but they become competent more quickly than those who must learn by trial and error.

Effective teacher induction programmes pair new teachers with a more experienced mentor who provides support and assistance to help novices navigate the difficult early years of teaching as they perfect their teaching skills. Well-designed induction programmes have proven their value in reducing attrition rates among new teachers. Over a five-year period, for example, California's Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Program (BTSA) successfully reduced teacher attrition rates, among its participants by two-thirds.

The BTSA programme encourages local school districts, county offices of education, and colleges and universities to collaborate in providing new teacher induction programmes. These programmes reported collective retention rates of 96 percent for first-year teachers; over five years, the programme reduced the attrition rate to just 9 percent in contrast to 37 percent for new teachers who did not participate in such

programmes. Mentoring strategies to improve teacher retention and enhance teaching quality help boost student achievement. Connecticut's Beginning Educator Support and Training (BEST) programme, for example, which provides each new teacher with state-trained mentors during the first two years of teaching, has contributed to the state's consistently high performance on NAEP assessments. But the quality of teacher mentorship programmes varies widely. In 2001, a total of 28 states reported that they have some form of mentoring programme for new teachers, but only 10 states require mentoring programmes and support the requirement with funding. As a result, not all teachers who participate in induction programmes actually receive mentoring from a skilled veteran who has released time to coach them in the classroom (Loeb, Darling-Hammond & Luczak, 2007).

Adding another dimension to the discourse on teacher retention, Niemann (2008) saw that within the purview of employee retention a lot more social considerations are manipulated. It states that employee retention has become a key focus for human resource professionals; and companies and organizations are calculating (based on current cost per hire data) that hundreds of thousands of dollars can be saved annually by reducing employee turnover.

Nowhere is this more important than in the school system. For example, a school system with roughly 10,000 teachers and an estimated turnover rate of 20% would stand to save approximately \$500,000.00/year by reducing turnover by just one percentage point. Not only would reduce turnover provide monetary savings, more importantly, it would provide savings in our children's educational future. A motivated and experienced team of teaching professionals directly correlates with an improved educational system. Many ideas have been proposed by various lawmakers, administrators, and union officials regarding rewards and incentives to improve

teacher retention. While the intentions of these officials are good, the ideas are generally based on guesswork or at best, what seems to be working in other localities. Increasing teacher salaries is often regarded as a panacea, yet it is clear that good teachers enter the field for reasons other than money. The surest way to solve the retention issues is to go directly to the source to find out on an ongoing basis why the teachers leave, where they see the problems and where they see the successes. The information needs to be tracked consistently and compared school district by school district and school by school. Unfortunately, the cost of managing an exit interview programme is prohibitive both in terms of time and money. One solution is to utilize a web-based self-service exit interview system such as Nobscot's WebExit. With WebExit's self-service system, terminating teachers can fill out exit interview data online. The privacy that this offers lends towards more open feedback. The information is then compiled and analyzed automatically and available for reporting at any time through the Nobscot WebExit system. Data is compared across schools and districts allowing problems and successes to be pinpointed at a glance. Nobscot's WebExit Exit Interview Management System is an easy to use and easy to deploy web-based system (Niemann, 2008).

On his part Wiley (2009), indicated that teachers often leave when they encounter environments that lack professional support. Ongoing encouragement from school leadership, teacher unions and school districts is essential, especially with regard to financial incentives that promote teacher retention. With the growing influence of standardized testing to measure a child's progress, teachers feel less able to teach to anything but the test, causing dissatisfaction among these professionals.

According to the Indiana Education Department (2009), teacher quality is one of the most important predictors of a child's academic achievement, but schools in

Indiana and across the nation are struggling to employ teachers who are 100 percent qualified to instruct the subjects they are teaching, Indiana University education experts say. In addition, researchers say the recruitment and retention of experienced teachers should be emphasized as much as seeking higher numbers of new teachers to enter the profession. Teacher turnover and retirement trends, when coupled with the 'highly qualified' teacher licensure requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), are growing issues of significance that education leaders and policymakers in our state must address. In the context of the NCLB, Indiana has a prime opportunity to implement enhanced policies and systemic programs to ensure that every student is taught by a highly-qualified teacher (Kohl, 1995).

In the specific case of Ghana, Education International (2010) reported that Ghanaian teacher unions, Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU), under their national EFAIDS Programme which is supported by Education International recognised that the number of teachers leaving the profession each year is a challenge to achieving Education For All in Ghana. Recognizing that identifying the cause of the problem, is key to addressing the problem they sponsored a survey of teachers to uncover the reasons behind this attrition. In February, 2010 a report presented by the joint bodies the results of the commissions' report which uncovered the reasons why teachers are drawn away from teaching. The Ghanaian Education Service estimates that some 10,000 teachers leave the sector each year. With a mere 9000 newly graduated teachers every year, and an existing teacher shortage, the Ghanaian education sector needs to do more to encourage teachers to stay in the classroom. The survey found that teachers were attracted to leave the profession in search of better working conditions, higher salaries, or to pursue further studies. While 9 out of 10 teachers surveyed reported that

they hope to pursue further studies, reassuringly almost two-thirds of those indicated that they would return to the education sector. This indicates that better in-service training and professional development opportunities as well as a scaled pay-structure could prove to be good incentives to encourage teachers to continue teaching. Although, the vast majority of teachers surveyed reported their take-home pay to be insufficient, twice as many teachers called for better conditions of service than those who called for higher salaries. The report notes “while policies, strategies and measures have improved access to education and teachers’ workloads have increased, teachers are not seeing corresponding improvement in their conditions of service.” In moving towards ensuring quality Education for All it is not sufficient to guarantee access for children, attention needs to be paid to issues of teacher retention. With the survey complete, the emphasis moves to lobbying for policies and practical measures to facilitate teachers to continue teaching and to supporting union advocacy in favour of quality education in Ghana.

2.3.1 Impact of Teacher Attrition

Long, Ajagbe, Khalil and Suleiman (2012) opined that turnover of staffs has an enduring impact on the productivity of organisations. The authors mentioned further that when they quit, there would be an urgent need for replacement which results to the organization incurring certain amount of tangible expenditure (Achor, Imoko & Uloko, 2009; Long et al., 2012). However, such effects could range from expenses that would be incurred to replace such employee and the problem of managing culture shock of the new employees. Long et al., (2012) found that increased labour turnover means some degree of failure on the organization’s ability to establish proper human relations priorities (Anderson & Olsen, 2007). Organization customers and businesses are negatively affected and the organization’s internal

strengths and weaknesses are exposed. Newly recruited personnel are continually added to, additional expenditure in training, enlightening them on how to align with the culture of the organization and so on. Indirect impact: Barmby (2006) stresses that rising turnover could result to lingering or complete cycle. Also attrition definitely leads to reduced productivity, employees quit their jobs causing other staffs to work harder and this increases attrition. Azuka (2003) argued that this has substantial effects on an organization's strength in coordinating its operations in a competitive atmosphere.

Contemporary educational theory holds that one of the pivotal causes of inadequate school performance is the inability of schools to adequately staff classrooms with qualified teachers. A case study of a representative sample of 15 elementary schools selected was conducted by one researcher based on their geographic location, demographic characteristics and seven-year average rate of turnover. Of the 15 schools selected, only five participated in the study representing five of seven geographic clusters in the district with variation in their student demographics and teacher turnover rates. The study found correlations between student performance and turnover rates were also significant, but negative (Guin, 2004). “Schools with higher turnover rates had fewer students meeting standard on statewide assessments in both reading (Pearson Correlation: $-.306$, Sig. (2-tailed): $.000$, $n = 418$) and math (Pearson Correlation: $-.282$, Sig. (2-tailed): $.000$ ” (Guin, 2004, p. 7). These correlations between teacher turnover and student statewide assessments in reading and are only one example. Nevertheless, additional statistical analysis beyond the scope of this study is necessary in order to determine the causal effects, if any between turnover and student performance. Addressing the issue of low performing schools isolated from the source of the problem is difficult to say the least.

School districts and school boards that are genuinely concerned with improving low-performing schools should begin paying attention to teacher turnover rates at the school level (Guin, 2004).

2.3.2 Summary

In this chapter Review of Related Literature is seen as one of the major areas in research work. It looked at what study is concerned with as Attrition and Retention of basic school teachers in the K.E.E.A Municipal area in the Central Region of Ghana. The chapter was devoted to review of literature relating to teacher attrition and retention modalities. Under the Literature Review areas covered Low salary and Socioeconomic Factors of Teachers and Retention Strategies of Teachers.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design, the research method, the population under study, the sampling procedure, and the method that was used to collect and analyse data. The reliability and validity of the research instrument are addressed. Ethical considerations pertaining to the research are also discussed.

3.1 Research Approach

There are two paradigms that determine the direction of research from its beginning to the last step of writing the research report. These paradigms qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Bryman, 2001; Denscombe, 2002). The study intended to investigate and report the causes of attrition among English teachers in the KEEA Municipality, and its impact on the performance of pupils and strategies to reduce it. Therefore, this study adopted a quantitative approach where research involves statistical analysis and relies on numerical evidence to draw conclusions or hypothesis (Veal, 2006).

In this study, data on attrition, retention and demographic factors were collected in the form of numbers for statistical analysis. Burns and Grove (2001) also note that the numerical data collected in the quantitative research is used to examine the effect between variables. In the same vein, the data collected in this study was used to investigate the effect of attrition on the education directorate. Based on these views, the researcher considered the quantitative approach as most appropriate to ascertain the effect of attrition on the KEEA Directorate by using statistical analyses, and will facilitate the process towards finding answers to the research questions.

Additionally, the study employed the quantitative approach where quantifiable data were generated ascertain the link between variables.

3.2 Research Design

It is the blueprint for conducting the study that maximizes control over factors that could interfere with the validity of the findings. Designing a study helps the researcher to plan and implement the study in a way that will help the researcher to obtain intended results, thus increasing the chances of obtaining information that could be associated with the real situation (Burns & Grove 2001).

The study was descriptive because it complied with the characteristics of descriptive research as indicated by Pilot and Hunger (1996). This study was intended to investigate and report on the causes of attrition among teachers in KEEA Municipality, its impact on the performance of pupils and strategies to reduce it. According to Pilot and Hunger (1996), a descriptive survey aims at describing, observing and documenting aspect of a situation as it occurs naturally. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), a survey as an attempt to collect data from members of a population whether known or unknown in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variable which describes activities or attitude.

The descriptive survey design has advantage that it allows for a wide range of data collection strategies that would span from face to face, mail, telephone and interview to web and a combination of methods providing a quicker rate of responses and the strategy would provide cost effective means of collecting data and handling them (Denscombe, 2008).

3.3 Population for the study

Polit and Hungler (1999) refer to the population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications. The population for this study was all public basic school English teachers in the KEEA Municipality totaling 200.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedures

According to Polit and Hungler (1999), the process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population is known as sampling. The sampling size for this study was 120 who were randomly selected from teachers in basic public schools in KEEA. Multistage sampling technique involving purposive, convenience and simple random sampling techniques were used to select the respondents. Twenty participants who had already left the teaching profession were conveniently sampled as of the sample size. Together the sample size for the study was 140. The purposive sampling technique was employed to sample schools with both primary and JHS and English teachers, and the retirees. The convenience and random sampling techniques were also employed to select English teachers who were readily available at the school at the time of data collection.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

Data was collected from one main source namely data from a prepared questionnaire. A questionnaire is a printed self-report form designed to elicit information that can be obtained through the written responses of the subjects. The information could be obtained by an interview, but the questions tend to have less depth (Burns & Grove, 2001). The questionnaire was developed by the researcher, for quantitative measures

of English teachers attrition and retention in the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipality. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), a questionnaire is a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample. A questionnaire can reach large number of subjects who are able to read and write independently. There was only one set of questionnaire for English teachers and those who have left the service. The questionnaire contained two parts 1 and 2. Part 1 captured personal details through open-ended questions that enabled the respondents to have freedom of expression. Part 2 consisted of items that elicited data for the research questions raised. In part 2, there were four sections. Sections B had scales like low salary (1) poor conditions of service (2), poor working condition (3), and insufficient motivation (4). Section C consisted of scales such as continuous professional teacher development (1) Sponsoring of teachers (2) Regular in-service Training (3). Institution of teacher incentive (4) and Annual best teacher award (5). Section D was made up of scales such as a Retirement (1) Better salary or Benefits (2) pregnancy / child Rearing (3). Section E was made up of scales like Delay in recruiting new teachers (1) low performance (2). A number of closed ended questions were posed where the respondents were expected to tick on item on the Likert scale. The use of closed-ended questionnaire was easier to administer, analyse and economical in terms *of time and money (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The Likert scales were preferred to other scales because it is the simplest, but an equally efficient approach in items of graduations. According to Frankel & Wallen (2000), closed –ended questions are easy to use, score, and code for analysis on a computer. Because all samples respond to the same options, standardized data are provided. The ratings of items on the instrument were based on the same decisive factor. Similarly, teacher respondents were asked a series of closed ended questions. The questionnaire was mainly divided into two parts

(A and B). The part A consisted of items to help elicit preliminary data about the respondents. These included variables such as gender, age, professional and academic, qualification teaching experience etc. The questionnaire was preferred to other instruments because it can be judged the fastest mode of collecting data from the sample while the sample largely remained confident of their anonymity. All pieces of information used in this analysis were obtained from the questionnaire data.

3.6 Validity of instrument

Validity is establishing whether the instruments are measuring what they are supposed to measure. Validity in this sense is the degree to which the several measures of the concept accurately measure the content (Orodho, 2005). According to Borg and Gal (1989), validity of an instrument is improved through expert judgment. The candidate sought the assistance of her colleagues and the supervisor who provided expert suggestions on the face, content and construct validity of the instrument. The instrument (questionnaire) was presented to them for their comments and suggestions. The suggestions they made were used to revise the initial items that were judged to be ambiguous. The face validity was ensured by the candidate and her colleague students while content and construct validity was checked by the supervisor and lecturers in the department of Basic Education of the Faculty of Educational Studies of the University of Education, Winneba. The circuit supervisor (CS) of the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipal Directorate of Education of the Ghana Education Service also provided input to ensure the questions were framed in relation to the context of the respondents.

Questionnaire was used to gather data in this study. Questionnaire was used due to the following reasons:

1. It is relatively quick and easy to create (Walliman, 2006).

2. With questionnaire, interpretation and analysis of data would be easy as data entry and tabulation for nearly all surveys would be easily done with many computer software packages (Sociology Central, 2003).

3.8 Pre-testing of Instruments

Pre-testing a study is defined as the “miniaturized walk-through of the entire study design” (Babbie, 2008: 220). The purpose of pre-testing the instrument was to scrutinize the feasibility of the planned project to bring possible deficiencies in the measuring procedure to the fore (Huysamen, 1993). The pre-test was conducted in July 2016. Five public basic schools, Pedu M/A Basic school Aboom Zion A Basic, OLA Presby Basic school, Abakam Presby Basic school, Apewosika M/A Basic school in the Cape Coast South Metropolis were chosen for the Pre-testing of the instrument. In all 40 English teachers were selected to participate in the pre-test. The data gathered were analyzed and Cronbach’s alpha established for each of the items. The reliability of the instruments was determined using the Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS).

3.9 Validity and Reliability of Instrument

Validity is defined as a measure of truth or falsity of the data obtained through using the research instrument. It is classified as internal and external validity of the measuring instrument (Burns & Grove 2001).

According to Bell (2008), a valid instrument measures the concept in question, and it measures it accurately. There are three major classifications of estimating the validity of the data-collecting instrument, the self-evident measures, pragmatic measures and construct validity (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In this study the validity

of the measuring instrument was observed by adhering to the characteristics of all three these measures.

Self-evident measures refer to the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure, which is classified as face and content validity. In ensuring face validity, the interview schedule was subjectively assessed for presentation and the relevance of the questions. The questionnaire was given to colleagues to check whether the questions were relevant, unambiguous and clear. My supervisors further critically evaluated the instrument and suggestions made were implemented.

Content validity is the extent to which the content of the instrument appears to comprehensively examine the scope it is intended to measure (Bryman, 2004). A thorough literature review was done on teacher attrition. Information obtained during the literature review helped to set this study's research questions.

Pragmatic measures are means of establishing validity by concentrating on the practical value of the tool through concurrent and predictive validity (Brink & Wood, 1998).

Reliability is the degree of consistency with which the instrument measures an attribute (Polit & Hungler, 1996). It further refers to the extent to which independent administration of the same instrument yields the same results under comparable conditions (Creswell & Miller, 2000). The less variation the instrument produces in repeated measurements of an attribute the higher the reliability. There is also a relationship between reliability and validity. An instrument which is not valid cannot possibly be reliable (Polit & Hungler 1996).

In ensuring reliability in this study a pilot-test of the instrument was conducted. Cronbach's Alpha was used to analyse the reliability of the instrument

after the pilot test. According to Sekaran (2000), in terms of reliability, the most important figure is the Alpha value which is Cronbach's alpha co-efficient. The results revealed that the respondents were satisfied with Life scale has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported of 0.85. In this study the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.8.

3.10 Data Collection Procedure

A research permit was obtained from the Department of Basic Education, University Of Education, Winneba. The candidate reported to the offices of the Municipal Director of Education, Ghana Education Service, Elmina to get authority to proceed with the research. The candidate conducted a pre-visit to the schools and got permission from head teachers to conduct research in their schools. The candidate then arranged with the respective teachers to determined the date for the administration of questionnaires. Questionnaires were administered to teacher respondents and were given time to complete questionnaires. The questionnaires were collected when they were duly completed after one-week period.

3.11 Data Processing and Analysis

According to Orodho (2005) analysis of data starts with checking the accuracy, uniformity and completion of research instruments. The data analysis of the study was focused on the selection of items from the questionnaire. The quantitative data analysed with the help of SPSS version 22.0 for statistical analysis. Frequency analysis was employed to describe the demographic factors of the respondents. Quantitative data analysis method was applied hereby data collected was edited, coded, and entered in the statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) computer programme version 22.0, from which descriptive statistics (percentages and

frequencies) were used to analyse data. Analysed data were then presented in frequency tables. The findings of the study were reported accordingly to address the problem at stake.

3.12 Ethical Consideration

To make the research process professional, ethical consideration were made. Ethics in research is usually put in place to control the relationship between the researchers and participants and between the researchers and the fields they wish to study (Samoei, 2014). The candidate observed and adhered to some research ethics. Informed consent allows the respondents to choose to participate or not. In this study the participants' informed consent was sought when sampling the participants. The participants were given the freedom to choose to participate or not to in the study (Samoei, 2014).

Confidentiality indicates the researcher's ethical obligation to keep the respondents' identity and responses' private. Sameoi (2014) revealed that a respondent's anonymity is guaranteed when the researcher cannot identify a given response: Confidentiality and anonymity was achieved by not asking participants to write their names on the questionnaires. Research ethics require that respondents are not harmed. Harm to respondents may include embarrassment, irritation, anger, emotional outburst, stress, loss of self-esteem, sleep deprivation, negative labeling, invasion of privacy and damages to personal dignity (Kombo & Tromp, 2006).

Respondents experience psychological harm if asked to provide information on private and sensitive issues. The participants did not experience harm because no private and sensitive questions were asked. the candidate avoided research plagiarism by citing all the sources of information used in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

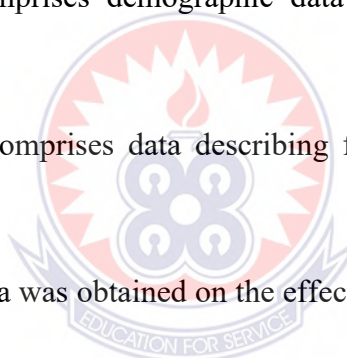
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the analysis of data followed by a discussion of the research findings. The findings relate to the research questions that guided the study. Data were analyzed to identify and describe factors of teacher attrition in the KEEA Municipality and strategies to retain teachers in the service. Data were obtained from self-administered questionnaires and completed by 120 teachers.

The questionnaire comprised four sections and data generated is presented as follows:

1. The first section comprises demographic data such as age, sex and years of teaching experience.
2. The second section comprises data describing factors of teacher attrition in the KEEA Municipality.
3. In the third section data was obtained on the effects of attrition on KEEA Education Directorate.
4. Last but not least, data was collected on teacher retention strategies



4.1 Demographic Data

Although it was not part of the purpose of the study, this set of data was intended to describe demographic variables of the sample and to assess for any influence on the research findings. In the first place, participants were asked to indicate their gender by placing a tick next to the relevant option provided (male or female). All 120 participants (100%) responded. Table 1 presents the summary of the result.

Table 1: Distribution of Gender of Participants

Sex	N	%
Male	56	46.7%
Female	64	53.3%
Total	120	100.0%

N=120 Source: (field work 2016)

According to Table 1, majority (53.3%) of the participants were females while the remaining 46.7% were males. This result implies that the number of female teachers in the KEEA Municipality is more than the male teachers. This result is supported by the 2016 staffing details from Education Management Information System (EMIS, 2016) in KEEA which indicated the percentage of basic school female teachers to be 55% as of 28th February 2016.

Participants were asked to tick the age category appropriate to them. Table 2 presents the summary of the result.

Table 2: Distribution of Age of Participants

Age category	N	%
20-29	25	20.8
30-39	36	30.0
40-49	33	27.5
50 and above	26	21.7
Total	120	100.0

N=120 Source: (Fieldwork 2016)

From Table 2, 30% of the participants were between the age 30 and 39 while 27.5% were between the age of 40 and 49. Twenty-six of the participants representing 21.7% were 50 years and above while 20.8% of them were below the age of 30.

Data on qualification of participants was also gathered. Table 3 presents the summary of the result.

Table 3: Distribution of the Qualification of Participants

Qualification	N	%
Cert A	32	26.7%
Diploma in education	41	34.2%
B.Ed.	37	30.8%
Master's in education	10	8.3%
Total	120	100.0

N=120 Source: (Fieldwork 2016)

Table 3 shows that 41(34.2%) of the participants had diploma certificates while 32 (26.7%) held Teachers' Certificate "A". Thirty-seven percent and 8.3% held Bachelor of Education Certificate and Master's Degree respectively. The result implies that a lot of Basic school teachers in the KEEA Municipality had diploma in education. This was followed by those with bachelor of education. In summary what it meant was that teachers in KEEA had high qualification because only 26.7% of them had Cert "A" even though this number may appear significant, it is encouraging.

I also deemed it necessary to gather data on participants' number of years in the teaching profession. Table 4 presents the summary of the result.

Table 4: Participants' Years of Teaching Experience

Number of Years	N	%
1-2	22	18.3
3-5	42	35.0
6-10	27	22.5
11-15	19	15.8
16-20	10	8.3
Total	120	100.0

N=120 Sources: (Fieldwork 2016)

From Table 4, out of the 120 participants, 42 representing 35% had 3-5 years teaching experience. This was followed by 22.5% with 6-10 years teaching experience. Only 10 participants forming 8.3% of the participants had 16-20 experience in the teaching profession.

4.2 Analysis of Research Questions

Research Question One: What reasons account for Basic School teachers leaving the K.E.E.A Municipality?

According to Babalola and Ayeni (2009), quality of teacher resource depends on the recruitment, retention and development of professional teachers and dedicated staff that would promote an optimum level of performance towards the provision of quality education since the ability of the schools to achieve its aim depends on the competence of its staff. Attrition is the steady decrease in membership of an organization by way of retirement, resignation or death (Goswani & Jah, 2012). In other words, attrition could be the number of employees quitting their jobs which includes both voluntary and involuntary separation. The problem of attrition is inevitable in every sector particularly in the teaching service. This is because, some teachers will retire, some others will quit for reasons that are personal, and some others will be dismissed from their jobs whilst some others are encouraged to leave the profession. Henke, et al. (2001) found that about 50 percent of those engaged as classroom instructors quit within five years period, and the best and brightest teachers are often the first to leave. This has prompted the concern of why teachers leave their jobs within few years of entering the profession. McKee (2003) emphasized that teacher attrition is an important challenge that cannot be underestimated because it results in reduction of personnel in schools.

Consequently, the study investigated some of the factors of teacher attrition involving basic school teachers in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality. A 3-point Likert scale instrument was used to elicit the responses. Table 5 presents the summary of the result.

Table 5: Participants Responses on Factors of Attrition

Items	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Poor compensation and working conditions.	90	75%	10	8.3%	20	16.7%
Change in family status	5	5.2%	-	-	115	95.8%
To pursue career opportunities other than education	20	16.7%	25	20.8%	75	62.5%
Dissatisfaction with job description	50	41.7%	12	10%	58	48.3%
Dissatisfaction with support from administrators	12	10%	-	-	108	90%
Job opportunities outside of teaching	88	73.3%	-	-	32	26.7%
Poor working environment	65	54.0%	15	12.5%	40	34%
Lack of motivation	95	79.2%	-	-	25	20.8%

N=120 Source: (Fieldwork 2016)

In respect of causes of attrition of Basic School teachers' attrition in KEEA, 95 (79.2%) indicated lack of motivation as a major cause of attrition among the basic school teachers according to Table 5. This was followed by poor compensation and working conditions (75%). Job opportunities outside of teaching as attrition factor scored 73.3%. Teacher attrition factor which received the lowest response (10%) from participants was 'Dissatisfaction with support from administrators'

This finding is in line with a finding by Hanushek, et al. (2005) especially concerning compensation and working conditions. Hanushek, et al. (2005) argued that economic satisfaction plays important roles in the life of classroom teachers. They pointed out that financial remuneration cannot be underrated as it plays a role in taking care of the family and the staff in question. Hanushek, et al. (2005) argues that

salary is a source of remuneration that is perceived as very crucial to working people, adequate reward can define one's willingness to stay on a profession, while poor remuneration could be a factor that encourages a worker to quit his current career. Boyd et al. (2007) investigates the impact of variation in pay and intention of teachers to leave. The outcome of their research revealed that teaching profession generally does not provide enough financial rewards to lower teacher attrition problems. In this situation, it cannot be denied that monetary reward is indeed among the factors that could be useful in stemming the tide of teacher attrition in schools. Hanushek et al. (2004) reports that teachers in Bangladesh are highly under-remunerated compared to their peers in other profession, the monthly pay of teachers in the country is meagre and makes it more daunting to attract people into the profession. the government and some of the teachers have taken to petty trading to augment their daily leaving. Abakpa and Agbo-Egwu (2008) surveyed some secondary school teachers in Nigeria and reported that about 62.94% took up menial jobs as strategy to adjust to economic situations since they could not cope with their required daily expenditures if they had to rely on government pay alone. Poor Working Conditions: Another important variable that results in teacher attrition is the unenviable work environment in most schools. If a working atmosphere is not conducive for teachers, not minding the staff level of commitment, there is no way such persons can efficiently carry out their duties as required. In further revelation Buckley et al. (2005) found out that large class sizes were the most indicated factor that made some teachers quit their jobs in some schools particularly in low socioeconomic communities with inadequate facilities.

Johnson et al. (2005) also found that the significance of working in safe structures and properly furnished educational institutions cannot be underestimated. They added that teachers who work in low income settings frequently lack enough

facilities to do their work as expected. Ayeni (2005) reported that in majority of public schools for instance in Nigeria, there are insufficient teaching facilities such as; Textbooks, Maps, world globes, laboratory apparatuses and other tools for instructors and learners to work and study with. This situation is not different from that of Ghana some teachers are also taxi drivers.

Bamisaye (1998) finds that many teachers discharge their duties in conditions that are unsatisfactory, this the author reports has potential to reduce self-esteem and is generally de-motivating for the personnel involved. Educational institutions in many developing countries do not possess the requisite standard of infrastructures such as pipe-borne water, electricity, staff rooms, and toilets among others. This can result in dissatisfaction of teachers and lead to attrition. Baike (2002) also indicated that disrespect from school administrators is most often cited as reason for teacher attrition as also indicated in Table 5.

Teachers posted to local communities' encounter difficulties in coping with such environment. In addition, schools located in rural areas find it difficult to retain their personnel. This is because teachers in such areas feel isolated and alienated and hence there is a high tendency to quit either entirely or go to another school situated in an urban community (Chianson, 2008). However, getting young teachers to work in rural communities is the most daunting task due to social isolation.

Apart from the 120 participants of the study who are still in the teaching profession, I also thought it prudent to investigate teachers who are out of the teaching service. Twenty (20) participants with such characteristics were conveniently sampled for this purpose. Table 6 presents the summary of the finding.

Table 6: Reasons indicated by Teachers who have left the Teaching Service in KEEA Municipality

Reasons for Leaving Teaching Profession	Number	%
Retirement	2	10%
To offer another course to improve career opportunities outside education	9	45%
Ill health	1	5%
Child rearing	2	10%
Better salary	6	30%
Total	20	100.0

N=20 Source: (Fieldwork 2016)

Reponses in Table 6 show that teachers leave the service due to varied reasons. For instance, among the 20 participants, 45% left the service to pursue other courses to improve their career opportunities outside education. This was followed by 30% who revealed that their exit from the teaching service was to seek employment with better salary. Similarly, 5 (1%) exited from the service due to ill health. The result in Table 6 largely implies that majority of teachers (75%) who have left the service did so to seek other job opportunities so that they could earn better salaries.

4.3 Research Question Two: What effect does attrition have on the KEEA Municipality?

Long et al. (2012) opine that turnover of staffs has an enduring impact on the productivity of organisations. The authors mentioned further that when they quit, there would be an urgent need for replacement which results to the organisation incurring certain amount of tangible expenditure (Long et al., 2012). However, such effects could range from expenses that would be incurred to replace such employee and the problem of managing culture shock of the new employees. The study

therefore investigated the effect of teacher attrition on teaching and learning in the KEEA Municipality. Research question was responded to by the human resource person the KEEA education directorate. Table 8 presents the summary of the result.

Table 8: Participants' Responses on Effect of Teacher Attrition on Education in the KEEA Municipality

Items	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Difficulty in recruiting new teachers	1	100%	-	-	-	-
Difficulty in achieving the educational objectives of educational policies	1	100%	-	-	-	-
Low achievement of pupils	1	100%	-	-	-	-
Financial cost in recruiting new teachers	1	100%	-	-	-	-

According to Table 8, it is indicated that the attrition of teachers in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality has the potential to adversely affect performance of pupils' academic achievement, educational objectives of the municipality and also poses a difficulty in recruiting new teachers for replacement. Researchers and policy makers often assume that teacher turnover harms student learning. There are many reasons to think it would, as institutional memory is lost and resources are spent on the hiring process. On the other hand, the organizational management literature has demonstrated that some amount of turnover may in fact be beneficial to institutions and individuals. Institutional turnover can, for example, result in better person-job matches and infusion of new ideas into organizations (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984). To this point, Jackson (2010) recently demonstrated that poor person-job matches predict migration and that teachers tend to be more productive in their new schools. The institutional benefits of turnover can be enhanced if it is the less effective

employees who leave. Yet, there exists little empirical evidence for a direct effect of teacher turnover on student achievement (Guin, 2004).

Teacher attrition has substantial impact on the financial and human resources in districts and schools as well. There are significant financial costs associated with recruiting, hiring, and training new teachers (Barnes et al., 2007). This drains resources that might otherwise be spent on program improvement or working conditions, likely harming schools with historically underserved student populations the most (Barnes et al., 2007). Underserved schools tend to have more persistent turnover so suffer higher costs in keeping their classrooms staffed; moreover, they tend to have fewer resources to begin with, making it more difficult to absorb the cost of turnover or to invest in costly program improvements. Typically, new hires in underserved schools are less qualified so require substantially more remediation and often leave before gaining necessary expertise (Darling, Hammond & Sykes, 2003).

4.4 Research Question Three: What strategies are instituted by the KEEA Municipal Education Directorate to retain teachers?

Elfers et al. (2006) indicated that managing teacher retention emphasizes on the strategies that result to employee retention that thoroughly inspire such cohesion, productivity and level of staff commitment to duty. Easley (2006) described five philosophies of retention management that could enhance personnel satisfaction, commitment and output. According to him, staff require to feel they are valued and trusted. Employers should also understand that when they partake in the growth and development plans of their employees. Babalola and Ayeni (2009) warn that deliberate and sincere efforts should be made to retain teachers to ensure continuity and effectiveness. For instance, due to a number of factors which have been listed in

Table 5 and 6, many basic school teachers with no education background are made to teach language because there are inadequate teachers in the Municipality.

The study also investigated the strategies that could help retain teachers in the service and to reduce high teacher attrition. Table 7 presents the summary of the result.

Table 7: Participants' Responses on Strategies to Ensure Teacher Retention

Items	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Establishment of clear channels of communication with teachers	93	77.5	21	17.5	6	5
2. Establishment of clear staff policy	102	85	8	6.7	10	8.3
3. Encouragement of teacher participation in decision making	89	74.2	18	15	13	10.8
4. Welcoming teacher initiative	90	75.0	-	-	30	25
5. Provision of opportunities for promotion and in-service	75	62.5	26	21.7	19	15.8
6. Assigning reasonable duties and workloads to teachers	91	75.8	9	7.5	20	16.7
7. Adequate retirement benefit	120	100	-	-	-	-
8. Medical services for teachers and their dependants	105	87.5	8	66.7	9	7.5
9. Official cars for staff	79	65.8	6	5	35	
10. End of year bonus	112	93.3	8	6.7	-	

N=120 Source: (Fieldwork 2016)

From Table 7, majority of the participants (100%) indicated that adequate retirement benefit for teachers will enable them to stay in the service. Similarly, (93.3%) indicated that giving end of year bonuses to teachers will boost their morale to stay in the service while 87.5% of the participants indicated Medical services for teachers and their dependants as also way to retain teachers in the service. In the same vein a good number of the participants (85%) indicated that establishment of clear staff policy for teachers will reduce teacher attrition. Table 6 also revealed that 62.5% of the participants believed that provision of opportunities for promotion such as in-service training.

This finding implies that compensation and other motivation factors are essential in terms of employee retention which in this study is the teacher. It is common knowledge that majority of employees' desire to stay longer on the job and to feel more knowledgeable and more answerable, at any stage on the job when they are motivated. For instance, Abakpa and Agbo-Egwu (2008) highlighted that a serious organization would motivate its staffs constantly emphasizing on performance and results. The employer supports the staff in areas of their competence, other skills they deserve to acquire and avenues to acquire such skills. In view of this, the employees obtain more knowledge as they move up the ladder on the job and take up more accountability and responsibility (Anderson & Olson, 2005).



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter seeks to present a summary of the research process as well as the key findings that emerged from the research. The chapter also contains the conclusions and recommendations that were made based on the findings of the study. Areas suggested for further research are also presented in this final chapter of the study.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The focus of the study was to find out the factors of teacher attrition in KEEA, effect of teacher attrition on both pupils' and the KEEA education directorate and the strategies to retain teachers in the service in KEEA. It sought to find out the reasons that accounts for basic school teachers leaving the K.E.E.A Municipality, the effects of teacher attrition on the academic performance of the pupils in K.E.E.A Municipality and the strategies that are instituted by the K.E.E.A Municipal Education Directorate to retain teachers.

The research design was a descriptive survey research because it affords the researcher the opportunity for the collection and analysis of responses of large sample of people to polls and questionnaires designed to elicit their opinions, attitudes and sentiments about a particular issue. The study employed the quantitative approach of data collection to out the factors of teacher attrition in KEEA, effect of teacher attrition on both pupils' and the KEEA education directorate and the strategies to retain teachers in the service in KEEA. The researcher employed the convenient sampling technique to select 140 teachers which included both teachers who are still

in the service (120) and those who have exited (20).

Questionnaire was the main instrument employed for the study. The questionnaire was divided into sections with each section focusing on one objective. Section 'A' covered items on the demographic information of the respondents. Section 'B' covered items on the reasons accounting for basic school English language teachers leaving the K.E.E.A Municipality. Section 'C' covered items on the effects of teacher attrition on the academic performance of the pupils in K.E.E.A Municipality. Section 'D' covered items on the strategies that are instituted by the K.E.E.A Municipal Education Directorate to retain teachers. The study adopted a five point likert-type scale. The response choice was; "Strongly agree" (SA) 5, "Agree" (A) =4, "Uncertain" (U) =3, "Disagree" (D) =2 and "Strongly Disagree" (SD) =1.

The responses to the questionnaires were coded and entered into the SPSS computer software for analysis and interpretation. Analysis of the responses was done in the order of the research questions. Responses from the various categories of respondents were discussed systematically in line with the research questions. Tables were created for the items to help in discussions of findings. The research questions were:

1. What reasons account for basic school teachers leaving the K.E.E.A Municipality?
2. What effect does attrition have on the KEEA Municipality?
3. What strategies are instituted by the K.E.E.A Municipal Education Directorate to retain teachers?

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

The following are the key findings of the study:

1. First, regarding causes of teacher attrition in KEEA, the research revealed that lack of motivation and poor compensation and working conditions were the main causes of teacher attrition in KEEA.
2. Second, on the issue of effect of teacher attrition in the municipality, participants mentioned the following:
 - a) Difficulty in recruiting new teachers
 - b) Difficulty in achieving the educational objectives of educational policies
 - c) Low achievement of pupils
 - d) Financial cost in recruiting new teachers
3. Third, regarding the strategies to retain teachers in KEEA, all participants (100%) indicated that adequate retirement benefit for teachers will enable them to stay in the service. A good number of teachers also mentioned end of year bonuses to teachers and improved medical services for teachers and their dependants as also ways to retain teachers in the service.

5.3 Conclusion

This study examined teacher attrition in the KEEA Municipality. From the study one of the lessons learnt is that attraction and retention of teachers in the classrooms are extremely important to enhance the performance of pupils and also to satisfy policy objectives regarding quality education in Ghana. Major factors identified in both previous and current studies which lead to teacher attrition are low compensation and poor working conditions. In Ghana teaching is perceived as a “low status” profession due mainly to the low pay and the low living standards among teachers. Findings of this study also concur with previous findings on low income of teachers among other poor working conditions.

With regard to benefits the study showed that, apart from paid study leave and social security, teachers generally do not have access to other benefits such as medical care, free or subsidized housing, child care services, and free or subsidized transport. Since paid study leave remains the only benefit available to teachers many teachers take advantage of it.

It is expected that the findings presented in this report should be useful in the formulation, implementation and review of policies aimed at reducing teacher attrition in Ghana. It is only when the right policies are implemented and appropriate measures are taken to attract and retain teachers in the classroom that Ghana can meet the goal of “Education for All”.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study the following recommendations were made:

1. The government and stakeholders in education must adopt and implement measures that in the short to medium term will reverse the current rate at which teachers are leaving the classrooms.
2. This study recommends that government and for that matter the GES adopt a policy on the retention of teachers in the classrooms.
3. It is also important that government and the GES fight the canker of low morale and high dissatisfaction among teachers. It would be difficult to retain teachers in the classroom when teachers are dissatisfied with their work as teachers. Raising the level of remuneration in the teaching profession as a whole will be a huge asset in the fight against teacher dissatisfaction and low morale.

5.5 Suggested Areas for Future Research

The study primarily focused on why basic school teachers leave the profession for other sectors or profession. This study was restricted to only government basic schools in the KEEA municipality. Similar study could also be conducted in other MMDs in Ghana. The study could also be replicated in the second cycle schools in either KEEA or other districts in Ghana. Such a study will give a more generalized view of the study in the country.



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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR J.H.S ENGLISH TAECHERS

I am a graduate (M.Phil) student of the University of Education, Winneba who is conducting a study on attrition and retention of English teachers. The questionnaire is not meant to assess you. Rather it is to help me to get the reasons why teachers leave the profession to look for other jobs and how they may want to be maintained. Consequently your responses are for educational purpose and will be treated as confidential.

Please read each question carefully. Indicate your responses by either a tick in the box or by writing in the spaces provided after the item.

Section A

Background information

Kindly provide the following information by ticking at the appropriate place.

- 1) Sex of respondent Male () Female ()
- 2) Age of respondent 20 - 29 years () 30 - 39 years () 39 - 49 years ()
50years and above
- 3) Highest Academic/ Professional Qualification: SSSCE () Certificate "A" ()
Diploma () Bachelors Degree () Masters () Other specify.....
- 4) Number of years of teaching in JHS
First year () 1-2() 3-5 years () 6-10() 11-15 years() 16-20 years ()
More than 20 years ()

SECTION B FACTORS OF ATTRITION

- Low salary ()
- Poor conditions of service ()
- Poor working conditions ()

Insufficient motivation ()

Others specify.....

SECTION C: TEACHER RETENTION STRATEGIES

6) Which of the following teacher retention measures have been put in place by the education authorities in the KEEA Municipality?

i) Continuous professional teacher development through distance education ()

ii) Sponsoring of teachers ()

iii) Regular In- service Training ()

iv) Institution of teacher incentive ()

v) Annual best teacher award ()

vi) Others

(Please specify).....

SECTION D: REASONS FOR LEAVING THE PROFESSION

7) Which of the following will be your reason for leaving the teaching profession.

i) Retirement ()

ii) Better Salary or Benefits ()

iii) Pregnancy / child Rearing ()

iv) To take courses improve career opportunities within or outside of Education ()

v) Dissatisfaction with workplace conditions

vi) Dissatisfaction with changes in job description or responsibilities

vii) Dissatisfaction with opportunities for professional development

viii) Involuntarily Transferred

ix) Dissatisfaction with support from administrators

x) Better conditions of service

Others

(Please specify).....

**SECTION E: EFFECTS OF ATTRITION ON THE EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE**

8) Which of the following effects of attrition pertains in the Municipality.

i) Delay in recruiting new teachers

ii) Low performance

