

RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN PRIVATE  
UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN THE GREATER ACCRA REGION OF GHANA

BY

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OF PhD ADULT EDUCATION DEGREE



JULY, 2015

## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation, with the exception of the identified quotations and references all of which have been duly acknowledged, is the outcome of my own research and was written entirely by myself under supervision. I further declare that no part of the materials contained herein has been presented either in part or in whole to this or any other institution for the award of any other academic qualification.

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It takes many people to put a project work like this together because the effort is widely collaborative. That's the reason why I have many people to thank for the outcome of this dissertation.

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Finally, all shortfalls and omissions are entirely mine.

University of Ghana, Legon.

July, 2015.

## DEDICATION

To God be the Glory

Great things He has done

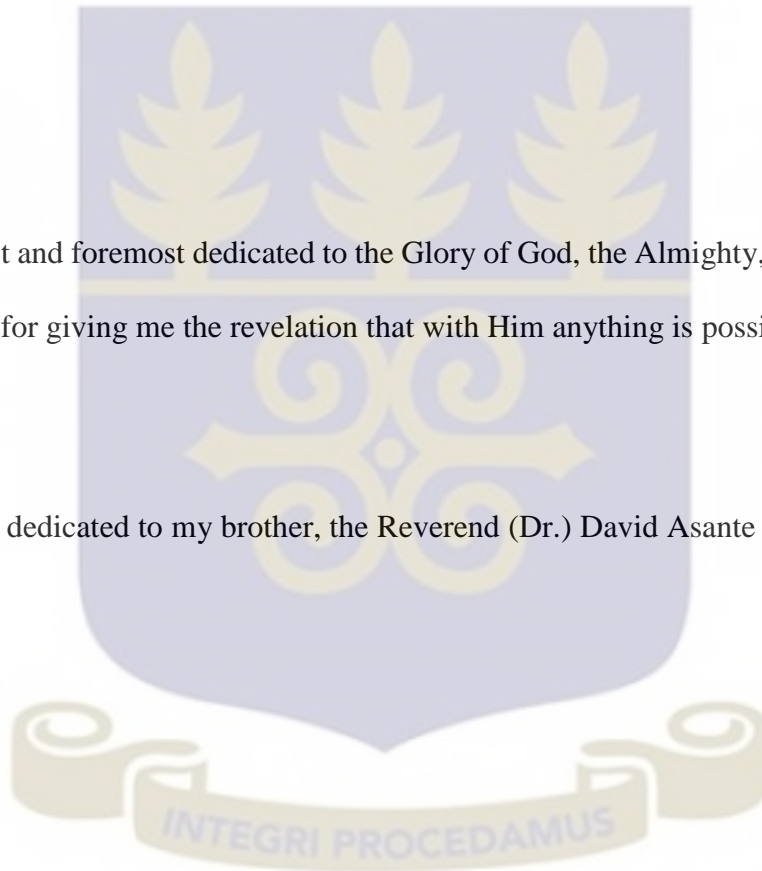
And great is our rejoicing

Through Jesus the son (of God)

Amen! Amen! Amen!

This thesis is first and foremost dedicated to the Glory of God, the Almighty, for extending his Love to me, and for giving me the revelation that with Him anything is possible.

The work is also dedicated to my brother, the Reverend (Dr.) David Asante Dartey of blessed memory.



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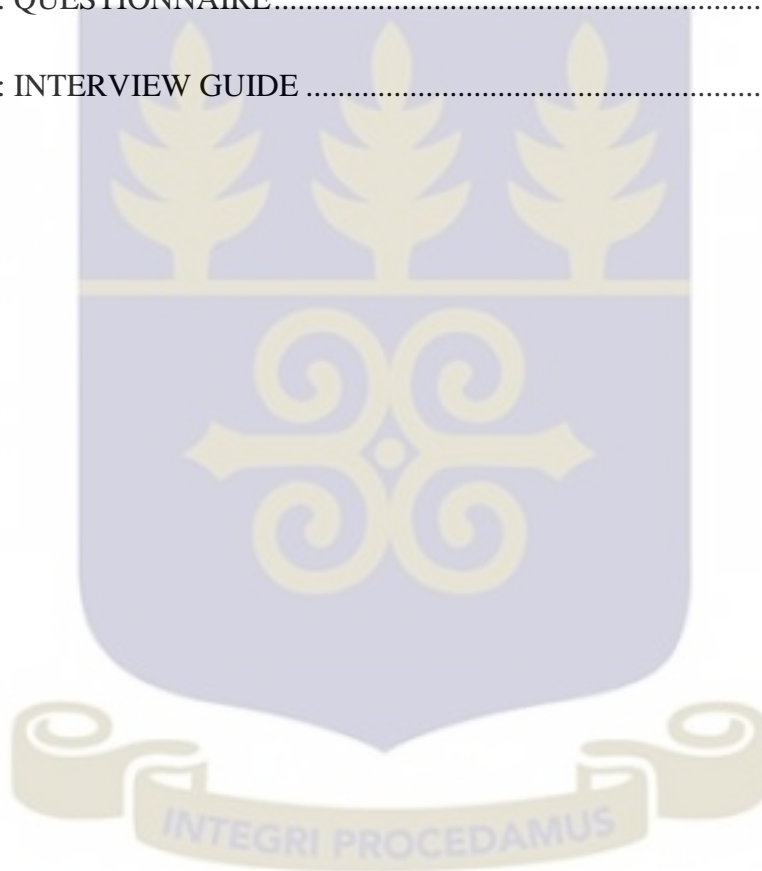
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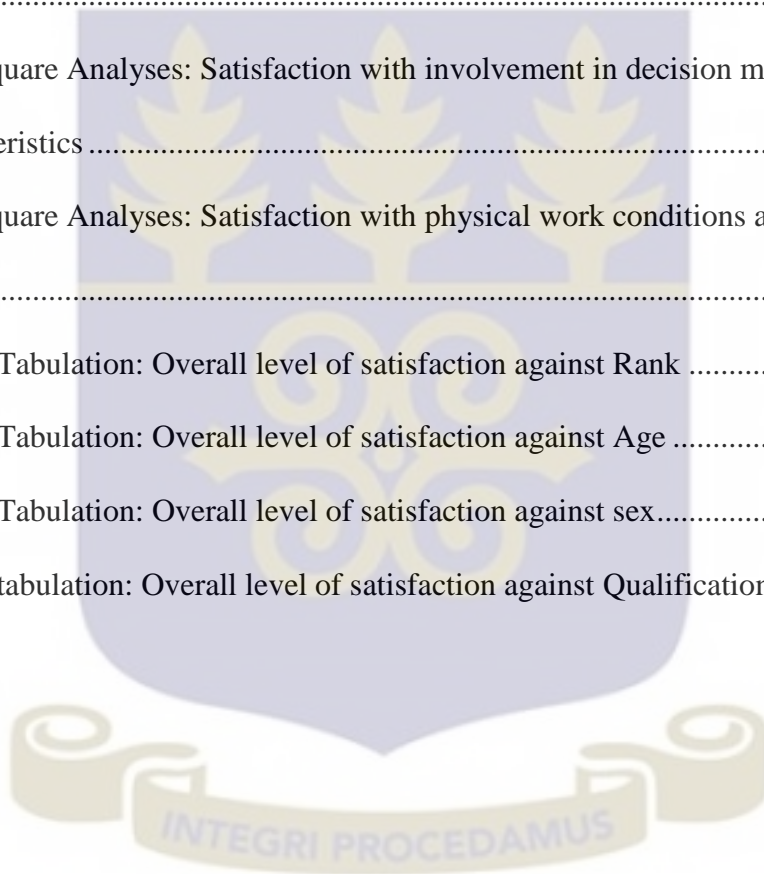
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## ABBREVIATIONS

ABBREVIATION					FULL VERSION
PUCs	---	---	---	---	Private University Colleges
HEI	---	---	---	---	Higher Education Institutions
HEFCE	---	---	---	---	Higher Education Funding Council for England



## ABSTRACT

This is a report of an investigation into the recruitment and retention of academic staff in the private university colleges in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. Basically the study aimed at:(1) determining the sources from where academic staffs are recruited into the Private University Colleges, and (2) their background characteristics.(3), find out the reasons individuals have for deciding to enter academic employment in the PUCs;(4) determine the effectiveness of the process by which the academic staff is employed into the PUCs;(5) determine the effectiveness of the motivational factors used by the PUCs to encourage the staff to top performance;(6) identify factors that lead to the satisfaction and retention of the academic staff in the PUCs. The research was conducted using a survey method of the descriptive type. It also utilized some elements of cross-sectional survey design based on the critical analytical method. A multi-stage sampling design was used to select the sample study drawn from two clusters of private university colleges formed from the thirty four (34) private university colleges in the Greater Accra Region. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used for data collection. These were personal interviews (unstructured), and questionnaire, which was the principal instrument used with a reliability value of  $R= 0.95$ . The six (6) objectives and six (6) research questions used and all hypotheses were tested using the  $\chi^2$  (chi-square), and the Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (R) at 0.05 two-tailed significant level. The findings of the study revealed that(1) The private university colleges recruit their academics from two main sources: (i) Graduate students who wish to pursue a career in academia, and (ii) employees in other organizations (public services, civil service, industry and public universities) who move from senior positions to look for academic employment in the PUCs as career changers.(2)The majority of the academic staff in the PUCs are the career changers, mostly middle-aged, majority being male, Ghanaian mostly, with majority of them holding the Master's degree rather than the doctorate degree.(3)While the graduate students enter the PUCs with intention to pursue an academic career and have opportunity to lecture at the highest educational level, the career changers usually have motive to improve their personal circumstances.(4)The process used by the PUCs to recruit their academics is largely effective, being the HR process of attracting candidates through adverts, conducting selection interviews to obtain candidates who 'fit' the positions they require, organize induction courses for the recruits and deploying them to appropriate sections and departments. (5) the motivation satisfiers or factors used by the PUCs to motivate the academics are able to motivate the academics but to different degrees only, and that (6)The retention of the academic staff depends on their overall satisfaction with the academic job itself, and with other aspects of the academic job ( mostly the academics' satisfaction with the longer-term prospects of their job (promotion prospects and job security) and also with non-pecuniary aspects of their job (e.g. their relationship with authorities, their total earnings, their involvement in decision making and their ability to use own initiative).As an outcome of this research project, recommendations were made to administrators of the private university colleges in Ghana for improvement in their efforts at recruiting and retaining highly qualified and competent academic staff in order to encourage high academic performance, and to guarantee the colleges' capability of turning out quality products that will be able to play a key role in the economic, scientific, social and human development of the country.

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

Issues of recruitment and retention of staff are crucial to every organization. The challenge of identifying and sustaining adequate pools of highly qualified, well-prepared, well-motivated, and committed academic staff to work in key positions at higher education institutions, whether public or private, large or small, has remained a difficult challenge for administrators of universities across the globe (Tettey, 2009). In Ghana, the problem has been exacerbated by the multiplicity of private university colleges that keep on mushrooming across the country over the past ten years and more.

Indeed, Ghana had experienced a dramatic escalation in the demand for higher education, beginning in the late 1960's after independence, and still continuing today. The remote cause for this was the relative success in the expansion of education by many African countries after independence that resulted in very considerable expansions in primary and secondary school enrolment (Mohamedbhai, 2008). The immediate cause was the realisation by the youth that obtaining a degree from the university was a guarantee for employment and job security (Ansere, 1978, 1979; Waniewicz, 1976).

Public universities in Ghana had found themselves struggling persistently to cope with very high demand for university education by the youth, since the beginning of the 1980s. The higher demand and increasing growth in public universities had led to over-enrollment in all the public universities in Ghana. State support for the public universities dwindled during the period, and the cash-strapped universities could not expand their academic facilities to enable them admit more students. The public university authorities in Ghana adopted several methods in attempt to solve the problem of over-enrollment because they could not cope with the effects

of the enrollment explosion on teaching, examination performance, physical facilities, institutional management, financing and quality of student life (Mohamedbhai, 2008). For instance, the public university authorities resorted to the adoption of highly selective admission processes that allowed them to offer admission to only the very best candidates, but they did not succeed because the policy denied many qualified and prospective entrants the opportunity to enter the universities. This resulted in a huge backlog of students who were ready to enter university but could not find admission. As a response to the problem, and in attempt to ease pressure that had built so much on accommodation and academic facilities in the public universities, the government of Ghana instituted a policy (LI 317 of 1996) to allow the private sector to establish and run university colleges at the turn of the century, to supplement the effort of the public universities in the country, and to improve access and equity at the universities.

The privatization of tertiary education in the country did result in the establishment of several private tertiary institutions in the country within a decade. Indeed, within a few years, Ghana had experienced an increase in access to tertiary education. This had come about as a result of various factors. There had been an expansion of public universities and the establishment of many private university colleges. In addition, a lot of emphasis was placed on tertiary education for employment purposes and this resulted more in an increase in demand for tertiary education because the system became increasingly important to individuals for enhancing their lives, through greater earning power. Many applicants who could not get admission into the public universities quickly sought admission into the private university colleges.

At the 60<sup>th</sup> New Year School (2009) of the University of Ghana, Legon, the Director of the then Institute of Adult Education, now Institute of Continuing and Distance Education (ICDE), Prof. Yaw Oheneba-Sakyi, cited a UNESCO report which stated that only 2.6 per cent of all children who enter primary schools eventually make it to the tertiary level. According to Prof. Oheneba-Sakyi, 'Today the demand for higher education in the country is very high resulting

in a rapid increase in enrollments in the various traditional universities over the last two decades. Still, Ghanaian public universities can only offer admissions to only about 35 per cent of qualified applicants'. He went on to state that privatization of higher education under the Education Sector Reform of the country's Economy Reform Programme were some of the interventions that gave private providers official permission to establish institutions of higher education, yet the challenges were enormous.

The National Accreditation Board (NAB) of Ghana is the Government of Ghana agency responsible for the regulation, supervision and accreditation of tertiary institutions in Ghana. In a recent publication, the NAB informed the general public about the category of accredited tertiary institutions which had been established in the country and the numbers in each category, as of December 2012, as follows:

- Chartered Private Tertiary Institutions : 3
- Private Tertiary Institutions Offering Degree / HND Programs : 43
- Regionally-Owned (West Africa) Tertiary Institution : 1
- Tutorial Colleges : 7
- Private Colleges of Education : 3
- Private Nurses Training Colleges : 4
- Registered Foreign Tertiary Institutions : 7

(Source: Daily Graphic; No. 19094. Friday, March 8, 2013)

The list showed that since the Government passed the legislation that allowed the establishment of private tertiary institutions by private individuals, scores of private tertiary institutions offering diploma and degree programs had come into being. By the National Accreditation Board publication, there were three (3) Chartered Private Tertiary Institutions in the country and forty-three (43) other Private Tertiary Institutions, all of them offering degree or higher diploma programs. Among the number of tertiary institutions that had been accredited by the

National Accreditation Board, there were about thirty-four of them located in the Greater Accra Region alone, and about six in the Ashanti Region. Indeed, many more of such institutions were believed to be in the pipeline and are expected to come into existence sooner or later, according to the said publication (Daily Graphic, March 8, 2013).

The foregoing account shows the importance of tertiary institutions. A tertiary institution has been described by the National Accreditation Board as a post-secondary institution of higher or further learning, or professional studies. It is expected to provide advanced academic and or professional instruction and conduct research (especially in the universities) in the sciences, social sciences, humanities and career-focused programmes (NAB, 2012). Thus, the main objectives of a tertiary institution is to train people to be capable of critical thinking, acquire knowledge and skills and also to be able to undertake research that will be beneficial for the development of the community and to advance the frontiers of knowledge. Tertiary education in Ghana consists of Universities, University Colleges, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education, and Professional Institutions. The private university colleges therefore are expected to play some very important roles in the Ghanaian economy.

A study by Tettey (2009) showed that over the last decade student enrollment in African universities had grown by significant amounts in response to the increasing demand for higher education. Tettey (2009) indicated that “while expanding access to the undeserved but eligible population was commendable, the pressure of enrollment growth on the capacity of universities to provide quality education was a serious problem, especially as it had not been met by an adequate expansion in academic staff”(p. v.).

Indeed as a result of the establishment of so many private university colleges in the country demand for academic staff in higher education has been increasing and may be expected to continue to increase given other developments that have taken place in the country or continue to take place in the country that affect academia. At the same time, recruitment and retention

problems have been growing in prominence (HEFCE, 2003) and there has been a long-standing concern that the sector faces a 'retirement bulge', as academics from the 1960s expansion reach retirement, as was anticipated in the United Kingdom, for instance. Consequently, there has been concern about the adequacy of the future supply of academics.

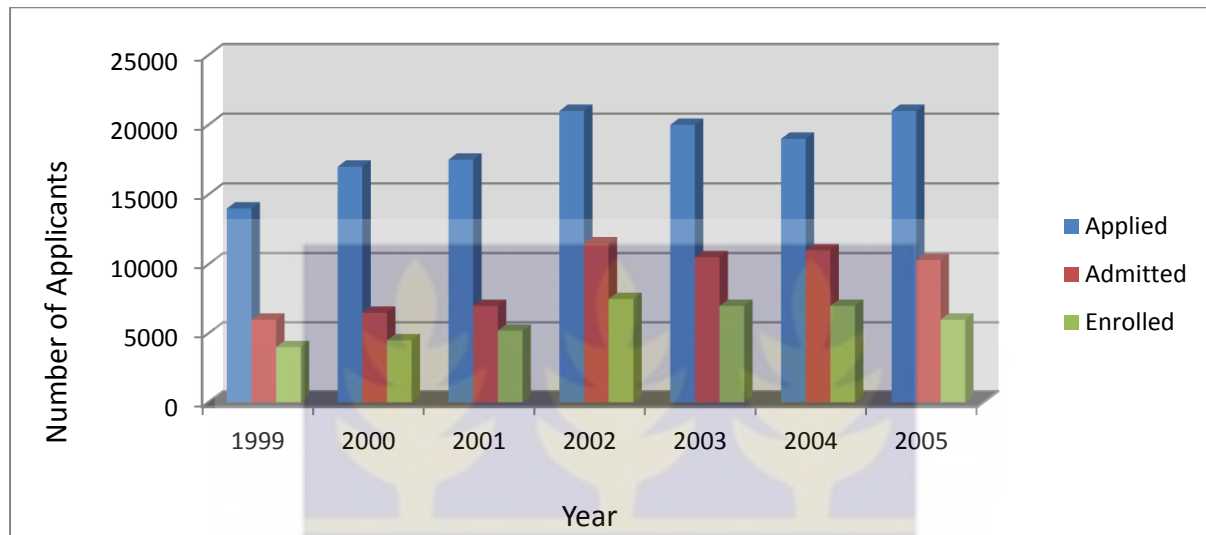
Other substantial changes in higher education in the past 10 to 20 years are likely to have contributed to the tightness of the academic labour market. For instance Polytechnics in Ghana were granted tertiary status recently, changing their funding regime, their focus and the demands on staff (Mohamedbhai, 2008). In Ghanaian higher education institutions the number of students has grown substantially, a growth which has not been matched by staff increases resulting in a large increase in the student-staff ratio. Overall, these changes have tended to alter the nature of the job, increasing the workload including that of administrative and teaching tasks. At the same time, both the salaries and status of academics are perceived to have deteriorated relative to alternative careers (Hasley, 1992; Keep et al, 1996).

A cursory observation of the situation in the Ghanaian tertiary institutions reveals that over the last decade student enrolment has grown by significant amounts, in both the public and private institutions, in response to the increasing demand for higher education (Fig. 1). Unfortunately, academic staff recruitment and retention has failed to increase in response to the increase in the university enrollment, with many leaders of the universities acknowledging the devastating impact of staff shortages on the goals of their institution, as they desperately engage in a ceaseless search for academic staff to fill vacant positions.

Although academic staff recruitment and retention remain a challenge across the globe, the situation in many African countries, including Ghana, appears to be particularly urgent. "Leaders of African universities acknowledge this devastating impact of staff shortages on the goals of institutions of higher education and warn that if something is not done very soon, the African academy will not only lose its ability to produce adequate personnel to support the

country's human resource needs but also uphold and protect the quality of intellectual life in the Africa region" (Tettey, 2009).

**Figure 1. Trends in Fresh Students Admission and Enrolment - 1999-2005**



Source: Basic Statistics; University of Ghana, 2006

In Ghana, while more and more private university colleges are being established there has not been any indication that the academic staff cadre has expanded in any way to ensure that the emerging university colleges are able to recruit the quantity and quality of academic staff they need to carry out their mandate. The difference between established staff and job vacancies offers a useful indicator of gaps in human resource capacity and the extent to which existing academic staff is able to meet an institution's needs for teaching and research output. Anecdotal evidence gathered from some of the people who were interviewed in the PUCs where the present study was conducted suggests that many of the private university colleges in Ghana do not have sufficient number of academic staff to carry out their academic missions. For example, data received from one of the leading private university colleges with enrollment of over 3,000 students on their academic staff strength, confirmed the evidence as shown in the figure below.

**Table 1. Academic Staff Strength by Qualification in a Leading PUC in Ghana**

Academic Staff Qualification	Full-Time Academic Staff
PHD	8
MPHIL	18
MBA/MPA/MA/MSC	29
BA/BSC	9
Total No. of Staff	64

This, indeed, is a major problem affecting the quality of work in these new institutions, and it should therefore be a bother not only to the administrators of the private university colleges, but also a matter of great concern to all stakeholders of these institutions.

Historically, Ghana's economy slumped during the 1980s. As a result state support for higher education declined woefully. In most cases, the salaries for academic staff in the public universities dropped significantly lower than those in the private sector. This created a big problem because both turnover and recruitment difficulties tend to be exacerbated by a relative decline in pay. Therefore, that phenomenon had a negative effect on employment in the universities. In the first place, many expatriates lecturing in the country's universities went back home; and as a result of unavailability of funds it was not possible for the universities to bring in other expatriates to teach in Ghana's universities (Mohamedbhai, 2008). Most indigenous academic staff also left their jobs to join private sector institutions or to look for greener pastures elsewhere, particularly in Nigeria and also in the eastern African countries, and even in Europe. Compounding this problem was the growing or rather aging of the academic staff workforce and the difficulties of attracting qualified new recruits. The resultant academic staff deficit that this situation created is still lingering on at present. What all these meant was that with the introduction of so many private university colleges in Ghana at the moment demand for highly qualified academic staff has gone up higher, outstripping supply while there are vacancies in many of the university colleges. With the large difference between

supply and demand, legitimate concerns also exist about the quantity and quality of applicants for faculty positions in the newly established private university colleges in Ghana.

At the moment, the private university colleges are in stiff competition with each other and as well in competition with the already established public universities for the few qualified academic staffs available in the country. For that matter each of the PUCs finds it difficult to easily obtain the full complement of academic staff it needs to operate effectively.

In fact, this situation warrants concern because the ability of existing or new institutions to absorb increasing numbers of students depends to a large extent on an adequate pool of instructors. Indeed, what is seen in most of the private university colleges in Ghana today is a deficiency of highly qualified academics they need to fill vacant positions. The situation in most of the PUCs exemplifies the report Sawyerr (former Secretary-General of the Association of African Universities) gave at a conference in Dublin City in 2008 to the effect that “one consequence of the pandemic of enrollment explosion that has taken place in recent years is the lack of commensurate growth in faculty numbers, that has resulted in teaching positions (in certain universities) being filled for the first time with only a bachelor’s degree” (Walshe, 2008).

Although private university officials usually argue that the bachelor’s degree holders were not really involved in teaching and that they were only in training to move up the ladder to regular academic staff status; yet this argument notwithstanding, there is no denying the fact that the bachelor’s degree holders are counted as academic staff in the institutions’ own publications and can reasonably be seen as having the responsibilities associated with that position. In any case, the shortage of academic staff in the universities is exacerbated if these individuals are removed from the academic staff list – and so the whole situation becomes challenging.

Besides using first degree holders, the private university colleges also do employ mostly retired academicians from the public universities; but this is also of concern because in a few years' time, as age continues to catch on them and they can no longer continue working, there is going to be a large exodus of the experienced staff of the colleges coupled with the attendant difficulties of replacing them.

Also, mostly used by the private university colleges are part-time lecturers from the public universities and from industry and other organizations. But, as far as the part-time lecturers are concerned the question of limited time and loyalty become great issues with their continued employment over extended periods. Because the part-time lecturers 'serve two masters' at the same time, it is difficult for them to devote quality time to the work they are supposed to be doing in the private universities; and they find it impossible as well to place their full loyalty at the disposal of the institution where they work only part-time. These sorts of revelations epitomize the recruitment challenges faced by the private university colleges in Ghana. Indeed most of the private university colleges do boast of only a limited number of permanent academic staff in their faculties and departments, and academic staff deficits are seen in almost all of the private university colleges.

As the situation is at the moment, it is obvious that many of the private university colleges cannot meet their academic staff needs because of unavailability of adequate numbers of highly qualified and competent academic staff on the academic job market. The quality of higher education is determined not only by the number of teachers but even more importantly by their qualifications and work. One significant measure of professorial capability for quality research and instruction is doctoral-level certification. In most of the private university colleges in Ghana there are fewer doctoral than master's degree holders. So, in attempt to ensure improved academic output in these university colleges it has been established that attempts should be made to use personnel qualified with terminal degrees or at least personnel holding researched

Master of Philosophy degrees to teach courses in the universities. However, the universities are not able to fully comply with this regulation at the moment due to the difficulties involved in obtaining a large number of highly qualified people in the system that are prepared to work in academia.

Furthermore, whilst it is obvious that the qualified academic staffs cannot be easily ‘purchased’, the other option left is for them to be ‘made’ – developed by the institutions themselves. What needs to be done, then, as alternative to hiring personnel from the job market is for the private university colleges to recruit people within the organization at a junior level or as trainees (including some of their newly qualified graduates who are talented) and rely on promotion from within and training programs to enable them improve their qualifications and skills to meet future needs. However, this is also not possible for most of the private university colleges to do at the moment since many of them have not been able to establish their own School of Research and Graduate Studies where they can train some of their talented staff at very low cost to obtain master’s and doctoral level qualifications. As well, funding difficulties also place a limitation on most of the institutions’ ability to arrange training programs abroad for their talented junior staff.

Nonetheless, cultivating the next generation of Academics should be the key to the problem of staff shortages, and current postgraduate students should be the source of the next generation of academics, as long as their numbers and quality are maintained at the master’s and doctoral levels. As Julius Okojie, Executive Secretary of Nigeria’s National Universities Commission recently lamented: “Universities in Nigeria lack the needed qualified manpower to steer the academic system to a level where they could produce quality graduates” (Nzeshi, 2008). That situation is no different from what pertains in the private university colleges operating in Ghana. Many of them have not been able to establish graduate schools, and therefore have no opportunity to train their staff to graduate levels. A few of the colleges have established

graduate schools, though, but most of them lack academic staff that are qualified to teach at that level. So they tend to depend almost entirely on staff from the public universities to teach on part-time basis. So, again, the low capacity of their graduate schools do not permit them to train a lot of graduate students to enable them solve their academic staff shortage problems.

Also, in almost all the private university colleges in Ghana, there is clear evidence that various units are operating far below their capacities. There is an indication that the institutions have difficulty recruiting staff at the same time as some of them are losing the quality staff that they have. In some instances they cannot compete with other institutions, such as the public universities or even industry because of relatively poorer conditions of service, including pay. The recruitment problem, in all cases, is compounded at the senior levels, because the services of individuals at those ranks are always in high demand in a competitive job market. And at the junior levels, low starting salary, slow career progression and lack of security create recruitment problems for the institutions.

A corollary to the retention problem faced by the private university colleges is also the fact that all these institutions have to contend with the reality of an aging professoriate. In their desperation to acquire competent academic staffs to enable them commence full operations soon after their establishment almost all these private university colleges initially engaged a number of retired academicians. Therefore, given that staff shortages are likely to be compounded by the actions of the high proportion of staff that desire or intend to leave their jobs for any reason, and the aging academic staff workforce in the near future, addressing retention issues in the private university colleges in Ghana is a key priority in the sector.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

In response to the government of Ghana's initiative, many private university colleges have been established over the past decade. The enthusiasm with which the general public accepted the emergence of the Private University Colleges appears to go on unrelentingly. This is evidenced in the manner more and more new private university colleges are being built in the country year-in, year-out. In the Greater Accra Region alone, there are thirty-four (34) private university colleges that have received accreditation from the National Accreditation Board (NAB). Indeed, this development has enabled many people to pursue university education now, although they could not have done so previously. Many employees have gone back to school as a result, entering the private university colleges to do courses to improve their knowledge, skills and competencies, and thereby obtaining university degrees to enhance their prestige and improvement in their lives. It seems reasonable therefore to suggest that at long last a solution has been found for the perennial problem of lack of access to a large majority of children of school going age in Ghanaian higher education institutions. But the question one may ask is: Are all these new private university colleges that are being established every now and then able to find the quantity and quality of academic staff that they need to recruit to enable them discharge their obligations effectively?

## 1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to establish the effectiveness of the recruitment processes of faculty in the private university colleges, and the way and means for the private university colleges to retain the faculty.

#### 1.4 Objectives Of The Study

The objectives of the study were to:

- a) Determine the background characteristics of the academic staff in the private university colleges (PUCs)
- b) Determine the sources from which academic staff in the PUCs are recruited
- c) Find out the reasons individuals have for deciding to enter academic employment in the PUCs
- d) Determine the effectiveness of the process by which the academic staff is recruited into the PUCs
- e) Determine the effectiveness of the motivational factors used by the PUCs to encourage their academic staff to top performance
- f) Determine the extent to which the PUCs are able to retain their academic staff

#### 1.5 Research Questions

The following questions guided the study:

- a) From what sources do the PUCs recruit their academic staff?
- b) What are the background characteristics of the academic staff in the PUCs?
- c) For what reasons do individuals enter academic employment in the PUCs?
- d) What is the effectiveness of the process used by the PUCs to recruit their academic staff?
- e) Are the motivational factors used by the PUCs able to achieve the intended goals?
- f) To what extent are the PUCs able to retain their academic staff?

## 1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is very significant in many respects. First and foremost, the study provided significant insights into the problem of staff shortages in the faculties in private tertiary institutions in Ghana. The private university colleges have provided opportunity to many, many people to benefit from university level education in Ghana. But the resultant expansion in student enrollment in the private university colleges had not been met by an adequate expansion in the number of competent academic staff required in the system. Thus, in most of the PUCs there is a lack of commensurate student-staff ratio, a situation that warrants concern because the ability of the new institutions to absorb increasing numbers of students depends to a large extent on an adequate pool of instructors. The study therefore highlighted the most important steps to be taken by the private university colleges to recruit, and retain competent academic staff, and to help them solve the problem of academic staff shortages prevalent in most of the private university colleges in Ghana.

The study has also made useful contributions to knowledge by reflecting on academic staff recruitment and retention problems that the private university colleges in Ghana face. The findings of the study reflect the need for the PUCs to understand and adopt the right processes for ensuring that the academic staff requirements of the institutions are identified and plans are made for satisfying those requirements, since the staffing of the institutions with the requisite numbers of highly qualified and competent academics is basic to the successful operations of the institutions.

Again, the study revealed that adopting measures to motivate and ensuring that the academic staff they attract and employ productively are committed to the institution and are also very well satisfied, will be the key to holding on to the people who can ensure that the PUCs are able to carry out their academic mandate.

Finally, the data the study gathered will constitute a basic source of information in the area of research upon which further research work can be based in the future since, as of now, many studies have surely not been conducted in this area yet, due to the fact that it is a fertile ground as far as private university education delivery in Ghana is concerned.

On the basis of the foregoing, the study done on the recruitment and retention of academic staff in the Ghanaian private university colleges, should be seen as very significant; more so, now that the PUCs have been made aware that their operations and performances are critically being watched from outside they will more likely begin to sit up.

### **1.7 Assumptions of the Study**

The study assumed that the university as a human service institution is mandated to provide quality services to its clients in the form of teaching and learning, and research. Therefore The PUCs must be able to recruit and employ academic staff that is not only highly knowledgeable but also very competent in the various dimensions of the academic work, including lecturing, organizing regular assessment and marking students' scripts, doing research, doing departmental administrative duties and also doing community services, among others.

It further assumed that the quality of higher education is determined not only by the number of lecturers but even more importantly by the qualifications of the academic staff, and that one significant measure of the staff capability for quality research and instruction, which are the main areas of focus in the universities, is doctoral-level certification, as noted by (Tettey, 2009). That is why there is cause to worry about most of the private university colleges in the country where fewer doctoral than master's degree holders work.

## 1.8 Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of this study had to do with time and other resource constraints. Due to time and financial constraints, the researcher confined the study to the Greater Accra region, while the private university colleges are scattered throughout Ghana. Even in conducting the research in the Greater Accra region, it was still not possible to cover all the thirty four accredited PUCs located in the region, and so only six PUCs were sampled to represent the entire population in a cross-sectional study. Although this was successfully done, the inability of the researcher to undertake the fieldwork in many more of the private university colleges limited the scope of the study, and may have affected some of the results.

## 1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

### 1.9.1 Academic Employment

Academic employment refers to jobs in higher education institutions (Universities and Colleges of Higher Education) whose main function was academic teaching or academic research, irrespective of the contractual terms of the job holder. Thus lecturing staff and research staff are included, but academic-related staff (e.g. technicians are not). Full-time, part-time, permanent and temporary staffs within these groups are included.

### 1.9.2 Academic Staff

The term, as used in the study, refers to lecturers and research staff that are eligible for employment in the university colleges based on their academic qualifications - terminal degree holders (PhD) or holders of the MPhil degree, as the regulations stipulate.

### 1.9.3 Academic Staff Deficits

The term is used to denote the absence of sufficient numbers of highly qualified academics working in a private university college. The presence of bachelor's degree holders on the university's staff list, in this case, is not considered since that qualification is not sufficient for a person to be employed as an academic staff. That means even if all vacancies are filled with unqualified people (first degree holders), their presence on the staff list would not disguise the serious shortage of qualified academic staff at the institution.

### 1.9.4 Staff Recruitment

Hiring and then deploying people to positions where they can perform effectively is a goal of most organisations, including the universities. Recruitment is here defined as searching for and obtaining potential job candidates in sufficient numbers and quality so that the organisation can select the most appropriate people to fill its job needs. In the context of this study, however, the term recruitment is used to incorporate selection, which implies both the provision of a pool of people eligible for selection, and the act of selecting and deploying those that are qualified to fill vacant positions.

### 1.9.5 Staff Development

It is the policy whereby the organization prefers to recruit people at a junior level or as trainees and rely mainly on promotion from within and training programs to enable them progress to higher-level roles to meet future needs.

The universities, as a matter of practice, do normally employ first degree holders who are very talented and train them until they obtain higher qualifications to enable them fill vacant positions later.

### 1.9.6 Academic mandate

Full-time faculty members or academic staff in universities are mandated or supposed to work in three different dimensions:

#### a) **Teaching**

Teaching is an extremely important duty to discharge and to measure or grade its outcome.

#### b) **Research**

Academic staffs are also supposed to be actively involved in research work by publishing in the journals and also participating in International conferences. In this way, academics, not only can improve their teaching quality, but can also update themselves as well as the students they teach about current developments in the academic environment and recent trends in the intellectual world.

#### c) **Community Service**

Community service is vital for all academic staffs, because through the services offered within the community the institution will be able to influence and court the support of the local people, and also have the opportunity to help solve problems within the community.

These three areas constitute the mandate or obligation of every university.

### 1.9.7 Higher Education

The terms higher education and tertiary education are often used interchangeably, as will be done in this report, to represent all forms of organized educational learning and training activities beyond the secondary level. These may be at universities, polytechnics, training colleges as well as in all forms of professional institutions.

### 1.9.8 Labour Turnover

Labour turnover refers to the analysis of the numbers of people who leave an organisation within a certain time period, so that calculations can be made on the number of people lost who may need to be replaced and, or the reasons why they leave so that action can be taken to improve retention rates or prompt further investigations to establish underlying causes and identify remedies.

### 1.9.9 Employee Retention

Employee retention refers to the ability of an organisation to retain its employees.

### 1.9.10 Organization of the Study

This study is organized into six chapters. The first chapter focuses on the general introduction to the study. Here, the problem is introduced with relevant background information, the objective of the study as well as definitions of key terminology, and the significance of the study.

The second chapter reviews relevant literature in the field of recruitment and retention of staff in various types of organizations, especially in human service organizations. It further details the recruitment and selection process and also considers several theories of motivation which are seen as key to retention challenges in organizations. The chapter finally discusses strategies of recruitment and retention that can be adopted by organizations to solve their recruitment and retention problems.

The third chapter involves the study methodology and discusses the study population, sampling procedures, and tools for data collection and analysis.

Next, chapter four focuses on the presentation of results and analysis of data; while chapter five is devoted to the discussion of the main findings of the study. Finally the last chapter, six, deals with the summary of the work done, the conclusion(s) from the study and recommendations that are made towards meeting the challenges of the private university colleges in recruiting and retaining their academic staffs. Suggestions are also made towards further study in the area of the research.



## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter is devoted to the review of literature related to the study. The literature review is divided into three sections, A, B, and C. The first section, A, deals with motivation theory, which forms the theoretical framework for the research. The concept of organization commitment and work engagement is also discussed in this section. The second section, B, deals with the related literature. Thus, literature pertinent to the study of recruitment and retention of staff in organizations are reviewed; and the third section, C, examines previous evidences in academia generally, that may have some influence on the current research.

#### **SECTION A: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework**

#### **2.2 Motivation Theory**

The theoretical framework adopted for this study was based on motivation. Studies in motivation explain that all organizations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high level of performance through people. This means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and, importantly, the work they do and the organization context within which they carry out that work. The aim is to develop motivation processes and a work environment that will help to ensure that individuals deliver results, or in the context of this study, to ensure that the academic staff continue to stay with the institution for a long time in accordance with the expectation of management, at the same time as they perform at a very high level.

Motivation refers to the forces leading to behavior directed toward the satisfaction of some need. For example, hunger and the desire for financial security are needs, or motives. Behavior

designed to satisfy these needs is motivated behavior, or motivation. Not all behavior is motivated, though; some behavior is habitual, or reflexive. That is why a working knowledge of both aspects of behavior is required for effective management. Successful managers need to understand the causes of behavior patterns. According to Armstrong, (2009, p.253) psychologist Kurt Lewin (1951) offered such an explanation in his field theory. Lewin believed that people were influenced by a variety of factors and that this established their behavior patterns. Lewin's field theory suggested the following formula:

$$B = f(P,E)$$

Lewin's equation states that behavior (B) is a function of factors (f) related to the person (P), as well as the environmental factors (E) that affect the individual. The recognition of both personal and environmental influences was an important contribution to the understanding of behavior and motivation by management.

Armstrong (2009) explains that motivation theory examines the process of motivation. It explains why people at work behave in the way they do in terms of their efforts and the directions they are taking. It describes what organizations can do to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities in ways that will further the achievement of the organization's goals as well as satisfying their own needs. It is also concerned with job satisfaction – the factors that create it and its impact on performance.

In understanding and applying motivation theory, the aim is to obtain added value through people in the sense that the value of their output exceeds the cost of generating it. This can be achieved through discretionary effort. In most, if not all, roles there is scope for individuals to decide how much effort they want to exert. They can do just enough to get away with it, or they can throw themselves into their work and deliver added value. Discretionary effort can be a key component in organizational performance.

The process of motivation tends to be much more complex than many people believe, though. People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals. It is therefore not right to assume that one approach to motivation fits all. Motivational practices are most likely to function effectively if they are based on proper understanding of what is involved.

A person's motivation can range from weak and wavering to strong and steady. Experience in the world has shown that the stronger and steadier the motivation is, the more likely any undertaking can be successful. Indeed, strong motivation is crucial to success, generally. However, motivation is not just 'given', it can, to a large degree, be created and reinforced by the way any undertaking is implemented and managed (Moctar and Oxenham, 2001:9). It is therefore assumed that in the current study, the level of incentives that the private university college authorities would give to the academic staff, for instance, will enable the academic staff to give of their best.

### **2.3 Types of Motivation**

Motivation at work can take place in two ways (Armstrong, p. 253). First, people can motivate themselves by seeking, finding and carrying out work (or being given work) that satisfies their needs or at least leads them to expect that their goals will be achieved. Secondly, people can be motivated by management through such methods as pay, promotion, praise, etc. Thus, as noted by Armstrong (p.254) there are two types of motivation, as originally identified by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1957):

#### **2.3.1 Intrinsic Motivation**

The self-generated factors that influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. These factors include responsibility (feeling that the work is

important and having control over one's own resources), autonomy (freedom to act), scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement.

### 2.3.2 Extrinsic motivation

What is done to or for people to motivate them? This includes rewards, such as increased pay, praise or promotion, and punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay, or criticism.

According to Armstrong (2009), extrinsic motivators can have an immediate and powerful effect, but it will not necessarily last long. The intrinsic motivators, which are concerned with the 'quality of working life' are likely to have a deeper and longer-term effect because they are inherent in individuals and not imposed from outside.

Thus, while intrinsic motivation explains the way individuals attempt to motivate themselves from within, extrinsic motivation concerns rewards that are externally administered, or given to someone by another person.

For the purpose of this research, however, a critical look will be given to Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (under the Content Theories of Motivation). Similarly, a critical look also will be given to Herzberg's theory of motivation.

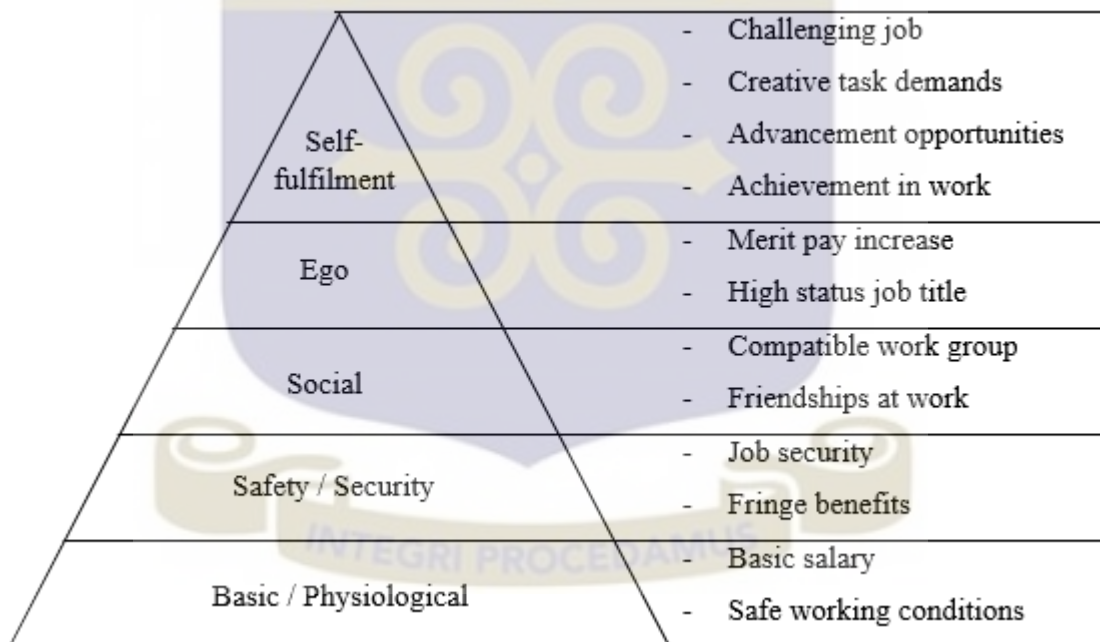
## 2.4 Content Theories of Motivation

### 2.4.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

In his Hierarchy of Needs theory, Abraham Maslow (1970), cited in Schermerhon (1996:146-147), indicates that human needs involve five levels and these are

physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization needs. Physiological, safety and social needs concerns form the lower order needs and the esteem and self-actualization needs form the higher order needs. While the lower order needs involve concerns for a person’s social and physical well-being, higher-order needs represent a person’s desire for psychological development and growth. The theory is based on two underlying principles. The first is the deficit principle, which states that a satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior. Thus, people act to satisfy “deprived” needs, those for which a satisfaction “deficit” exists. The second is the progression principle which states that the five needs exist in a hierarchy of prepotency. A need at every level only becomes activated once the next lower-level need has been satisfied.

**Figure 2. Hierarchy of Needs Theory (Source: Maslow, 1970)**



According to Maslow (1970), people try to satisfy the five needs in sequence. They are expected to advance step-by-step up the hierarchy in their search for need satisfactions. Along the way, a deprived need dominates individual attention and determines behavior until it is satisfied. Then the next higher level need is activated, and progression up the hierarchy occurs. At the level of self-actualization, the deficit and progression principles

cease to operate. The more this need is satisfied, the stronger it grows. To Maslow, a person should continue to be motivated by opportunities for self-fulfillment as long as the other needs remain satisfied.

#### 2.4.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

The two-factor theory (also known as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and dual factor theory) states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg, individuals are not content with the satisfaction of lower-order needs at work; for example, those needs associated with minimum salary levels or safe and pleasant working conditions. Rather, individuals look for the gratification of higher-level psychological needs having to do with achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and the nature of the work itself. This appears to parallel Maslow's theory of a need hierarchy. However, Herzberg added a new dimension to this theory by proposing a two-factor model of motivation, based on the notion that the presence of one set of job characteristics or incentives leads to worker satisfaction at work, while another and separate set of job characteristics leads to dissatisfaction at work. Thus, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on a continuum with one increasing as the other diminishes, but are independent phenomena. This theory suggests that to improve job attitudes and productivity, administrators must recognize and attend to both sets of characteristics and not assume that an increase in satisfaction leads to decrease in unpleasurable dissatisfaction.

The two-factor theory distinguishes between:

- Motivators (e.g. challenging work, recognition for one's achievement, responsibility, opportunity to do something meaningful, involvement in decision making, sense of importance to an organization) that give positive satisfaction, arising from intrinsic conditions of the job itself, such as recognition, achievement or personal growth.
- Hygiene factors (e.g. status, job security, salary, fringe benefits, work conditions, good pay, paid insurance, vacations) that do not give positive satisfaction or lead to higher motivation, though dissatisfaction results from their absence.

According to Herzberg, hygiene factors are what cause dissatisfaction among employees in a workplace. In order to remove dissatisfaction in a work environment, these hygiene factors must be eliminated. There are several ways that this can be done but some of the most important ways to decrease dissatisfaction would be to pay reasonable wages, ensure employees job security, and to create a positive culture in the workplace. Herzberg considered the following hygiene factors from highest to lowest importance: company policy, supervision, employees' relationship with their boss, work conditions, salary, and relationships with peers. Eliminating dissatisfaction is only one half of the task of the two factor theory. The other half would be to increase satisfaction in the workplace. This can be done by improving on motivation factors. Motivation factors are needed to motivate an employee to higher performance.

## 2.5 Implications of Motivation Theories for Work Situations

Content theories, such as those of Maslow and Herzberg, stress the satisfaction of needs. Content theories attempt to explain those specific things that actually motivate the individual at work. These theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative

strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy these needs. Content theories place emphasis on the nature of needs and what motivates.

There is the assumption that everyone responds in much the same way to motivating pressures and that there is, therefore, one best way to motivate everybody. These theories provide a prescriptive list which managers can follow in an attempt to increase productivity.

Process theories (expectancy and goal), on the other hand, change the emphasis from needs to the goals and processes by which workers are motivated. They attempt to explain and describe how people start, sustain and direct behaviour aimed at the satisfaction of needs or reduction of inner tension. They place emphasis on the actual process of motivation. Process theories also attempt to identify major variables that explain behaviour, but the focus is on the dynamics of how the variables are interrelated in explaining the direction, degree and persistence of effort. The major variables in process models are incentive, drive, reinforcement and expectancy.

## **2.6 Ways to Motivate Staff**

### **2.6.1 Job satisfaction**

Drucker suggested that employee satisfaction comes about through encouraging - if need be, by 'pushing' - employees to accept responsibility. There are four ingredients to this:

- careful placement of people in jobs
- high standards of performance in the job
- providing the worker with the information needed to control his/her own performance
- opportunities for participation in decisions that will give the employee managerial vision

### 2.6.2 Designing rewarding jobs

Herzberg defines three avenues to improve staff satisfaction and motivation:

- a) **Job enrichment** - is a deliberate, planned process to improve the responsibility and challenge of a job. A job may be enriched by:
- giving it greater variety (although this could also be described as job enlargement)
  - allowing the employee greater freedom to decide how the job should be done
  - encouraging employees to participate in the planning decisions of their managers
  - ensuring that the employee receives regular feedback on his/her performance

Koontz and Weihrich identify four elements that are necessary to make job enrichment a practical and worthwhile exercise:

- There has to be a clear understanding of people's needs
- If the purpose of enrichment is to increase productivity then it must be shown, at the earliest stage that workers will share in the benefits.
- People need to be treated as individuals and involved in the planning and introduction of the schemes
- Staff like to feel that managers are committed to the success of the program. So managers must be seen to be enthusiastic and take part in all stages

- b) **Job enlargement** - is an attempt to widen jobs by increasing the number of operations in which a job-holder is involved.

Job enlargement is a 'horizontal' extension of an individual's work, whereas job enrichment is a 'vertical' extension.

A well-designed job should involve the following:

- giving the individual scope for setting his/her own work standards and targets
- giving the individual control over the pace and methods of working
- varying the work to encourage efficiency
- giving the individual a chance to add his/her comments about the design of the product or of the job
- providing feedback to the individual about his/her performance

- c) **Job rotation** - is the planned rotating of staff between jobs to alleviate monotony and provide a fresh job challenge. It can take two forms:

- An employee might be transferred to another job after a longish period (2-4 years) in an existing job to give a new interest and challenge
- Job rotation might be regarded as a form of training where employees learned about a number of different jobs by spending six months or one year in each job before being moved on

- d) **Participation**

There are certain guidelines that must prevail if participation is to be effective in raising motivation:

- The participation must be seen as part of a continuing approach not just a 'one-off' exercise
- Staff must be fed the results of their involvement as quickly and fully as possible

- The participation must be genuine
- People must have the ability, equipment and will to be involved

e) **Quality of work life**

The intention is to improve all aspects of work life, especially job design, work environment, leadership attitudes, work planning and industrial relations.

It is an all-embracing systems approach, which usually starts with a joint management and staff group looking at the dignity, interest and productivity of jobs.

## 2.7 **The Importance of the Reward System**

### 2.7.1 **Money**

Whether in the form of wages, piecework, incentive pay, bonuses, stock options, company paid insurance or any of the other things given to people for performance, money is important. Economists, accountants and many managers tend to regard money as a prime motivator. However, behavioural scientists tend to place it low on the scale of motivators. Probably, neither view is correct as an all-embracing approach; it depends on the individual.

Money in the form of pay is a powerful motivator, which can be related to the motivational theories that have been examined.

In discussing money as a motivator it is necessary to recognise its effects at two levels.

- Money in absolute terms, as an exact amount, is important because of its purchasing power. It is what money can buy, not money itself that gives it value
- Money is also important as an indication of status

### 2.7.2 Incentive Schemes

There are several features which are unique to money as a motivating force and which can affect workers in different ways:

- Money is more important to people who are seeking to establish an initial standard of living rather than those who have arrived.
- Schumacher defined his principle of motivation in which he states that if all efforts by the company are devoted to doing away with work by automation and computerisation, then work is a devalued activity which people put up with because no other way has been found of doing it. People would therefore be working just for money.
- Most organisations use money not as a motivator, but simply as a means of ensuring adequate staffing.
- The need for apparent fairness encourages the use of salary grades and hence comparability of earnings.
- Financial incentives operate with varying strengths for different people in different situations.

Much research has shown that money is not a single motivator or even a prime motivator.

## 2.8 The Concepts of Organizational Commitment and Engagement

The conceptual framework of the study is represented by the concepts of organizational commitment and work engagement. Commitment and engagement are closely related concepts.

The two terms are frequently used interchangeably, and some people refer to engagement as an alternative, more up-to-date and, may be a more sophisticated term for commitment.

Organizational commitment and job engagement are examined in this study because independently or in association with one another, they can significantly affect organizational performance.

### 2.8.1 Meaning of Organizational Commitment

According to Armstrong (2009, p.271) commitment, as defined by Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) refers to attachment and loyalty. It is the relative strength of the individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization. It consists of three factors:

- A strong desire to remain a member of the organization,
- A strong belief in and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organization.
- A readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization

An alternative, although closely related, definition of commitment emphasizes the importance of behaviour in creating commitment. Armstrong notes that as Salancik (1977) put it 'Commitment is a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions to beliefs that sustain his activities and his own involvement'. (Armstrong, p. 272).

Three features of behaviour are important in binding individuals to their acts: the visibility of the acts, the extent to which the outcomes are irrevocable, and the degree to which the person undertakes the action voluntarily. Commitment, according to Salancik, can be increased and harnessed 'to obtain support for organizational ends and interests' through such ploys as participation in decisions about actions.

### 2.8.2 Meaning of Engagement

As defined by Chiumento (2004), “engagement is a positive, two-way, relationship between an employee and their organization. Both parties are aware of their own and the other’s needs, and the way they support each other to fulfill those needs. Engaged employees and organizations will go the extra mile for each other because they see the mutual benefit of investing in their relationship”.

The Hay Group, as reported by Thompson (2002), refers to their concept of ‘engaged performance’ which is “about understandings why working for a particular organization is attractive to different kinds of individuals.....And which looks at the hearts and mind reasons why people work for you”

The Royal Bank of Scotland (2005) defines engagement as the state of emotional and intellectual commitment to the group and lists its components as satisfaction (how much I like working here), commitment (how much I want to be here), and performance (how much I want to and actually do to achieving results). (Armstrong, 2009, p.272).

The Institute of Employment Studies (Bevan et al, 1997) defines engagement as ‘‘A positive attitude held by the employee towards the organization and its values. An engaged employee is aware of business context, and works closely with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organisation’’ (Armstrong, p272).

These definitions, all overlap with the traditional definition of commitment as being concerned with attachment to the organization.

Armstrong (2009, p281) states that engagement takes place when people are committed to their work. They are interested, indeed excited, about what they do. But job engagement can exist even when individuals are not committed to the organization,

except in so far as it gives them the opportunity and scope to perform and to develop their skills and potential. They may be more attached to the type of work they carry out than to the organization that provides that work, especially if they are knowledge workers.

### **2.8.3 Theories of Work Engagement and Organizational Commitment**

Employee engagement has received a great deal of attention in the last decade in academic circles. However, the concept remains new with relatively little academic research conducted on it (Saks, 2006) especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. According to Catlette and Hadden (2001), employee engagement refers to the positive, affective psychological work-related state of mind that leads employees to actively express and invest themselves emotionally, cognitively, and physically in their role performance. Engaged employees work harder, are more likely to go above the requirements and expectations of their work (Lockwood, 2007). Engaged employees also tend to feel that their work actually positively affects their physical and psychological well-being (Crabtree, 2005). Researchers commonly describe engaged employees as individuals who are highly energized and resilient in performing their job; put their heart into their jobs with persistence and willingness to invest effort; exhibit strong work involvement along with experiencing feelings of significance, enthusiasm, passion, inspiration, pride, excitement, and challenge from their work; and fully concentrate and immerse themselves in their work without noticing that time passes (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Employee engagement has also been linked to customer satisfaction, retention, and loyalty (Bates, 2004), and also to a good relationship with co-workers (Vance, 2006). Employee engagement has become an overnight sensation in the business consulting world for its statistical relationship with variables such as job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and employee commitment (Little & Little, 2006) and

in effect productivity and profitability (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Managers want to improve staff engagement because this tends to lead to staff performance, reduces staff turnover and improves the well-being of employees (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

The concept of employee engagement is currently in its early stage hence the need for more rigorous studies (Saks, 2006) to unearth its theoretical underpinnings and practical application, along with its antecedents and consequences. However, very little is known about the relationship between employee work engagement and commitment. Employees also commit themselves to specific individuals, including their spouses, children, parents and siblings, as well as to their employers, co-workers, supervisors and customers (Vance, 2006).

Little and Little (2006) defined Organizational commitment as the degree to which an individual identifies with an organization and is committed to its goals. Whiles employee engagement refers to an employee's loyalty and commitment to his work, organizational commitment refers to an employee's loyalty and commitment to his organization. Dessler, (1999) sees organizational commitment as crucial to individual performance in modern organizations that require greater self-management than in the past when employees were constantly supervised. While Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) used types of bond between employees and organization to classify organizational commitment into attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) operationalized three facets of commitment based on three distinct themes: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to an employee's personal attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization he works, resulting in a strong belief in the organization's goals and values and exerting extra effort on behalf of the organization. Because commitment requires an investment of time as well as physical, mental and emotional energy, most people make

them with the expectation of reciprocation or to reciprocate a benefit. That is, people assume that in exchange for their commitment, they will get something of value in return such as favors, affection, gifts, attention, goods, money and property. Traditionally, employees and employers have made a tacit agreement: In exchange for workers' commitment, organizations would provide forms of value for employees, such as needed resources, secure jobs and fair compensation. Reciprocity affects the intensity of a commitment.

When an entity or individual to whom someone has made a commitment fails to come through with the expected exchange, the commitment erodes (Vance, 2006). Most private organizations in Ghana especially educational institutions are known to offer several incentives and packages than the public organizations. These include free transportation, mortgage facilities, free medical care and free teacher's child education (Acheampong, 2003). The present study will provide the private university colleges in Ghana with indigenous empirical evidence needed to develop and implement policies and practices that foster engagement and commitment in their workforce.

Recent dramatic changes in the global economic downturn have had significant implications for commitment and reciprocity between employers and employees and thus for employee engagement. It has spurred today's organizations to compete by cutting prices and costs, refining business processes and delay ring management structures. Scarce and costly resources have prompted organizations to reduce resources given to employees to perform their tasks (Vance, 2006) hence reducing employee engagement and consequently organizational commitment. Organizations in Ghana, being susceptible to the global economy, also suffer this fate, hence the need to investigate the interaction of dedication to one's job (employee engagement) and to one's organization (organizational commitment). Unfortunately, in spite of the importance and complexity

of these issues, there is very limited good quality literature on this interaction (Sak, 2006), especially in the Ghanaian context.

#### **2.8.4 Theoretical Underpinnings of the Concepts of Organisational Commitment and Employee Work Engagement**

The Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) and the social exchange theories (Blau, 1964) can be employed to explain the relationship between employee engagement and organizational commitment. The JD-R theory assumes that every job is associated with certain physiological or psychological costs or demands. Job resources on the other hand are the physical, psychological and organizational aspects of a job that help employees' complete tasks successfully and achieve work goals; as those resources provide basic human needs and foster employee growth, learning, and development (Houkes, Janssen, Jonge, & Nijhuis, 2001). According to the JD-R theory, job resources may shield the impact of job demands on the employee (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Social exchange theory (Blau) assumes that employees tend to act in ways that reflect their organizations or managers treatment (Agyemang, 2013). Employees are motivated to compensate beneficial treatment from the employer by acting in ways valued by the organization (Agyemang, 2013; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001). An assumption underling the social exchange theory is the idea of reciprocity where both parties adopt a contingent approach; one party gives benefit based on previous contribution by the other party therefore adhering to the norm of reciprocity and reciprocation of benefit (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007).

Combining these two theories, employees who are engaged actively in their organization may have a feeling of obligation to respond and repay the organization in some form (Cohen, 2000). One way for employees to repay their organization is to increase

commitment to the organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Hence an employee with a high level of engagement is likely to be committed to the organization that provides him with the necessary resources to complete his tasks. Favorable reciprocal exchanges are thus expected.

#### **2.8.5 Recent Study on Employee Work Engagement and Organisational Commitment**

A study undertaken in Ghana recently by two Ghanaians, Collins Badu Agyeman and Samuel Batchison Ofei on the topic “Employee Work Engagement and Organisational Commitment: A Comparative Study of Private and Public Sector Organisations in Ghana,” and published in the European Journal of Business and Innovation Research (Vol. 1, no. 4, pp. 20-33, December 2013), made interesting findings that shed light on this present study.. The researchers found a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and employee commitment. They also found that employees of private organisations have a higher level of employee engagement and organizational commitment than employees in public organisations in Ghana, and also that long- tenured and short-tenured employees did not differ in commitment levels. The researchers pointed out the need for employees to be provided with resources needed to perform their work roles since it has consequential effects on employee engagement and organizational commitment.

In the present study, it is going to be interesting to find out what factors, if any, stimulate the commitment and engagement of the academic staff that are employed in the private university colleges in Ghana and, also, whether the academic staff in the private university colleges in Ghana are more engaged and more committed to their institutions than those in the public universities in Ghana. It is also going to be interesting to find out

the ways and means by which management in the PUCs can foster the commitment of their academic staff in their institutions in order to get the most out of them.

### 2.8.6 Link between Employer Practices and Employee Engagement

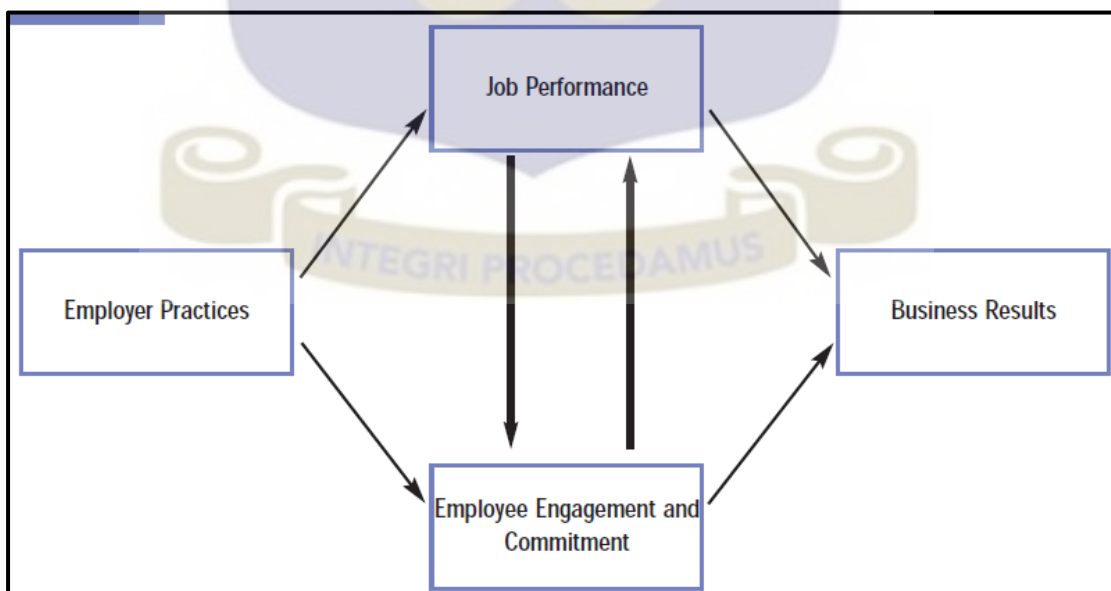
What employer practice foster employee engagement, and how does an engaged workforce generate valuable business results for an organization?

Vance, (2006) explains that the process starts with employer practices such as job and task design, recruitment, selection, training, compensation, performance management and career development.

Such practices affect employees' level of engagement as well as job performance.

Performance and engagement then interact to produce business results. Figure 3 depicts these relationships.

**Figure 3. Employer Practices Ultimately Influence Business Results**



According to Vance (2006), to engage workers as well as to benefit from that engagement, the organization must invest in its human resource practices. But just like

other investments, the organization needs to consider potential return—that is, to devote resources to the HR practices which it believes will generate “the biggest bang” for its investment “buck.” There’s need to weigh how much engagement and commitment the company wants – and at what cost.

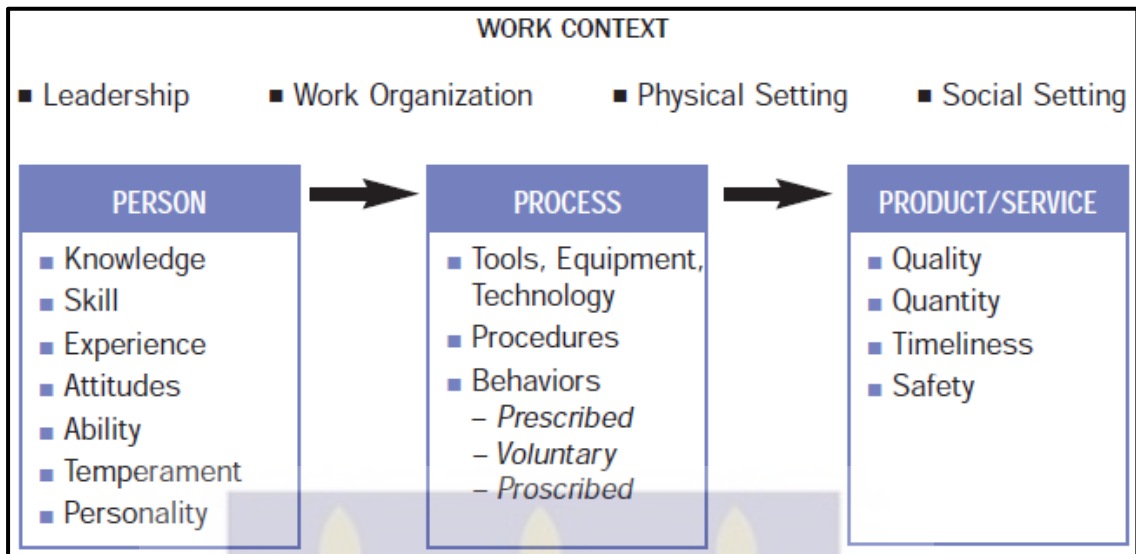
### 2.8.7 The Job Performance Model

The model is used to review employer practices that affect employee engagement and commitment and to examine ways to manipulate these “levers” to influence engagement or commitment or both. To shed light on the ways in which employer practices affect job performance and engagement, Figure 4 presents a simple job performance model.

As the Figure suggests, a person possesses attributes such as knowledge, skills, abilities, temperament, attitudes and personality. He or she uses these attributes to accomplish work behaviours according to organization-defined procedures, by applying tools, equipment and/or technology. Work behaviours, in turn, create the products and services that make an organization successful. Work behaviours are classified into three categories:

- those required to accomplish duties and tasks specified in a job description (*prescribed* behaviours),
- “extra” behaviours that an employee contributes for the good of the organization (*voluntary* behaviours), and
- behaviours prohibited by an employer (*proscribed* behaviours, including unexcused absenteeism, stealing and other counterproductive or illegal actions)

Of course, job performance occurs in an organizational context, which includes elements such as leadership, physical setting and social setting

**Figure 4. A Job Performance Model**

Employers naturally want to encourage workers to perform prescribed and voluntary activities while avoiding proscribed ones. To achieve these goals, organizations use a number of HR practices that directly affect the person, process and context components of job performance. Employees' reactions to these practices determine their levels of engagement and commitment.

#### 2.8.8 Fostering Job Engagement and Employee Commitment in an Organization

In the opinion of Vance (2006), there are other similar practices such as the following that also foster job engagement and employee commitment in an organization:

##### a) Job Enrichment

Researchers have recently begun investigating job enrichment and its relationship with organizational practices. Research findings show that managers who provide enriched work (jobs that are high in meaningfulness, variety, autonomy and co-worker trust) stimulate engagement and enthusiasm in their employees. In turn, engagement and enthusiasm encourage employees to define their work roles broadly. Broad definition of job roles then enhances workers' willingness to take

ownership of challenges that lie beyond their immediate assigned tasks. These challenges inspire people to innovate and to solve problems proactively. Thus, job enrichment promotes engagement in both prescribed and voluntary work activities.

Although somewhat preliminary, these studies shed valuable light on how the organization might design work to inspire employee engagement and commitment.

“The Power of Job Enrichment” captures key lessons from this research.

**Figure 5. The Power of Job Enrichment**



**b) Recruitment**

The messages the organization conveys while seeking to attract job applicants also can influence future employees’ engagement and commitment. If the organization has designed jobs specifically to engage employees, then they’ll want to ensure that recruiting advertisements extol these positions’ attractive features – such as challenging work assignments, a highly skilled team

environment or minimal supervision. Applicants who notice and respond to these ads will more likely be motivated by these features. On the other hand, when the organization is seeking to recruit candidates from inside the organization for desirable jobs, they can enhance their engagement (by maximizing the person-job fit) *and* commitment (by providing growth and advancement opportunities to employees in return for their loyalty). If the organization recruits from outside when qualified internal candidates are available, the organization may unwittingly suggest to current employees that the company is not willing to reciprocate their commitment. Existing staff may then begin questioning their own commitment to the organization.

By contrast, external candidates are recruited to both the job and the organization. For these candidates, care must be taken to ensure that recruiting messages highlight attractive job features, organizational values and commitment reciprocity. That is, in return for performance and dedication, your company offers competitive pay and benefits, flexible work hours and learning and career advancement opportunities.

Prospective employees usually have multiple commitments, and organizations inevitably have to compete with those commitments as they try to attract candidates. Most people find it easier to make a new commitment when it is compatible with their other obligations. For example, you boost your chances of recruiting a highly qualified candidate who is a single parent if you offer flexible work hours, family health benefits and on-site day care.

“Recruiting for Engagement and Commitment” captures some of the principles discussed above.

**Figure 6. Recruiting for Engagement and Commitment**

Recruiting for Engagement and Commitment	
<p><b>TO INCREASE ENGAGEMENT</b></p> <p>Target qualified applicants likely to find the work interesting and challenging.</p> <p>Send recruiting messages that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Extol attractive job features to enhance person-job fit.</li> <li>■ Encourage those who are not suited to the work to self-select out.</li> </ul>	<p><b>TO INCREASE COMMITMENT</b></p> <p><i>For internal candidates</i></p> <p>Send recruiting messages that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Emphasize possibilities of movement/promotion to more desirable jobs, to signal commitment reciprocity.</li> </ul> <p><i>For external candidates</i></p> <p>Send recruiting messages that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Highlight the employer side of the exchange relationship-pay and benefits, advancement opportunities, flexible work hours.</li> <li>■ Recognize and address commitment congruence (e.g., work-family balance.)</li> <li>■ Encourage those who are not suited to the organization to self-select out.</li> </ul>

### c) Employee Selection

Once your recruiting efforts produce a pool of promising job candidates, you select among them to fill available positions. When you select the right individuals for the right jobs, your new hires carry out their work more smoothly and experience fewer performance problems. The result? Greater enjoyment of – and engagement in – the job.

To enhance engagement through the selection of employees, it is important to identify those candidates who are best-suited to the job and also to the organization’s culture. Candidate’s assessment methods that have obvious relevance to the job in question – for example, asking interviewees what they know about the role and having them provide work samples. Most candidates will view these techniques more positively than tests with less apparent relevance, such as personality and integrity assessments.<sup>29</sup> Successful candidates feel good about having “passed the test,” and see your company as careful and capable for

having selected them. A positive initial impression of an employer encourages growth of long-term commitment.

Figure 7 summarizes lessons from this section.

**Figure 7. Effective Employee Selection**

Effective Employee Selection	
<p><b>TO INCREASE ENGAGEMENT</b></p> <p>Select the right individuals for the right jobs.</p> <p>Choose candidates most likely to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Perform prescribed job duties well.</li> <li>■ Contribute voluntary behaviors.</li> <li>■ Avoid proscribed activities</li> </ul>	<p><b>TO INCREASE COMMITMENT</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Present selection hurdles that are relevant to the job in question. Successful candidates will feel good about surmounting such hurdles to land the job.</li> <li>■ Create a positive first impression of your company's competence. You will set the stage for growth of long-term commitment.</li> </ul>

#### d) Training and Development

Training and development can serve as additional levers for enhancing engagement and commitment. For new hires, training usually begins with orientation. Orientation presents several important opportunities—including explaining pay, work schedules and company policies. Most important, it gives employers a chance to encourage employee engagement by explaining how the new hire's job contributes to the organization's mission.

Through orientation, employers are able to describe how the company is organized, and introduce the new employee to their co-workers, give the new employees a tour of the area where they will be working and explain safety regulations and other procedural matters. In short, employers foster person-organization fit—vital for developing productive and dedicated employees.

Through training, employers help new and current employees acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their jobs. And employees who

enhance their skills through training are more likely to engage fully in their work, because they derive satisfaction from mastering new tasks. Training also enhances employees' value to your company as well as their own employability in the job market. In addition, most companies offer higher wages for skilled workers, to compensate them for their greater value and to discourage turnover.

Figure 8 summarizes key lessons from this section.

**Figure 8. Training and Development**



**e) Compensation**

Like the HR practices discussed above, compensation can powerfully influence employee engagement and commitment. Some compensation components encourage commitment to employers, while others motivate engagement in the job. It is possible to stimulate one and not the other, though it's generally better to foster both. For example, a company that offers a strong performance incentive system but no retirement plan will probably realize exceptional engagement from its workers; however, they may eventually commit themselves to another company that does offer a good retirement plan. Meanwhile, an organization that

offers generous retirement benefits but a traditional seniority-based pay grade system may have committed employees; however, these workers might deliver pedestrian performance as they bide their time until retirement. In designing compensation plans, it is therefore needful to consider employee engagement and commitment strategically.

Compensation consists of financial elements (pay and benefits) but may also include nonfinancial elements or perks, such as on-site day care, employee assistance programs subsidized cafeterias, travel discounts, company picnics and so on. The most effective compensation plans support the organization’s strategic objectives. For example, a well-designed compensation plan gives an organization a competitive advantage, as it helps to attract the best job candidates, motivate them to perform to their maximum potential and retain them for the long term. Incentive pay, also known as pay-for-performance, can directly influence employees’ productivity (and thus their engagement) as well as their commitment to the organization (as workers learn to trust that they will be rewarded for good performance).

“Strategic Compensation” distills some of the key points from this section.

**Figure 9. Strategic Compensation**

<b>Strategic Compensation</b>	
<p><b>TO INCREASE ENGAGEMENT:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ <b>Equitable exchange:</b> Motivates willingness to contribute prescribed and voluntary performance, and to avoid proscribed behaviors.</li> <li>■ <b>Pay-for-performance:</b> Focuses employees’ attention on incentivized behaviors—but be careful how you define performance.</li> <li>■ <b>Competency-based pay:</b> Fosters acquisition of knowledge and skill and enhance employees’ performance, satisfaction and self-efficacy.</li> </ul>	<p><b>TO ENHANCE COMMITMENT:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ <b>Competitive pay:</b> Attracts qualified job candidates.</li> <li>■ <b>Equitable exchange:</b> Signals commitment reciprocity.</li> <li>■ <b>Flexible benefits and perks:</b> Facilitates commitment congruence (e.g., work-family balance matched to stage of life).</li> <li>■ <b>Retirement and seniority-graded pay plans:</b> Fosters long-term commitment and identification with your company.</li> </ul>

## SECTION B: Related Literature

### 2.9 Related Issues Affecting Employee Recruitment and Retention

#### 2.9.1 People Resourcing

‘People resourcing, according to Armstrong (2009), is concerned with ensuring that the organisation obtains and retains the human capital it needs and employs them productively. It is also about those aspects of employment practice that are concerned with welcoming people to the organization and, if there is no alternative, releasing them.’

People resourcing are therefore seen as a key part of the HRM process. The HRM approach to resourcing, however, emphasizes that matching resources to organisational requirements should focus on radical changes in thinking about the competencies required in the future to achieve sustainable growth and to achieve cultural change. Thus HRM resourcing policies address two fundamental questions:

- a) What kind of people do we need to compete effectively, now and in the foreseeable future?
- b) What do we have to do to attract, develop and keep these people?

In fact the philosophy behind the HRM approach to resourcing is that it is people who implement the strategic plan. As Quinn Mills (1983) has put it, the process is one of “planning with people in mind”. Therefore the integration of business and resourcing strategies is based on an understanding of the direction in which the organisation is going and of the resulting human resource needs in terms of:

- numbers required in relation to projected activity levels;
- skills required on the basis of technological and product/market developments and strategies to enhance quality or reduce costs

- plans for changing the culture of the organisation in such areas as ability to deliver, performance standards, quality, customer service, team working and flexibility which indicate the need for people with different attitudes, beliefs and personal characteristics

However, these factors are strongly influenced by the type of business strategies adopted by the organisation and the sort of business it is in. Resourcing strategies exist to provide the people and skills required to support the business strategy, but they should also contribute to the formulation of that strategy. For example the ability of management within the organisation to handle any new situation and the quality of management in the organisation will be important considerations.

### 2.9.2 **Human Resource Planning**

Human resource planning determines the human resources required by the organisation to achieve its strategic goals. As defined by Bulla and Scott (1994) it is “the process for ensuring that the human resource requirements of an organisation are identified and plans are made for satisfying those requirements”. Human resource planning is based on the belief that people are an organisation’s most important strategic resource. It is generally concerned with matching resources to business needs in the longer term, although it will sometimes address shorter term requirements. It addresses human resource needs both in quantitative and qualitative terms, which means answering two basic questions: first, how many people, and second, what sort of people? Human resource planning also looks at broader issues relating to the ways in which people are employed and developed in order to improve organisational effectiveness. It can therefore play an important part in strategic human resource management.

As Quinn Mills (1983) indicates, human resource planning is ‘a decision –making process that combines three important activities: (1) identifying and acquiring the right number of people with the proper skills, (2) motivating them to achieve high performance, and (3) creating interactive links between business objectives and people-planning activities’. In situations where a clear business strategy does not exist, human resource planning may have to rely more on making broad assumptions about the need for people in the future, based on some form of scenario planning. Alternatively, the planning process could focus on specific areas of activity within the organisation where it is possible to forecast likely future people requirements in terms of numbers and skills; for example, scientists in a product development division.

Human resource planning is said to consist of three clear steps:

- Forecasting future people needs (demand forecasting)
- Forecasting the future availability of people (supply forecasting)
- Drawing up plans to match supply to demand.

Thus, human resource planning today is more likely to concentrate on what skills will be needed in the future, and may do no more than provide a broad indication of the numbers required in the longer term, although in some circumstances it might involve making short term forecasts when it is possible to predict activity levels and skills requirements with a reasonable degree of accuracy.

Finally, it is important to note that human resource planning takes place within the context of the organization. The extent to which it is used, and the approach adopted, will be contingent on the extent to which management recognizes that success depends on forecasting future people requirements and implementing plans to satisfy those

requirements. The approach will be affected by the degree to which it is possible to make accurate forecasts.

Again, the context for obtaining the people required will be the labour markets in which the organization is operating which are first, the internal labour market – the stocks and flows of people within the organization who can be promoted, trained or redeployed to meet future needs – and second, the external, national and international markets from which different sorts of people can be recruited.

### 2.9.3 Recruitment and selection

Recruitment and selection forms a core part of the central activities underlying human resource management: namely, the acquisition, development and reward of workers. It frequently forms an important part of the work of human resource managers – or designated specialists with work organisations. However, and importantly, recruitment and selection decisions are often for good reasons taken by non-specialists, by line managers. There is, therefore, an important sense in which it is the responsibility of all managers. As Mullins (2010, p.485) notes: ‘If the HRM function is to remain effective, there must be consistently good levels of teamwork, plus on-going co-operation and consultation between line managers and the HR manager. This is most definitely the case in recruitment and selection as specialist HR managers can be an important repository of up-to-date knowledge and skills, for example on the important legal dimensions of this area.

Recruitment and selection also has an important role to play in ensuring worker performance and positive organizational outcomes. It is often claimed that selection of workers occurs not just to replace departing employees or add to a workforce but rather

aims to put in place workers who can perform at a high level and demonstrate commitment (Ballantyne, 2009).

Recruitment and selection is often presented as a planned rational activity, comprising certain sequentially-linked phases within a process of employee resourcing, which itself may be located within a wider HR management strategy. Bratton and Gold (2007, p. 239) differentiate the two terms while establishing a clear link between them in the following way:

‘Recruitment is the process of generating a pool of capable people to apply for employment to an organisation. Selection is the process by which managers and others use specific instruments to choose from a pool of applicants a person or persons more likely to succeed in the job(s), given management goals and legal requirements’.

In setting out a similar distinction in which recruitment activities provide a pool of people eligible for selection, Foot & Hook (2005, p.63) suggest that, ‘Although the two functions are closely connected, each requires a separate range of skills and expertise, and may in practice be fulfilled by different staff members’. For example, an organisation may have an excellent selection system for evaluating candidates but if there are insufficient candidates to evaluate them this selection system is less than effective. Both processes must operate effectively for optimal staffing decisions to be made.

Indeed, other authorities have also noted the potential importance of recruitment and selection as an activity. Pilbeam and Corbridge (2006; p.142) provide a useful overview of potential positive and negative aspects noting that: “The recruitment and selection of employees is fundamental to the functioning of an organization, and there are compelling reasons for getting it right. Inappropriate selection decisions reduce organizational effectiveness, invalidate reward and development strategies, are frequently unfair on the

individual recruit and can be distressing for managers who have to deal with unsuitable employees”.

Recruitment and selection, so defined, can play a pivotally important role in shaping an organization’s effectiveness and performance, if work organizations are able to acquire workers who already possess relevant knowledge, skills and aptitudes and are also able to make an accurate prediction regarding their future abilities.

Given this premise, recruiting and selecting staff in an effective manner can both avoid undesirable costs – for example those associated with high staff turnover, poor performance and dissatisfied customers – and engender a mutually beneficial employment relationship characterized by commitment on both sides.

The issue, however, is under what condition an organization can do effective recruitment?

The main requirement in recruitment and selection is a well - conceived policy, wherein guidelines and objectives are properly outlined (Cloete, 1998). Different authorities view this in the same way, namely, the careful consideration of the policy, rules and regulations without ignoring the different Acts that serve as guidelines to employment.

Accordingly, an institution must have and use a well-conceived recruitment policy as the first requirement for obtaining a strong workforce. An institution’s Recruitment Policy has to be fair and consistent, be of non-discriminatory nature on the grounds of sex, race, age, religion, or disability, and should conform to statutory regulations of the country, and agreed best practices.

#### 2.9.4 Recruitment Plan

A recruitment plan is imperative since it will guide and facilitate the process of recruitment. According to Armstrong (p.383) the plan will normally incorporate:

- The numbers and types of employees required to make up any deficits, when they are needed;
- The likely sources of candidates – schools, colleges of further education, universities, advertising, the internet etc.;
- Plans for tapping alternative sources, such as part-timers; and
- How the recruitment program will be conducted.
- The recruitment plan should include plans for attracting good candidates by ensuring that the organization will become an ‘employer of choice’. This could be achieved by such means as generally improving the image of the institution as an employer (the employer brand) and by offering:
  - Better remuneration packages;
  - More opportunities for learning, development and careers;
  - Enhanced future employability because of the reputation of the organization as one that employs and develops high quality people, as well as the learning opportunities it provides;
  - Employment conditions which address work-life balance issues by, for example, adapting working hours and arrangements and leave policies, and providing child care facilities or vouchers to meet the needs of those with domestic responsibilities;
  - Better facilities and scope for knowledge workers, such as research and development scientists or engineers or IT specialists;

Finally, the recruitment plan should also include a flexibility plan. The aims of the flexibility plan should be to:

- Provide for greater operational flexibility;
- Improve the utilization of employees’ skills and capacities;

- Reduce employment costs; and
- Increase productivity

### 2.9.5 The Recruitment and Selection Process

The overall aim of the recruitment and selection process is to obtain at minimum cost the number and quality of employees required to satisfy the human resource needs of the organization. The three stages of recruitment and selection are:

- a) Defining requirements – preparing job descriptions and specifications; deciding terms and conditions of employment;
- b) Attracting candidates – reviewing and evaluating alternative sources of applicants, inside and outside the company; advertising, using agencies and consultants;
- c) Selecting candidates – sifting applications, interviewing, testing, assessing candidates, assessment centres, offering employment, obtaining references; preparing contracts of employment.

### 2.9.6 Introduction to the Organization

It is important to ensure that care is taken over introducing people to the organization through effective induction arrangements.

Induction is the process of receiving and welcoming employees when they first join a company and giving them the basic information they need to settle down quickly and happily and start work. Induction has the following aims:

- To smooth the preliminary stages when everything is likely to be strange and unfamiliar to the starter;

- To establish quickly a favourable attitude to the company in the mind of the new employee so that he or she is more likely to stay;
- To obtain effective output from the new employee in the shortest possible time;
- To reduce the likelihood of the employee leaving quickly.

Taking care about induction is therefore very important for the following reasons.

a) **Reducing the Cost and Inconvenience of Early Leavers**

As pointed out by Fowler (1996), employees are far more likely to resign during their first months after joining the organization. The costs can include:

- Recruitment costs of replacement;
- Induction costs (training, etc.);
- Gap between the employee's value to the company and the cost of the employee's pay and benefits, etc.

These costs can be considerable. Thus it is worth making an effort to reduce that cost. Giving more attention to induction therefore pays off.

b) **Increasing Commitment**

A committed employee is one who identifies with the organization, wants to stay with it and is prepared to work hard on behalf of the organization. The first step in achieving commitment is to present the organization as one that is worth working for and to ensure that this first impression is reinforced during the first weeks of employment.

c) **Clarifying the Psychological Contract**

The psychological contract provides the basis for the employment relationship – (it consists of implicit, unwritten beliefs and assumptions about how employees are

expected to behave and what responses they can expect from their employer; it is concerned with norms, values and attitudes) – and the more this can be clarified from the outset, the better. Induction arrangements can indicate what the organization expects in terms of behavioural norms and the values that employees should uphold. Induction provides an opportunity to inform people of ‘the way things are done around here’ so that misapprehensions are reduced even if they cannot be eliminated.

**d) Accelerating Progress up the Learning Curve**

New employees will be on a learning curve – they will take time to reach the required level of performance. Clearly, the length of the learning curve and rates of learning vary, but it is important to provide for it to take place in a planned and systematic manner from the first day to maximize individual contributions as quickly as possible.

**e) Socialization**

New employees are likely to settle in more quickly and enjoy working for the organization if the process of socialization takes place smoothly. The social aspects of work – relationships with colleagues – are very important for many people, and this should be a feature of introduction to the organization. These are concerned with reception, documentation, initial briefing, introduction to the workplace, formal induction courses and formal and informal training activities.

**f) Conclusion**

A good recruitment therefore leads to good retention.

## 2.10 Employee Retention

### 2.10.1 Theories of Employee Retention and Employee Turnover

**Employee retention**, according to Wikipedia, refers to the ability of an organization to retain its employees. Employee retention can be represented by a simple statistic (for example, a retention rate of 80% usually indicates that an organization kept 80% of its employees in a given period). However, many consider employee retention as relating to the efforts by which employers attempt to retain employees in their workforce. In this sense, retention becomes the strategies rather than the outcome.

A distinction should be drawn between low performing employees and top performers, and efforts to retain employees should be targeted at valuable, contributing employees.

**Employee turnover** is a symptom of a deeper issue that has not been resolved. These deeper issues may include low employee morale, absence of a clear career path, lack of recognition, poor employee-manager relationships or many other issues. A lack of satisfaction and commitment to the organization can also cause an employee to withdraw and begin looking for other opportunities. Pay does not always play as large a role in inducing turnover as is typically believed (Allen, 2008).

In a business setting, the goal of employers is usually to decrease employee turnover, thereby decreasing training costs, recruitment costs and loss of talent and organizational knowledge. By implementing lessons learned from key organizational behavior concepts employers can improve retention rates and decrease the associated costs of high turnover. However, this isn't always the case. Employers can seek "positive turnover" whereby they aim to maintain only those employees who they consider to be high performers.

### 2.10.2 The Cost of Turnover

Studies have shown that cost related to directly replacing an employee can be as high as 50-60% of the employee's annual salary, but the total cost of turnover can reach as high as 90-200% of the employee's annual salary (Cascio, 2006). These costs include candidate views, new hire training, the recruiter's salary, separation processing, job errors, lost sales, reduced morale and a number of other costs to the organization. Turnover also affects organizational performance.

Studies suggest motivation theory can explain how to maximize employee satisfaction and minimize turnover in an organization. Herzberg's theory explains how employers can go about to maximize employee satisfaction and minimize turnover. An alternative motivation theory to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is the Motivator-Hygiene (Herzberg's Two Factor) theory. The two theories have overlap, but the fundamental nature of each model differs. While Maslow's Hierarchy implies the addition or removal of the same need stimuli will enhance or detract from the employee's satisfaction, Herzberg's findings indicate that factors which bring in job satisfaction are separate from factors leading to poor job satisfaction and employee turnover. Herzberg's system of needs is segmented into motivators and hygiene factors. Like Maslow's Hierarchy, motivators are often unexpected bonuses that foster the desire to excel. Hygiene factors include expected conditions that if missing will create dissatisfaction. Examples of hygiene factors include bathrooms, lighting, and the appropriate tools for a given job. Employers must utilize positive reinforcement methods while maintaining expected hygiene factors to maximize employee satisfaction and minimize turnover (Breugh and Starke, 2000).

### 2.10.3 Retention Programs

It is important to first pinpoint the root cause of the retention issue before implementing a program to address it. Once identified, a program can be tailored to meet the unique needs of the organization. A variety of programs exist to help increase employee retention. The following are some of them:

- a) **Career Development** – It is important for employees to understand their career path within an organization to motivate them to remain in the organization to achieve their personal career goals. Through surveys, discussion, seminars or workshops, employees can better understand their goals for personal development. With these developmental goals in mind, organizations can offer tailored career development opportunities to their employees.
- b) **Executive Coaching** – Executive coaching can be used to build competencies in leaders within an organization. Coaching can be useful in times of organizational change, to increase a leader’s effectiveness or to encourage managers to implement coaching techniques with peers and direct reports. The coaching process begins with an assessment of the individual’s strengths and opportunities for improvement. The issues are then prioritized and interventions are delivered to target key weaknesses. Assistance is then provided to encourage repeated use of newly acquired skills.
- c) **Motivating Across Generations** - Today’s workforce includes a diverse population of employees from multiple generations. As each generation holds different expectations for the workplace, it is important to understand the differences between these generations regarding motivation and engagement.

Managers, especially, must understand how to handle the differences among their direct reports.

d) **Orientation and On Boarding** – An employee’s perception of an organization takes shape during the first several days on the job. It is in the best interest of both the employee and the organization to impart knowledge about the company quickly and effectively to integrate the new employee into the workforce. By implementing an effective on boarding process, short-term turnover rates will decrease and productivity will increase.

e) **Women’s Retention Programs** – Programs such as mentoring, leadership development and networking that are geared specifically toward women can help retain top talent and decrease turnover costs. By implementing programs to improve work/life balance, employees can be more engaged and productive while at work (Wikipedia).

f) **Retention Tools and Resources**

Retention tools and resources such as Exit Interviews and Separation Management Programs can be used to improve turnover in the organization.

These may include:

- **Employee Surveys** – By surveying employees, organizations can gain insight into the motivation, engagement and satisfaction of their employees. It is important for organizations to understand the perspective of the employee in order to create programs targeting any particular issues that may impact employee retention.
- **Exit Interviews** – By including exit interviews in the process of employee separation, organizations can gain valuable insight into the workplace experience. Exit interviews allow the organization to understand the triggers of the employee’s desire to leave as well as the aspects of their

work that they enjoyed. The organization can then use this information to make necessary changes to their company to retain top talent. Exit interviews must, however, ask the right questions and elicit honest responses from separating employees to be effective.

- **Employee Retention Consultants** – An employee retention consultant can assist organizations in the process of retaining top employees. Consultants can provide expertise on how to best identify the issues within an organization that are related to turnover. Once identified, a consultant can suggest programs or organizational changes to address these issues and may also assist in the implementation of these programs or changes (Wikipedia).

#### 2.10.4 Join, Stay, Leave Model

For organizations and employers, understanding the environment is the first step to developing a long-term retention strategy. Organizations should understand why employees join, why they stay and why they leave an organization. This join, stay, leave model is akin to a three-legged stool, meaning that without data on all three, organizations will be unsuccessful in implementing a proper retention strategy.

- a) **Why employees join:** The attractiveness of the position is usually what entices employees to join an organization. However, recruiting candidates is only half the problem while retaining employees is another. High performing employees are more likely to retain when they are given a realistic job previews. Organizations that attempt to oversell the position or company are only contributing to their own detriment when employees experience a discord between the position and what they were initially told. To assess and

maintain retention, employers should mitigate any immediate conflicts of misunderstanding in order to prolong the employee's longevity with the organization. New-hire surveys can help to identify the breakdowns in trust that occur early on when employees decide that the job was not necessarily what they envisioned (Hash, 2012).

b) **Why employees stay:** Understanding why employees stay with an organization is equally as important to understanding why employees choose to leave. Recent studies have suggested that as employees participate in their professional and community life, they develop a web of connections and relationships. These relationships prompt employees to become more embedded in their jobs and by leaving a job; this would sever or rearrange these social networks. The more embedded employees are in an organization, the more they are likely to stay. Additionally, the extent to which employees experience fit between themselves at their job, the lesser chance they will search elsewhere. Organizations can ascertain why employees stay by conducting stay interviews with top performers. A stay survey can help to take the pulse of an organization's current work environment and its impact on their high performing employees. Employers that are concerned with over-using stay interviews can achieve the same result by favoring an on-going dialogue with employees and asking them critical questions pertaining to why they stay and what their goals are (Allen, 2008).

c) **Why employees leave:** By understanding the reasons behind why employees leave, organizations can better cater to their existing workforce and influence these decisions in the future. Oftentimes, it is low satisfaction and commitment that initiates the withdrawal process, which includes thoughts of quitting in search of more attractive alternatives. If administered correctly,

exit interviews can provide a great resource to why employees leave. Typically, employees are stock in their responses because they fear being reprimanded or jeopardizing any potential future reference (Hash, 2012).

The most common reasons for why employees leave are better pay, better hours and better opportunity. These typical answers for leaving often signal a much deeper issue that employers should investigate further into. By asking relevant questions and perhaps utilizing a neutral third party provider to conduct the interview, employers can obtain more accurate and quantifiable data. Contrary to what most organizations believe, employees often leave due to relationships with manager and/or treatment of employees and not compensation, as this is often a response that employees are uncomfortable expressing to their organization directly (Hash, 2012).

#### 2.10.5 Employee Retention Best Practices

By focusing on the fundamentals, organizations can go a long way towards building a high-retention workplace. Organizations can start by defining their culture and identifying the types of individuals that would thrive in that environment. Organizations should adhere to the fundamental new hire orientation and on boarding plans. Attracting and recruiting top talent requires time, resources and capital. However, these are all wasted if employees are not positioned to succeed within the company. Research has shown that an employee's first 10 days are critical because the employee is still adjusting and getting acclimated to the organization. Companies retain good employees by being employers of choice.

- a) **Recruitment:** Presenting applicants with realistic job previews during the recruitment process have a positive effect on retaining new hires. Employers

that are transparent about the positive and negative aspects of the job, as well as the challenges and expectations are positioning themselves to recruit and retain stronger candidates (Allen, 2008).

- b) **Selection:** There is plethora of selection tools that can help predict job performance and subsequently retention. These include both subjective and objective methods and while organizations are accustomed to using more subjective tools such as interviews, application and resume evaluations, objective methods are increasing in popularity. For example, utilizing biographical data during selection can be an effective technique. Bio data empirically identifies life experiences that differentiate those who stay with an organization and those who quit. Life experiences associated with employees may include tenure on previous jobs, education experiences, and involvement and leadership in related work experiences (Allen, 2008).
- c) **Socialization:** Socialization practices delivered via a strategic onboarding and assimilation program can help new employees become embedded in the company and thus more likely to stay. Research has shown that socialization practices can help new hires become embedded in the company and thus more likely to stay. These practices include shared and individualized learning experiences, activities that allow people to get to know one another. Such practices may include providing employees with a role model, mentor or trainer or providing timely and adequate feedback (Allen, 2008).
- d) **Training and Development:** Providing ample training and development opportunities can discourage turnover by keeping employees satisfied and well-positioned for future growth opportunities. In fact, dissatisfaction with potential career development is one of the top three reasons employees (35%) often feel inclined to look elsewhere. if employees are not given opportunities

to continually update their skills, they are more likely to leave. Those who receive more training are less likely to quit than those who receive little or no training. Employers that fear providing training will make their employees more marketable and thus increase turnover can offer job specific training, which is less transferable to other contexts. Additionally, employers can increase retention through development opportunities such as allowing employees to further their education and reimbursing tuition for employees who remain with the company for a specified amount of time (Allen, 2008).

- e) **Compensation and rewards:** Pay levels and satisfaction are only modest predictors of an employee's decision to leave the organization; however organizations can lead the market with a strong compensation and reward package as 53% of employees often look elsewhere because of poor compensation and benefits. Organizations can explicitly link rewards to retention (i.e. vacation hours to seniority, offer retention Bonus payment or Employee stock options, or define benefit plan payouts to years of services (Wikipedia). Research has shown that defined compensation and rewards is associated with longer tenure. Additionally, organizations can also look to intrinsic rewards such as increased decision-making autonomy.
- f) **Effective Leaders:** An employee's relationships with his/her immediately ranking supervisor or manager is equally important to keeping him or to making an employee feel embedded and valued within the organization. Supervisors need to know how to motivate their employees and reduce cost while building loyalty in their key people. Managers need to reinforce employee productivity and open communication, to coach employees and provide meaningful feedback and inspire employees to work as an effective team (Wikipedia). In order to achieve this, organizations need to prepare

managers and supervisors to lead and develop effective relationships with their subordinates. Executive Coaching can help increase an individual's effectiveness as a leader as well as boast a climate of learning, trust and teamwork in an organization. To encourage supervisors to focus on retention among their teams, organizations can incorporate retention metric into their organization's evaluation.

- g) **Employee Engagement:** Employees who are satisfied with their jobs, enjoy their work and the organization, believe their job to be more important, take pride in the company and feel their contributions are impactful are five times less likely to quit than employees who were not engaged. Engaged employees give their companies crucial competitive advantages, including higher productivity and lower employee turnover.

#### 2.10.6 Factors Affecting Retention

Retention strategies should be based on an understanding of the factors that affect them. For early career employees (30 years and under) career advancement is significant. For mid-career employees (age 31 -50) the ability to manage their careers and satisfaction from their work are important. Late career employees (over 50) will be interested in security.

It is also the case that a younger workforce will change jobs more often than an older workforce, and workforces with a lot of part-timers are less stable than those with predominately full-time staff. The specific factors that affect retention are:

- Company image;
- Recruitment, selection and deployment;
- Leadership – ‘employees join companies and leave managers’;

- Learning opportunities;
- Performance recognition and rewards.

A study of high flyers by Holbeche (1998) found that the factors that aided the retention and motivation of high performers included providing challenge and achievement opportunities (e.g. assignments), mentors, realistic self-assessment and feedback processes.

#### 2.10.7 **Basis of Retention Strategy**

A retention strategy takes into account the particular retention issues the organization is facing and sets out ways in which these issues can be dealt with. This may mean accepting the reality, as mentioned by Cappelli (2000), that the market, not the company will ultimately determine the movement of employees. Cappelli believes that it may be difficult to counter the pull of the market – “you can’t shield your people from attractive opportunities and aggressive recruiters,” and suggests that “The old goal of HR management – to minimize overall employee turnover – needs to be replaced by a new goal: to influence who leaves and when”. This, as proposed by Bevan et al (1997), could be based on risk analysis to quantify the seriousness of losing key people, or of key posts becoming vacant.

#### 2.10.8 **Risk Analysis**

Risk analysis can be carried out initially by identifying potential risk areas – the key people who may leave and, for each of them as individuals or groups, estimating:

- The likelihood of this occurring;
- How serious the effects of a loss would be on the business;

- The ease with which a replacement could be made and the replacement costs.

An overview of the ratings on a scale, say very high, high, medium, low, very low, under each heading could then indicate where action may need to be taken to retain key people or groups of people.



## **SECTION C: Previous Evidence from Academia**

### **2.11 Previous Evidence on Recruitment and Retention in Academia**

Several studies have been done on recruitment and retention of staff in various organizations. A study of note was one done in the United Kingdom by Hilary Metcalf, Heather Ralfe, Philip Stevens and Martin Weale all of the National Institute of Economic and Social Research on Recruitment and Retention of Academic Staff in Higher Education in The UK. The researchers conducted a qualitative survey of academic and Research staff to identify factors which affect recruitment into academia and retention.

In their study, Metcalf et al (2005) provided evidence on recruitment and retention problems in Higher Education which may be useful to the present study. Metcalf and his group noted that recruitment and retention difficulties appeared to be a recent phenomenon in Higher Education Institutions in the UK. The literature pointed to a few concerns in the UK about the ability of universities to recruit and retain academic staff during the 1970s and 1980s (HEFCE, 2003). According to the group, this issue became more prominent during the 1990s and evidence based on the difficulties reported by university human resource specialists, suggested that the difficulties had grown over the past decade resulting mainly from the fear and concern that the age profile of academics in many disciplines was dangerously skewed to those close to retirement (UGC, 1984; Keep et al, 1996). The evidence for shortage was based on the reported experiences of higher education institutions regarding the difficulties they encountered recruiting and retaining academic staff (Bett, 1999 & HEFCE, 2003).

As would be expected, however, difficulties were not uniform and varied by institution, location, subject, grade and contract, and many also varied by type of individual. Problematic areas included recruitment and retention in business subjects, IT, electronic engineering and some rarer specialisms, and in the recruitment of academics with professional experience, such as in law and health studies. Other areas suffering problems in retention included researchers

and teaching staff on fixed-term contracts (Bett, 1999). Recruitment problems were sharpest in the South-East (excluding London) and the West Midlands. However, over the next few years reported recruitment and retention problems intensified and became widespread.

Again, recruitment and retention problems were particularly acute in areas which had to compete with the private sector, such as law, IT, and engineering (UCEA, 2002). The same was true in areas competing with other public sector jobs with higher pay, such as education and subjects allied to medicine (ibid).

The result of this was that Higher Education Institutions reported difficulties attracting many candidates and that those they did attract were often not of the requisite quality. However, they also reported that it was difficult to recruit good young academic staff as a result of low starting salaries (ibid). It will be interesting to see if this present study in Ghana about recruitment and retention of academic staff in the private university colleges in Ghana will make findings similar to those made by the study conducted in the United Kingdom.

#### **2.11.1 Issues of Academic Staff Recruitment and Retention**

The researchers reported on a number of issues that influenced staff recruitment into academia and their retention in the sector. These included the following:

##### **a) Pattern of Recruitment**

The main sources of entrants to academia were students and employees in other sectors. Many make a career change to enter academia, normally from higher level occupations (managerial, professional and technical) but not from lower level jobs. Entrants to academia tend to be recruited to fixed-term contracts in research, etc. although the percentage entering to permanent contracts rises with age, suggesting that previous skills are relevant and recognized.

**b) Reasons for Entering Academia**

Metcalf et al (1995)'s study found that, whilst many are keen to have an academic career (40%), a significant minority saw academic career as providing a stepping stone to another career, which is likely to reduce retention.

Other reasons why people entered academic employment or what people wanted from a career in academia or the attributes people thought academic environment offered included the following:

- a) A chance to do research and setting one's own agenda was the main reason.
- b) High salary (only 30%)
- c) Non-pecuniary aspects were often more important, and included –
  - A good working environment
  - Need for variety
  - Freedom to use initiative and seeing tangible outcomes from their job
  - Autonomy in the job
  - Control of their research
  - Career prospect
  - Collaboration and flexibility of working hours
  - Good physical work conditions
  - Helping people
  - Job security

Metcalf (1995) and his group found that broadly speaking academic staff believed that an academic career offered the attributes they wanted from a career.

However there are three important exceptions to this: career prospects, job security and high salary, none of which tended to be as good in academia. Slow

career progression, lack of job security (particularly at the start of an academic career) and relatively low pay are likely to reduce the supply from this source.

**c) Satisfaction of Academic Staff**

Academic staffs are somewhat less satisfied with their jobs than those in the workforce as a whole. Academics appear to be considering three separate sets of elements of their jobs, namely the pecuniary factors (both the salary and the ability to earn money from additional work), non-pecuniary factors relating to the qualitative dimensions of the job and longer –term factors such as promotions and job security.

**2.11.2 Factors Affecting Recruitment and Retention in Academia**

The researchers found a number of factors which affect recruitment into academia and retention. They stated that recruitment and retention are affected by the whole employment package (the rewards and benefits of the job) relative to other types of employment. These include pay and fringe benefits, intrinsic aspects of the job (e.g., for academics, teaching and research), job security, work organization, autonomy, progression, family-friendly practices, congeniality of colleagues, and the working environment, etc. The more attractive the overall package, the more likely it will attract applicants and retain employees. The relative importance of these factors differs for recruitment and retention, due to informational differences between those in a job and potential recruits. Applicants (particularly those entering the sector) have less knowledge and the factors influencing recruitment tend to be those on which information is more easily available. This means that pay tends to loom larger for recruitment than retention. Moreover, the expected and the actual package may differ, leading to turnover.

### 2.11.3 Deficits in Academic Staff Capacity at African Universities

Another study of note was one done by a Ghanaian, Wisdom J. Tettey in Canada entitled Challenges of Developing and Retaining the Next Generation of Academics: Deficits in Academic Staff Capacity at African Universities. The following are some of the interesting findings from the study:

#### a) Unequal Student – Staff Enrolments

Tettey's (2010) study found that over the last decade student enrolment in African universities has grown by significant amounts in response to the increasing demand for higher education. The study noted that the tremendous increase in enrolment in African universities has not been met by an adequate expansion in academic staff. The study further noted that student-staff ratios in various countries in Africa have generally risen over the years, and that incommensurate staff and student growth rates, as well as high and increasing student-staff ratios, have put a tremendous burden on academic staff – factors that have been found to discourage people from enrolling in the academy. These developments are reflected in data captured for the study. For example, enrolments at Stellenbosch University (in South Africa) rose by 15% between 2000 and 2007. Makerere University saw a four-year increase of 22% during the same period, while student numbers at the University of Dar es Salaam grew by 73% between 2003 and 2007 and by 167% at the University of Ghana between 2000 and 2008.

The study noted that expanding enrolments are not necessarily a problem in themselves. They have become challenging because they expose the extent of the capacity deficit that African higher education institutions face concerning their ability to deliver quality education while expanding enrolment.

**b) Cultivating the Next Generation of Academics: Postgraduate Enrolments**

Tettey's (2010) study also noted that postgraduate students constitute the pool from which the next generation of academics will be drawn. Unfortunately, the number of master's and doctoral enrolments remains relatively small, with declining trends in some countries. For example, data collected for the study showed that the University of Ghana saw a 50% reduction in that proportion, from 14% in 2000 to seven percent in 2008. The University of KwaZulu – Natal also saw a drop in the proportion of postgraduates from 32% in 2000 to 26% in 2007. The situation was different at Ibadan, which has been a leader in the production of postgraduate degree holders on the continent: there the university increased the percentage of postgraduate degree holders from 18% of the total student population in 2001 to 35% in 2006.

The report said available data show that men dominate postgraduate enrolments, and noted that any hope of increasing the low proportion of women in the academy has to start with efforts at improving their numbers in postgraduate programs. The study also noted that the data points to low graduation and time-to-completion rates, as well as high dropout rates in some academic programs. It concluded that these trends do not bode well for developing an adequate pool of high-quality future academics, and suggested that governments, national tertiary educational bodies, universities and the private sector should work together to develop creative and complementary funding models that promote high quality postgraduate training.

**c) An Ageing Professoriate and the Need for Replenishment**

The urgency of the need for initiatives to build the next generation of academics in African universities is made clear by the fact that the current crop is ageing very fast, with no commensurate expansion in the numbers of young scholars

entering the profession. For example, Tettey's (2010) study found that only 20% of the staff of Obafemi Awolowo University in 2006/2007 was less than 40 years of age, compared to 39% over 50 years of age, of which 11% were already past the retiring age of 65 years. Data for University of Education at Winneba showed that only about eight percent of staff were under 40 years of age, while 55% were 50 years of age or older during the same period. According to the report "a cursory look at the University of KwaZulu Natal elicits optimism, because 41% of staff was less than 40 years old in both 2001 and 2006. However, the fact that 42% of academic staff, including many of the younger staff, had less than a master's degree requires further analysis of the correlation between age group and qualifications". The report continued, "increased numbers of academic staff, without the requisite quality and level of training, are insufficient to provide quality instruction and training for students. Expansion in the number of staff without attention to their professional development does not augur well for the future".

#### **d) Academic Staff Qualifications**

The quality of any higher education system is determined not only by the number of people teaching in it, but even more importantly, by the qualifications of its staff. According to Tettey's (2010) study, most African universities had relatively fewer doctoral than master's degree holders on staff. For instance, only 19% of staff at the University of Education, Winneba had doctorate degrees in 2008 while masters and doctoral degree holders together constituted only 58% of the total staff complement at KwaZulu Natal in 2006. The report, however, noted that three (3) universities in South Africa had 49% or more of staff with doctorate degrees and two (2) in Nigeria (Bayero and Ibadan universities, had 51 and 63 percent of staff with doctorate degrees on their staff. But these exceptions, notwithstanding,

the report said less than two-thirds of academic staff in the other universities covered by the study had doctorate degrees. It noted that it was clear that the institutions involved have to redouble their efforts to ensure that they are staffed by academics with the highest terminal degrees in their fields.

#### 2.11.4 Academic Staff Qualifications: Implications

The report said there are many significant implications to the data. One implication is that there is a new generation of staff being hired who do not have the best possible qualifications to undertake their teaching and research mandates.

Another is the potential for these trends to perpetuate a vicious cycle whereby institutions in most African countries are incapable of training many doctoral-level students, either because they lack the human resource capacity to do so, or because they do a poor job when they try to train them. Either way, the quality of the next generation of the professorate may be compromised, especially since many of these institutions are not in a position to train significant numbers of their potential members abroad.

Also, the proportions of women with master's and doctorate degrees have been consistently lower than those of men with such degrees. For instance Tetey's (2010) study found that at the University of Ghana, females made up 27% and 13% of master's and doctorate holders in 2000; by 2008 these proportions had increased to 29% and 20%, respectively. At the University of KwaZulu Natal, the percentage of female master's degree holders went up from 42% in 2001 to 45% in 2006 while the percentage of female doctorate staff also improved marginally from 26% to 28% during the same period. Low proportions of female postgraduates and academic staff pose challenges for faculty regeneration and reduce opportunities for institutions. Women academics, particularly those who are in the higher ranks, serve as role models and mentors for other women.

Even more important is the need for them to be established in their professions, giving them the clout to provide leadership on a variety of fronts, including advancing gender-sensitive initiatives. Additionally, if upward mobility for female staff is seen as difficult to achieve, there is a strong likelihood that women will not see academia as a career worth pursuing, further diminishing the capacity of the tertiary institutions to increase the number of qualified staff.

#### **2.11.5 Professional Development for Staff Capacity Building**

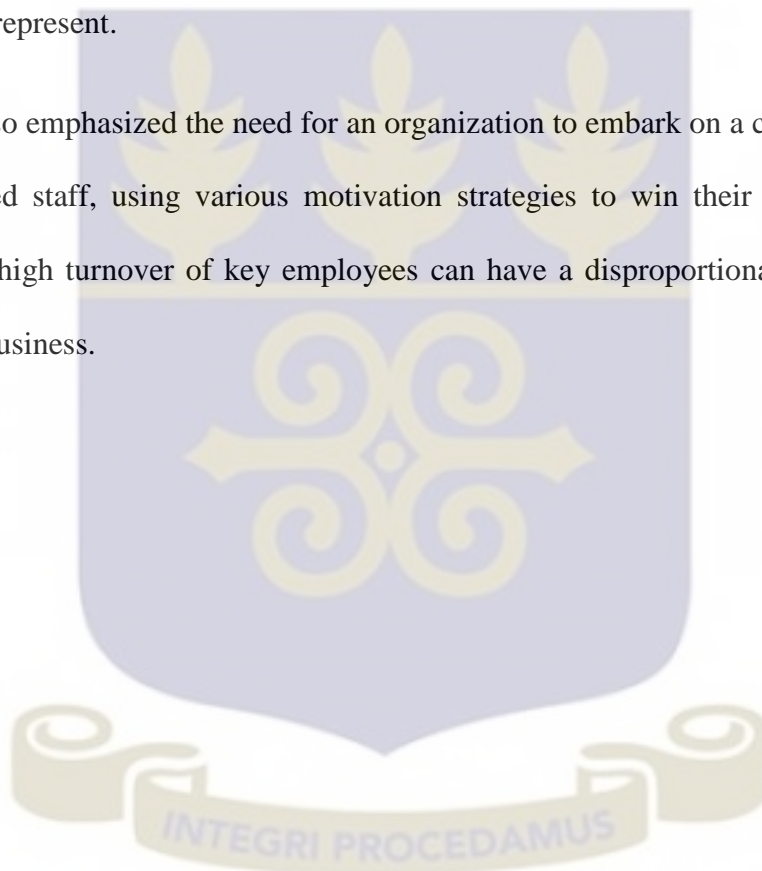
Tettey (2010) found that various African universities have staff development initiatives to cultivate the next generation of academics and generally improve the qualifications of staff. For instance his report indicated that Kenyatta University had 191 of its staff enrolled in doctoral programs in 2006; out of which one-third were women. At the University of Witwatersrand 11% of staff were undertaking doctoral programs between 2005 and 2007, while 20% of staff were enrolled in master's programs. Data from UDSM show that 15 staff members were enrolled in doctoral programs in 2007, including three women. Makerere had 27 of its staff in master's programs and 128 in doctoral programs in 2006.

The existence of all these programs is commendable, but the need far outstrips even these encouraging enrolment figures, and the efforts need to be reinforced to strengthen the quality of academic staff at African universities, the report concluded.

## 2.12 Conclusion

The literature reviewed showed the need for an organization to carefully plan its human resource needs, in the now and in the foreseeable future, and to always take appropriate steps to ensure that people who possess relevant knowledge, skills and aptitudes are acquired to help shape the organization's effectiveness and performance. It is indeed the knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals (workers, staffs) that create value, which is why the focus has to be on means of attracting, retaining, developing and maintaining the human capital they (individuals, workers, staffs) represent.

The literature also emphasized the need for an organization to embark on a concerted effort to retain its talented staff, using various motivation strategies to win their commitment and loyalty, since a high turnover of key employees can have a disproportionate impact on the fortunes of the business.



## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used in conducting this research.

The study, Recruitment and Retention of Academic Staff in Private University Colleges in the Greater Accra region of Ghana, was conducted between August, 2010 and July, 2015. The researcher employed both qualitative research (within the private university colleges, examining human resource policies and practices and factors affecting entry and exit from the sector), and quantitative surveys of academic staff in the private university colleges (to identify factors which affect recruitment into the PUCs and retention).

#### 3.2 Research Population

For purposes of this study the population comprised all the academic staff employed in all the Private University Colleges in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. These were the professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, senior tutors and where applicable, the research staff. This was the group of people earmarked for the survey in the quantitative study. The total number of all the academic staff that was permanently employed in the thirty-four accredited university colleges in the Greater-Accra region during the time the study was being conducted was one thousand six hundred and thirty-two (1632).

In stage one of the study that targeted the management and administrative staff of the PUCs, the population included all the senior staff in those departments with responsibility for human resourcing, as well as some heads of the academic departments. The total number of the

management and administrative staff employed in the thirty-four accredited university colleges in the Greater Accra region was two hundred and seventy-six (276).

There were, as of December, 2013, a total number of forty seven (47) accredited private university colleges in the country, of which thirty-four (34) were located in the Greater Accra Region alone. Because over 70 per cent of the private university colleges were located in the Greater Accra Region, the researcher found it expedient to base the study in the Greater Accra Region.

### 3.3 Research Design

It is very important to develop a research plan for any research. The researcher identified the subjects of the study as the entire academic staff working in all the private university colleges in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. Based on the nature and spread of the subjects, the survey research methodology and design was also chosen to gather data on the recruitment and retention of academic staff by the private university colleges. The study therefore was a cross-sectional survey design. This design was to guide the whole process, and indicate the strategy for gathering and analyzing the information needed to test the hypothesis, or the objectives of the study or the research questions. It also included how to collect data and analyze data (Badu-Nyarko, 2011).

Another reason for the choice was that the study involves the process of asking a large group of people (in this case lecturers) questions about issues of recruitment and retention in the PUCs and to gather information from their responses.

Again, the survey method was used because its characteristics suited the kind of study that the researcher was engaged in. The study of recruitment and retention of academic staff involved a clearly defined problem and definite objectives. Also, the study intended to collect data to

describe some aspects or characteristics of the entire population (the academic staff in all the private university colleges in the Greater Accra Region) of which that group was a part.

The major ways by which information was collected using the survey method was through questionnaire and unstructured interviews. In this way, the use of the survey method allowed the researcher to collect data from a sample rather than from every member of the population. After settling on the use of the survey method, the researcher turned his attention to ensuring that the questions to be answered were clear and not misleading. He also considered how to get a sizeable number of respondents to answer the questions thoughtfully and honestly.

### **3.3.1 Preliminary Investigations**

The major objectives of the study were to find out the processes used to recruit staff into the PUCs and the recruitment difficulties the PUCs normally faced in recruiting qualified academic staff. The objectives also included determining the efforts the PUCs make to retain talented staff in their institutions for effective performance. In order to satisfy these diverse objectives a preliminary stage of the study was designed to target the management and administrative staff of the PUCs who were surveyed in order for them to shed light on the procedures they used to recruit and retain their academic staff. The researcher therefore conducted one-on-one (personal) interviews, basically unstructured and informal, in all the six PUCs that were sampled for the study. The interviews that were conducted with the management and administrative staff of the sampled institutions allowed the researcher to gain background information about the general nature of the research problem that was being investigated (Burns and Bush, 2000); in particular, it also enabled him to have insights into the methods and procedures adopted by the PUCs to recruit academic staff, and the efforts they make to retain the academic staff.

This was in line with Burns and Bush (2000) that unstructured interviews of this nature are conducted when the researcher does not know much about the problem and feels he needs additional information or desires new and current information. The researcher wanted, in this case, to gain background information that will corroborate or disprove information that were to be gathered from the academic staff of the university colleges by means of questionnaire, and to also help clarify problems associated with recruitment and retention of academic staff in the private university colleges. The information the researcher gathered from the preliminary study was used later during the compilation of the questionnaire for the study.

#### 3.4 **Sampling Design and Procedure**

The researcher adopted the cluster sampling technique for selecting a representative population for the study. Cluster sampling is a sampling technique usually used when ‘‘natural’’ groupings are evident in statistical population. In this technique, the total population is divided into these groups (or clusters) and a simple random sample of the groups is selected. Then the required information is collected from the elements within each selected group.

In order to cater for geographical and other locational differences, the researcher divided the private university colleges in the Greater Accra Region into two main zones. Thus, the total population of private university colleges in the Greater Accra Region (34) was put into these groups (or clusters) of two (2): 1, and 2. Each cluster therefore comprised 17 PUCs. This was so done because the study dealt with several private university colleges which were spread over a large terrestrial area.

The researcher opted for the cluster sampling technique in this study since the population that was being studied (the academic staff of all the PUCs in the Greater Accra Region) was large

and was spread over a considerably wide area. The method was used also because of the ease of implementation and reduction in sampling costs. Furthermore, the researcher decided to employ the single-stage cluster sampling version for simplicity. In single-stage cluster sampling, all the elements from each of the selected clusters are used. So, using a simple random method three (3) PUCs were selected from each cluster, to obtain a total of six (6) sampled PUCs. The PUCs sampled from the two clusters were: Ashesi University College, Wisconsin International University College, and Islamic University College, from cluster 1, representing schools located in North and East of Greater Accra Region; and from cluster 2, representing private colleges located in West and South of Greater Accra Region, the African University College of Communication, Pentecost University College and Zenith University College, were sampled. The total population of academic staff in the six sampled university colleges was three hundred and seventy-eight (378).

The kind of sample design adopted provided a method that allowed the researcher to reduce the amount of data needed to be collected, since it allowed him to consider only data from a sub-group rather than all the possible cases or the entire population consisting of thirty four tertiary institutions all located in the study area.

Because a geographically dispersed population can be expensive to survey, greater economy than simple random sampling can be achieved by treating several respondents within a local area as a cluster. The method can also be cheaper than other methods, due to fewer travel expenses and administrative costs, as a result of fewer interviews conducted.

The respondents that were interviewed in the qualitative study were purposively sampled. They included the Management staff and the senior administrative staff of the sampled PUCs, for the simple reason that they were in a better position to give appropriate information about their university's policies and practices from the official point of view.

### 3.5 Sample Frame

In the present study, a two-stage cluster sampling, a simple case of multistage sampling, was adopted in selecting cluster samples in the first stage, and then selecting sample of elements from every sampled cluster, in the second stage.

The researcher used the simple random sampling lottery method to select three colleges from cluster 1. In doing this, the names of all the seventeen colleges in cluster 1 were written on pieces of paper and put into a basket. The pieces of paper were shuffled several times, after which the researcher drew one of the pieces of paper and wrote down the name of the first college drawn. The remaining papers were shuffled once again, and a second piece of paper with the name of the second college on it drawn from the basket. The exercise was repeated a third time to obtain the name of the third college sampled.

Then, turning to the cluster number 2, the whole method was repeated as was done earlier for cluster 1, to obtain the names of the three colleges sampled in respect of cluster 2. The exercise resulted in the researcher selecting by a simple random method six private university colleges to participate in the research.

In the second stage, the researcher collected the list of academic staff from each of the six sampled colleges. Then, bearing in mind the assertion by Sandelowski (1996) to the effect that a quantitative research demands a larger sample size to reflect the population and for data analysis, he sampled, using the same simple random method as in the case of the sampled colleges, 50% of the academic staff from each of the PUCs to compose the list of respondents. The method, as was employed, then gave the sample frame used for the conduct of the research.

**Table 2. Stage 1: Sampled PUCs from cluster 1 and cluster 2**

Clusters of Colleges	Total No. of Colleges in Cluster	Total No. of Colleges Selected	%
Cluster 1	17	3	17.64
Cluster 2	17	3	17.64

**Table 3. Stage 2: Sampled Population from PUCs in Cluster 1 and Cluster 2**

Sampled Colleges	Total No. of Academic Staff in Colleges	Total No. of Staff Sampled	No. of Responses Returned
Ashesi University College	50	25	19
Wisconsin International University College	75	38	28
Islamic University College	40	20	14
African University College of Communication	60	30	25
Pentecost University College	85	43	21
Zenith University	68	34	18
Total	378	190	125

### 3.6 Sample Size

The choice of the sample is based on Sandelowski (1996:179), assertion that “...quantitative research demand a larger size (of sample size) to reflect the population and for data analysis”.

The general rule is to use the largest sample possible since the larger the sample, the more the representation. Larger sample size covers enough characteristics of the population.

In keeping with this, the researcher also considered several other things that must guide the determination of the sample size, such as the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population under study, the size of the population, the representativeness of the research population, and the type of research being undertaken, noting that in survey research there should be around one hundred (100) subjects for each major subgroup that is analyzed. Consequently, the researcher decided to sample 50% of the number of academics in each of the six PUCs participating in the study. That provided a total of 190 academics as the selected sample size, which he considered was large enough to be used for this study.

### 3.7 Research Instruments

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used for conducting this research. The researcher conducted the qualitative study by the use of unstructured, personal interviews. The respondents that were interviewed in the qualitative study were purposively sampled.

The main instrument for the qualitative study was the interview guide. Responses from the interviewees were recorded using a tape recorder.

The major instrument for the quantitative study was the questionnaire. In the second part of the study, a detailed questionnaire was developed. The items contained both close ended and open ended questions to allow the respondents to give their opinions and views on some vital issues. In addition, the questions were asked in as logical an order as possible in order to avoid causing any confusion in the minds of the respondents. The researcher made sure that the sequence of the questions followed the sequence of the objectives of the study / the research questions so that the responses would be answering the research objectives clearly. For instance, a primary objective of the study was to find out the source(s) from where the PUCs got their academic staff. So, a series of questions that were meant to solicit a variety of responses to answer that

particular objective were lined up. As soon as that objective was fully answered by the responses obtained, then another set of questions meant to find out the reasons why the individuals decided to enter academic employment within the PUCs were also lined up to answer the next objective of the study; then, again, another series of questions meant to determine the effectiveness of the methods used to recruit academic staff in the PUCs (the next objective of the study) were also lined up; and so on, and so forth.

The questionnaires that were administered to the academics had four sections, A- D. The first section, A, looked for the background characteristics of the respondents, including their age, sex and Nationality as well as their educational qualification, their rank and the number of years of service in the university where they are currently lecturing.

The section B of the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their reasons for choosing to work in academia, and also to confirm the process through which they were recruited into the PUCs. These investigations were deemed necessary because of the belief that recruiting and selecting staff in an effective manner can play a pivotal role in shaping an organization's effectiveness and performances. And so it was worthwhile finding out whether the PUCs had a resourcing plan that considers approaches to obtaining people from within the organization, to recruiting them externally, and to attracting high quality candidates.

The third section was devoted to finding out how the PUCs attempted to motivate their academic staff. So, the respondents were asked to declare on the Likert scale the degree to which they felt motivated by a number of motivational factors that were usually employed in the PUCs.

The fourth and the last section, D sought to find out or determine the level of satisfaction of the academic staff with their jobs, the degree to which they were engaged in the performance of their assignments and their level of commitment to the organization they worked for. Also,

a number of open-ended questions meant to determine how happy the academics in the PUCs were in regard to the conditions under which they worked were put forward for them to answer. It was deemed necessary to find all these things out because they were thought to form part of the factors that organizations and businesses use to motivate their top performing employees, and should likely form part of factors determining the retention of the academic staff in the private university colleges.

### **3.8 Fieldwork and Administration of Instruments**

The fieldwork was conducted midway through the study. Multiple methods were used to collect data for this study, qualitative and quantitative. The employment of multiple methods was meant to help validate and cross-check findings. For that matter, during the first part of data collection, the researcher visited the sampled university colleges one after-the-other and qualitatively surveyed the top management and administrative staff by means of interview guidelines, trying to find out HR policies and practices in vogue in the various institutions – especially those regarding the sources and procedure of recruitment of academic staff, and the effort the institutions make to develop as well as retain the academic staff. To this end, the researcher conducted unstructured interviews with the Vice Chancellors/Presidents/Principals of the sampled colleges, and also the Registrars and Human Resource Managers and other top management and administrative personnel. The data collected during the interviews from each of these persons were recorded. Then, immediately after each interview, the researcher made sure that he played back the recorded responses to the interviewees for the purpose of confirmation, before taking away the data for transcription and analysis. By so doing, the researcher made sure that he had gathered a lot of information about the way the PUCs operate, and also about the HR policies and practices implemented by the private university colleges.

The second part of data collection involved quantitative survey of the academic staff employed in the six sampled colleges. The researcher believed that the survey of the academics from the sampled institutions was going to help authenticate the findings gathered from the administrative personnel of the sampled colleges, or otherwise disprove them and thereby allow the actual facts to come out clear; thus, the need for the two-stage approach to the collection of data.

In the administration of the quantitative research instrument, two [2] graduate students who had previously taken courses in research methodology were selected as research assistants and offered a day's training program where they were given orientation on the nature of the study and shown the part they were to play in administering the instrument. The research assistants were also educated on the ethical issues involved in the conduct of research, as well as the trustworthiness of the data to be collected. After that the research assistants worked with the researcher in each of the six sampled private university colleges, where they were under the supervision of the researcher throughout the period of the administration of the research instruments.

The instruments for the data collection were initially programmed to be administered by the researcher and the two research assistants within a period of one month. But things did not work out that way at all. In the end, it took well over five months to complete that task alone, disrupting the program to a large extent and causing much delay to the progress of the study.

The main reasons for the delay included too much emphasis placed on access by a number of the private university colleges. While most of them required letters of introduction and permission (and they usually got these) many of them also did not allow direct contact of the research team with the staff. They offered to appoint an intermediary from their institutions to collect the questionnaire and administer them on behalf of the researchers. This created much delay because they would give you a day for the retrieval of the completed questionnaire, but

on reaching the campus they would find all sorts of excuses to reschedule the retrieval date. Therefore, the research team had to visit some of the colleges not less than half a dozen times; on some of the visits they had nothing to collect, on other visits they were handed just a few (2, 3 or 5 completed questionnaires) and asked to come back again!! Such delays caused a great deal of frustration among the researcher and his assistants. For instance in one of the institutions the researcher was given a document titled “RIB Review of the Human Subjects Review Committee” to complete for consideration by the committee to indicate that none of their lecturers would be put to ridicule or any material disadvantage arising out of participation in the research. There was also an option to apply for an exemption if the researcher felt that the study he was to do would not disadvantage any of the participants. This researcher took the latter option and wrote for an exemption, but he never got any response. After several weeks had elapsed, when the researcher visited the college to complain about the delay, the questionnaire was taken from him and given to a lecturer in the college who was instructed to administer the questionnaire on behalf of the researcher. This experience caused a lot of delay in the time that was originally allotted to the fieldwork. (Copies of relevant documents are attached as Appendix 4 for perusal).

On the other hand, in some of the colleges access was somewhat more flexible. But that was not an indication that the situation was any better everywhere else. In fact, it looks as if academics are now more pre-occupied with work that they do not even have the slightest of time to spend completing survey questionnaire. Nobody has time for anyone else. Success in the exercise seems now to depend more on a researcher’s ability to quickly connect with people and to establish relationships.

Nonetheless, before entering the PUCs, access was sought from the authorities. Again, before the administration of instruments, rapport was usually established by engaging the respondents in a chat on some topical issues. Through the process of rapport, the researcher and his

assistants introduced the purpose of the study to the respondents, and then left them with the questionnaire to complete. Generally, the retrieval of the questionnaire was done at least one week after the questionnaire had been handed to the respondents to complete. This was so because some of the respondents usually asked to be given some time to study the questions before giving their responses. Others also complained that they did not have enough time to complete the questionnaire immediately and should be allowed to do so at a later time.

Eventually, however, the researcher and his assistants managed to collect a greater proportion of the questionnaire they distributed to the academics in the six institutions, but not all of them. Quite a number of the respondents did not hand in their responses or could not even be traced for the questionnaire to be collected back, even though they had collected copies with the understanding to complete and return them to the researcher. Thus, in the end 125 copies of the questionnaire, out of a total of 180 given out to the respondents were recovered, showing a retrieval rate of 69%.

The attitude of many of the academic staff in regard to completion of research questionnaire for prospective researchers is fast deteriorating. It needs fortitude to go through that stage of the study these days. Nowadays nobody has time for anything, and it is pathetic.

### 3.9 Research Ethics

In course of the study, all ethical considerations associated with the conduct of research were strictly observed. These included negotiation of access into all the PUCs where the study was conducted, and also to the administrative and academic staffs who agreed to complete the questionnaire.

For instance, heads of the institutions concerned were informed about the plan of the researcher to conduct the study in their institutions, and permission was sought from each of them for

access to the staff in the administrative and academic departments, and to the facilities that were to be used. (Please see letter attached as Appendix1) Furthermore, the researcher and his assistants took time to explain the purpose of the exercise to the respondents. Assurances were given to the respondents to the effect that information obtained from them would be used for academic purposes only and would be treated as confidential. In fact, a statement giving assurances to the respondents regarding their anonymity and also the confidentiality of the information they give was clearly posted as an introductory paragraph to the questionnaire. By these means, the research population was made sufficiently aware of the fact that they were merely the subject of a research, and that nothing was going to be done to subject any one of the participants to any kind of embarrassment, or to any material disadvantage, or to any abuse of their privacy rights.

### **3.10 Ensuring Validity and Reliability**

One major approach to gauging reliability in this study was standardization of the instruments of measurement. This was achieved by administering the same questions to other respondents within the same population as a means to ensuring consistency. In fact, the pre-test was used to attain both reliability and content validity of the instrument of measurement. The pretest involved thirty academic staff drawn from three private university colleges that were not among the six that were sampled for the actual study. The PUCs in which the pre-test was organized included the Knutsford University College, Radford University College, both at East Legon, and the Ghana Christian University College at Amrahia, Dodowa. The entire research instrument (questionnaire) that was to be used for the survey was pretested in the aforementioned university colleges. The assumption was that those university colleges possessed similar characteristics and interests as the sampled university colleges where the

main study was to be conducted. The pretest was conducted by the researcher and his two assistants. The exercise took two weeks to complete.

Ten academic staffs from each of the three university colleges were selected by means of a simple random sampling technique. A staff list of the academics was collected from each of the colleges. The list from Radford University College contained 16 names; that from Knutsford University College had twelve names; while the list from the Ghana Christian University College had thirty-two names. The researcher therefore decided to sample ten names from each of the lists, using the simple random method. The names on the staff list of the first college were each re-written on small pieces of paper. The pieces of paper with the names on them were all placed in a basket, and the papers were shuffled many times as one paper was picked after each shuffling. Each name on the paper picked at random from the basket was recorded, until 10 names were obtained to represent the first college. The exercise was repeated for each of the remaining two university colleges, until 10 names were picked from each of the academic staff lists obtained from the three private university colleges that took part in the pilot-study.

The ten persons selected from each of the three private university colleges were given copies of the questionnaire to complete at a later time. The researcher and his assistants went back to each of the three PUCs after one week to retrieve the completed questionnaire. The researchers were able to recover twenty-two of the thirty questionnaires that were distributed across the three institutions, which showed a great measure of success. The responses from the pretest were critically studied and analysed by the researcher with intention to determine the suitability or otherwise of the research instruments to the attainment of the objectives of the study.

The main idea for organizing the pilot-study was to determine the respondents' understanding of the items in the questionnaire and to find out whether the questions could elicit the type of responses required to answer the research questions. This purpose was, to a large extent,

achieved because it was discovered after the pre-test that the majority of the questions were very well answered by the respondents, meaning that the questions were generally clear.

But not all of the questions were perfect, anyway. For instance, one question: Did you encounter any snags during your recruitment?, which was asked to enable the academics speculate on what they thought constituted or posed difficulty for them during the course of their recruitment into the PUCs, was dropped later, looking at the way it was poorly answered by nearly all the respondents. Some of the respondents even wrote on the questionnaire that they did not understand the meaning of the word ‘snag’. And, the researcher himself realized after the exercise that there was need to improve the question to make it clearer and more meaningful, and so that was done. The researcher also took time to carefully reframe a few other questions to make them more meaningful so that they could be answered without difficulty. For example, a question: Do you like the system of promotion that is in place in your university, which would have been answered with a “Yes” or a “No”, and similar questions originally found in the questionnaire, were reframed, to give the respondents opportunity to comment on the issue, rather. In fact, all these were done also in consideration of how the responses would be analyzed. Indeed, ‘Yes’ and ‘No’ answers plentifully like that would have jeopardized the analysis.

In the end, it was seen that the themes of the questions were all related to the objectives of the research, indicating that the questions conformed to the objectives set for the study, and this resulted from the pilot study conducted.

### **3.11 Analysis of Data**

Both the qualitative and quantitative data obtained from responses given by the respondents in the two sets of surveys conducted in the sampled university colleges were separately analyzed

at the end of the exercise. According to Cohen and Crabtree (2006), “in qualitative analysis the main focus is not on the qualification of facts but on identifying meaning and values attributed by the respondents in their real life situations” (p.86). The data generated from the qualitative study had therefore to be managed and analyzed with the aid of a method known as the Constant Comparative Analysis of Grounded Theory. The method was used to “identify ideas, broad themes and patterns that emerged from the data in order to arrive at the findings” (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The constant comparative analysis was used because of its effectiveness in managing volumes and complex data from qualitative research.

The data collected from the qualitative survey were analyzed manually. The steps involved included the following:

- a) Transcription – the first stage of the analysis in which the information gathered during the interviews were played repeatedly and transcribed verbatim.
- b) Familiarization – spending time reading through the verbatim transcriptions of the interviews with the aim of searching for key ideas.
- c) Separating the data set from the data corpus – identifying the actual data that is needed for the analysis and isolating them from the entire primary data collected from the field.
- d) Coding – coding was done taking into consideration the specific research questions. After familiarizing with the data, the emerging ideas about what were important in answering the research questions were coded manually, using both highlights and abbreviations. The codes relating to research questions regarding recruitment of staff, development and motivation of staff and retention, were especially noted.
- e) Thematizing codes – the codes were organized into themes after all data had been coded. The themes captured an overview of identical ideas from the data and showed some pattern within the responses in the data. Each research question was assigned a major theme that emerged from the data or codes. A list of all the emergent themes was

merged and ordered to form categories under the research questions (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The themes formed the unit of analysis for the study (Brawn and Clarke, 2006).

- f) Reporting – Each category eventually contributed to answering the research question through descriptive analysis and explanations (Hewitt-Taylor, 2001). Once all research questions were allotted inputs in relation to the categories, the information pertaining to each research question was examined and reviewed to compile the results.

In the case of the quantitative research (the survey of the academic staff), the first step in the data analysis was the codification of the data obtained from the research instruments. A research assistant was engaged to manually codify the responses. The codes were then fed into the computer and processed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS – V.16) system for the production of statistical results. In the initial stages as the responses kept coming in slowly, the lot that were first received were used to produce statistical results and the results were used for dummy analysis to determine whether the study was going as expected. The research team became upbeat as they saw from the dummy analysis that things were going well.

Basically, the final analysis was made using non-parametric statistics because almost all the data were simple classificatory or categorical (Siegel and Castellan, 1998). Descriptive statistics, in the forms of percentages, means, mode and standard deviations were adopted to analyze the data collected from the field. To measure variability, ranges of the scores and standard deviations were used to indicate the scatter and dispersion.

Relational analyses were made by cross tabulation and the chi-square tests were used to test whether some significant differences existed between the responses obtained from various sources. All tests of relationships were computed at 0.05 [95%] level of significance, two tailed.

### 3.12 Summary

From the above, it can be clearly seen that the researcher employed the best possible methodology in conducting the research. The researcher selected a population for the study (all the academic staff employed in the private university colleges in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana) that was in the best position to provide the requisite information that would enable him answer his research questions and help him as well to realize the objectives of the research. Then he chose the cross-sectional research design as the plan for the work to guide the whole process and to be the strategy for gathering and analyzing the information needed to test the research questions towards the realization of the research objectives. Next, the researcher adopted the cluster sampling technique for selecting a representative population for the study, knowing too well that the private university colleges were spread over several wide locations in the Greater Accra region, and so the use of the method would not only lead to the ease of implementation but also a reduction in sampling costs. The simple random method was then employed in a two-stage cluster sampling technique, to select cluster samples and then to select sample of elements from the sampled cluster units to constitute a sample frame for the study. Then, based on the population in the sampled colleges, and in consideration of the fact that the kind of quantitative research he was conducting demanded a larger sample size to reflect the population and for analysis of data, the researcher sampled 50% of the academic staff from each of the sampled PUCs in order to obtain a large sample size for the study.

The researcher then went on to conduct the fieldwork and the administration of the instruments, both qualitatively and quantitatively, amid much adversity but with a great measure of success; ensuring that every precaution was taken, including all ethical considerations associated with the conduct of research as well as safeguarding the validity and reliability of the study.

Finally, the researcher employed the appropriate methods to analyze the data that were collected from the field (both qualitatively by the Constant Comparative Analysis of Grounded

Theory and quantitatively by computer assistance via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Research) to obtain the results from the study.



## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

#### 4.1 Introduction

Chapter four presents the results that were obtained from the analysis of both the qualitative and quantitative data gathered from the survey of the management and administrative personnel and the academic staff of the sampled university colleges. The analysis of the quantitative data was provided through descriptive and inferential statistics. The open-ended questions were summarized into tables and discussed using the narrative forms.

#### 4.2 Results of the Qualitative Research

The qualitative research conducted in the PUCs at the outset of the study to enable the researcher gather information about the human resource policies and practices within the PUCs and to ascertain anecdotal evidence in regard to factors affecting recruitment into the PUCs and retention, provided some key information and ideas that helped with the development of the questionnaire for the study.

Since the researcher employed the qualitative approach in this part of the study, the emphasis here was not to reduce the data to statistical evidence, but to highlight the voices of participants and to inductively construct meaning and understanding into the data. The results were presented under the broad themes of recruitment of academic staff into the sector, and retention of academic staff in the sector, and in line with the research questions as have been detailed below:

##### 4.2.1 On recruitment of academic staff

- a) Sources of academic recruits into the PUCs?

- b) Effectiveness of PUCs recruitment policies?
- c) Problems encountered with recruitment and retention in the PUCs: High academic staff turnover? Competition in the sector for highly qualified academics? Inability to fill certain vacant positions? Use of unqualified academics to fill vacant positions?

#### 4.2.2 On retention of academic staff

- a) Effectiveness of measures in place to motivate academic staff to high performance?
- b) Efforts made to foster commitment in the academic staff?
- c) Measures in place to improve retention?

The data were collected from the six sampled university colleges namely, Ashesi University College, Wisconsin International University College, Islamic University College, Pentecost University College, Africa University College of Communication and Zenith University College.

The results were presented qualitatively based on the reported experiences and perceptions of interviewed participants (Vice Chancellors, Pro-VCs, Registrars, and Human Resource Managers) on recruitment of academic staff into the PUCs and retention of academic staff in the sector. In view of the qualitative nature of the data, direct quotes or verbatim accounts were used as a strategy to portray the voices of respondents. The study paid very close attention to participants own words. In the presentation, the overreaching themes derived from the data were bulleted and supported with direct quotations presented in italics in single spacing. In all, the verbatim accounts or direct quotes that were more explicit in portraying the themes were presented.

- **Sources of academic recruits into the PUCs**

*“As for lecturers we do not have problems getting them. There are many individuals who are prepared to leave their workplaces and join us. Even they have more experience than the younger ones who have recently completed post-graduate studies. At the moment we have many applications on our files to consider”.* (An HR Manager of a PUC)

*“Many individuals from industry and the public services apply for various positions here every day. We also get people coming in from the public universities to teach part-time. The retired professors also come, they want contracts”.* (A Registrar of a PUC).

*“Majority of our academic staff are people who leave their jobs elsewhere to join us. We also have a few young men who have completed post-graduate studies. And also retired professors from the public universities also come to join on contract. When we have vacancies we go in for part-time lecturers from the public universities. These are the sources of our academic staff”.* (A Vice Chancellor)

The results showed that the PUCs have two main sources from where they recruit their academic staff. There was evidence that the PUCs regard the career changers as their major source of recruitment of academic staff, while they also recognize other minor sources – the graduate students and retirees from the public universities. There is also the perception that the career changers should be more preferred because they have more experience. Also, from the perspectives of the interviewees, it could be seen that the PUCs do not have any anxieties about recruiting individuals to fill vacant positions, or for newly created jobs. Why, because there seems to be a constant flow of applications from individuals looking for placement in the PUCs. Indeed, considering the current situation in the country whereby graduate unemployment has increased so high and forced individuals to join graduate unemployment associations, it is not strange that individuals should be desperately looking for jobs even where there are no vacancies.

- **Effectiveness of the process of recruitment of academic staff into the PUCs**

*“We do good recruitment. We have a policy to recruit qualified individuals to fill vacancies here. We place adverts to attract prospective applicants. We organize*

*proper interviews, and select only the individuals who perform highly at the interviews for employment.” (An HR officer).*

*“We recruit both externally and internally. We advertise every vacancy that we need to fill. We short-list the applicants. We go through the interview process, and select the best. We give our own employees opportunity to apply for vacancies, as well.” (A Registrar).*

*“We recruit staff just as is done in any other organization. We place adverts in the media, and receive applications from all manner of people. We get volumes of applications, so we sort them and call only those we think have the chance to be employed. We arrange for our Appointments Committee to interview them, and we give them appointment letters before they assume duty. We sometimes even organize orientation for them.” A Vice Chancellor).*

The results showed that the PUCs have confidence in the process they use to recruit academic staff, and they believe the process is very effective. They have the perception that going through the stages involved in the recruitment process is enough to ensure an effective recruitment. But, there can be, and indeed there are pitfalls in the process at every stage. One may go through the stages of the process all right, but may fail to pay attention to the key details that will guarantee the effectiveness of the process. For instance, just accepting the references as they have been composed without making further attempt to do some verification can result in the organization employing some one not ‘fit’ for the position he/she is seeking. The reason is that these days’ people can write references just to please the individuals who ask them for references, and this can mislead the recruiting organizations. Also, rushing to conduct a day’s orientation for new recruits, for instance, may not achieve the purpose orientation is meant to achieve. The success of the process may depend on how careful the organization can be, and the preparedness of the organization to spend time to go through the process and ensure that a good recruitment is made in the end.

- **Problems encountered in recruitment and retaining academic staffs?**

*“Academic staff turnover is not high in this school. I think last year about three lecturers left, two went to the University of Ghana; one went to the USA for further studies. As for those holding PhD it is difficult to prevent them from leaving. But we won’t call that a high turnover of staff. It is true all the sister private university colleges are in competition for staff, and the public universities too are competing with us. That is why sometimes we have difficulty in filling certain vacancies promptly. But we try hard not to use unqualified staff” (An HR personnel).*

*“There is no employment in the country, so staffs just don’t leave like that. Once they get employment here, they are always eager to stay. We want them to stay also, so they don’t leave. We don’t have high turnover. There is competition in everything. We compete for qualified staff. But when we face difficulties we use part-time staff to teach some of the courses. We use first degree holders as well, but they are under training to take over eventually from retiring academic staff. They are the best of our degree students. Some of them have 1<sup>st</sup> class honours” (One head of a PUC).*

*“Our turnover rate is very low. These days if you leave, where will you be going? As for the highly qualified staff they can leave, and indeed some of them use this place as a stepping stone to move to lucrative employment elsewhere. But they are not many, so even if they leave the effect on us is not much. We do everything possible to make our lecturers happy to stay. You say there is anecdotal evidence that the PUCs are unable to recruit highly qualified academic staff. Every individual who has the Master’s degree is qualified to lecture in the university. Majority of our academic staff hold master’s degrees, so they are qualified. We don’t use unqualified staff. Our first degree holders are only being trained to acquire the Master’s degree for them to qualify. They do very small amount of teaching, just for them to acquire the experience.” (A Registrar).*

*“I believe the turnover rate here will be the same as the national average. There are many organizations in Ghana where the rate of turnover will be far, far higher than what pertains in the PUCs. Of course, when staffs are aggrieved over certain policies, they leave. But there are many of them who will not get anywhere better than this place to go, so they hardly leave. In fact normally it is those who are aged who often leave. We are able to compete fairly for the lecturers we need. Our doors are open to part-timers as well. And we use the best of our first degree holders so that they can gain experience. We give them support to do further studies to improve their knowledge and skills. I don’t believe that we have a lot of problems”. (Dean of a faculty)*

The results showed that the Private University College authorities did not seem to have any problems with recruiting and retaining their academic staff. In the first place, they did not worry about academic staff turnover, as they see from their experience that many of their staffs do not leave at the rate that can cause them

problems. They admitted that they always faced competition from other institutions for the recruitment of their academic staff, but they saw that competition as being normal. Some of them even did not see anything wrong with using first degree holders to teach courses. To them, so long as not using the first degree holders would exacerbate the employment situation in the university colleges was enough reason for them to use that category of academics to teach key courses. The idea also helps them to fill vacant positions early and without delay.

- **Effectiveness of measures to motivate the academic staff to perform at the top?**

*“We do our best to motivate the lecturers, such as paying competitive salaries; we encourage and support them to do courses to upgrade themselves; we give them promotions when they deserve it. All that should be able to motivate them to work hard for the college”* (A principal of a college)

*“We always have incentives for our academic staff. We want them to be well motivated so that they can perform highly. For instance, we pay their salaries promptly at the end of the month. Some come for loans, we give them so they can repay under very convenient arrangements”* (A registrar)

*“Our staffs do not have any cause to complain, as far as their motivation is concerned. We give them all the incentives they need to encourage them to work hard. Every year we organize best teacher award. We are also among the few colleges who pay end of year bonuses to our academic staff. We listen to their concerns and we try to assist all the time. What again?”* (Dean of a faculty)

The results showed that the PUC authorities believe financial incentives are required to motivate the academic staff more than anything else. However, motivation theory teaches that individuals are motivated by a whole range of things, not just one thing. Money can help the academic staff to solve problems regarding their physical needs. But the academics have other needs money cannot solve. For instance they have prestige needs, and only promotion can help them overcome such a need in the employment situation. So, if they are denied

promotion, then they cannot be motivated. They also have social needs which they can overcome in the workplace if opportunity is given them to interact frequently with their peers. If they are not given a senior staff common room where they and their colleagues will meet to interact, how can they be motivated? That is why the academics cannot be highly motivated by only a few incentives given to them.

- **Efforts made to foster commitment in the academic staff?**

*“When we pay their salaries, and we look after them the best ways possible, we expect that the staff should feel committed to us, to the school. They should give of their best to us, teach well, mark their scripts very quickly and submit their results. They should know that they depend on us, and we also depend on them”* (An HR Officer).

*“Commitment is something reciprocal, give and take. The academics benefit a lot from the school. After all, it is the place where they get their work to do, and where they get their daily bread. They should automatically reciprocate by working hard for the school. That is why we feel they are committed to the school; we give them all the incentives they need to enable them commit everything to us”* (A Registrar).

*“Here, we put people first; and we try to create a sense of community and belongingness, so our staff members are very committed. If you go to our reception, you will see a plaque with the college’s mission boldly engraved on it for the staff to read. So, each one of them knows what we are about. Also, we seriously support their personal development, and they like that. We also guarantee justice to everyone. That is why our academics are very, very committed to the institution, and they give everything they can to the growth of the university”* (A President of one PUC)

The results showed that the authorities at the PUCs had good intentions to foster commitment in their academics, judging from their responses. However, there is a tendency in people to want to commit more to their own jobs than to the organization that gives them the wherewithal to do their work. Nonetheless, there isn’t much wrong for a person to be more engaged in his/her work, while committing less to the organization itself. As Cohen (2000) noted “employees who are engaged actively in their work may have a feeling of obligation to respond and repay the organization in some form”. Perhaps the PUC authorities

need to know that commitment is reciprocal and therefore there is need to do practical things for the academics for them to see and reciprocate with their commitment. Nonetheless, what they have started doing may be a step in the right direction.

#### **4.3 Results of the Quantitative Research**

##### **4.3.1 Background Characteristics of Academic Staff in the PUCs**

The personal characteristics of employees may provide pointers towards factors which affect recruitment and retention. For example, an advanced age profile may indicate future problems of a retirement bulge; a low percentage of women may indicate historical discrimination in recruitment, discrimination prompting leaving or a lack of family-friendly working. Likewise, the structure of characteristics of employees can also indicate the types of practices which might be used to improve recruitment and retention; for example, for retention, family-friendly practices are more important the higher the percentage of women employed. Therefore, based on these underlying reasons, the background characteristics of the academic staff that are employed in the private university colleges were sought. Table 4 below describes the characteristics of the respondents – namely age, sex, rank or grade, nationality, and their qualification as well as working experience.

**Table 4. Academic Staff Characteristics**

Characteristics	Background Information	Frequency F	Percentage %
Age	Up to 30 years	17	14
	31 to 50 years	88	70
	Above 50 years	20	16
Sex	Female	28	22
	Male	97	78
Highest Educational Qualification	PhD	7	6
	MPhil	67	54
	MA	43	34
	BA / BSc	8	6
Rank / Staff Grades	Professor / Associate Professor	3	2
	Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor	22	18
	Lecturer / Tutor	90	72
	Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant	10	8
Nationality	Ghanaian	114	91
	Non-Ghanaian	11	9
Number of years worked at this university/ experience	Up to 5 years	85	68
	6 to 10 years	36	28
	11 to 15 years	2	2
	16 to 20 years	2	2

N = 125 in all cases across

#### 4.3.2 Sex Distribution

Gender roles affect an individual's response to participation and interest in specific programs. In Ghana, the academic profession in the higher education institutions has been seen more as a male-dominated area, although the number of females entering the area has been rising remarkably over the years.

The respondents in the study were 125, comprising 28 (22%) females and 97 (78%) males (Table 4.). This means that females comprise 22 per cent of the academic workforce in the private university colleges as opposed to males (78 per cent). The results showed that there is female under-representation in the private university colleges. Consequent upon

this, a cross tabulation of sex of academic staff against Rank or Grade of academic staff was performed to find out whether the under-representation of females was confined to certain staff grades only or is a phenomenon that occurs at all levels of the academic grade.

**Table 5. Cross tabulation: Sex against Respondent's Rank/Staff Grades**

Rank / Staff Grades	Sex				Total	
	Female		Male			
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Professor / Associate Professor	1	33.30	2	66.70	3	100
Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor	6	27.30	16	72.70	22	100
Lecturer / Tutor	18	20.00	72	80.00	90	100
Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant	3	30.00	7	70.00	10	100
Total	28	22.40	97	77.60	125	100

$$\chi^2 = 2.237, df = 1, p < 0.135$$

The table 5 shows that the percentage of female to male is lower at each level of the academic rank: at the level of professorship, the ratio is 33.3% female to 66.7% male; at senior lectureship level, the ratio of female to male is 27.3% to 72.7%; and at lectureship level it is 80% to 20%; while at teaching assistantship level it is 30% to 70%. This implies that in the PUCs, the female under-representation occurs at all levels of the staff grades, and not only as grades increase.

Following the finding that there is female under-representation in academic career within the private university colleges in Ghana, a chi-square test was conducted to find out whether the pursuit of academic career depended on the sex of an individual. All tests of relationships were computed at 0.05 (95%) level of significance.

The result of the test was as follows:  $\chi^2 = 2.237, df = 1, p < 0.135$ .

The result means there is no relationship between sex and pursuit of academic career.

#### 4.3.3 Age profile of academics

The age structure of staff in Higher Education is important for a number of reasons. Some people have concerns that there exists a demographic time-bomb, with a large number of staff approaching retirement. It is therefore imperative for policy design to know whether this is indeed the case and, if so, which staffs are affected.

The current study found that 17 (14 per cent) of the academic staff in the PUCs falls below age 30 years; while 88 (70%) of the staff were aged between 31 and 50 years; and only 20 (16%) were above 50 years. The implication of this finding is that there does not appear to be a bulge in staff approaching retirement in the PUCs.

It was thus decided to undertake a chi-square analysis to determine whether there was a significant relationship between age and pursuit of academic career. The result was

$$\chi^2 = 4.532, df = 2, p < 0.104$$

The chi-square test showed that there was no difference between age and pursuit of academic career.

#### 4.3.4 Nationality

The breakdown of staff by nationality showed that the ratio of Ghanaian to foreign staff working in the PUCs was about ten to one. Table 4.1 shows that out of the 125 respondents, 114 (91%) were Ghanaian and 11 (9%) were non-Ghanaian. The significance of this for the study is that the PUCs then would find it easier recruiting the bulk of their academic staff locally, rather than looking for them from abroad which would create problems for them, ranging from access to availability of foreign exchange. That is, recruiting from within the country would be easier for the PUCs than recruiting from outside the country.

In any case, the study did not make any effort to find out whether this ratio is identical across gender or not, and therefore the finding cannot provide any support for the proposition that women are less mobile than men, at least internationally. What may be gleaned from this finding is the fact that there are fewer non-Ghanaians working in the PUCs as academic staff, than in the older, more renowned universities in Ghana. The reason for this may not be far-fetched. The PUCs offer very few courses, and in areas where many Ghanaians have expertise and can teach, such as Computer Studies and Business Management, whereas the old, public universities have many faculties and departments and offer many and diverse programs some of which may require foreign expertise. Therefore, the reason there are very few non-Ghanaians teaching in the PUCs is that there are too few courses on offer in the PUCs.

Following the discovery that more Ghanaian nationals were employed in the PUCs than non-nationals, a chi-square test was performed to find out whether pursuit of academic career in the PUCs depended on nationality.

- Null Hypothesis, H<sub>0</sub>: Pursuit of academic career does not depend on nationality
- Alternative Hypothesis, H<sub>1</sub>: Pursuit of academic career depends on nationality.

The chi-square analysis produced the following result:  $\chi^2 = 0.068$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < 0.794$

The result showed that there was no relationship between nationality and pursuit of academic career.

#### 4.3.5 Staff Qualifications

The appointment of individuals to the position of academic staff in higher education institutions depends on higher qualification (PhD). The most common qualification required of academic staff in higher education institutions is the doctorate degree. The

study found that 54 per cent of academic staff surveyed hold higher master's degrees (MPhil) and 34 per cent have lower master's degrees (MA, MSc and MBA), while doctorate degree holders and first degree holders in the PUCs stood at only 6 per cent in each case (Table 4. ).

Although the most common qualification expected of academics in a higher education institution is the doctorate, staffs at the new university colleges are much less likely to have a doctorate than at older institutions. Indeed, the result from the study showed a dip in the percentage of staff whose highest qualification was a doctorate and a corresponding increase in the percentage whose highest qualification was lower than the doctorate degree.

A factor contributing to this situation may be the fact that entrants at the younger ages require higher qualifications than those entering with other skills and experience (e.g. in vocational subjects), whereas the latter (the career changers) outnumber the former in the PUCs. But the more likely factor may be the unavailability of many highly qualified academics on the academic job market holding the doctorate degrees, and who may also be willing to take up appointment in the private university colleges. Furthermore, competition from other organizations, such as the older, public universities, for the services of doctorate degree holders may disadvantage the PUCs. The implication therefore is that the private university colleges may be forced to use individuals holding lower academic qualifications as academic staff, rather than leaving vacancies perpetually unfilled.

Following the discovery that very few of the academic staff in the PUCs hold doctorate degrees, a chi-square test was conducted to find out whether pursuit of academic career depended on higher qualification (PhD degree) in the private university colleges.

- Null Hypothesis, H<sub>0</sub>: Pursuit of academic career does not depend on higher qualification.
- Alternative Hypothesis, H<sub>1</sub>: Pursuit of academic career depends on higher qualification.

The result of the chi-square analysis was as follows:  $\chi^2 = 6.860$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < 0.076$

The result showed that pursuit of academic career in the PUCs does not depend on higher qualification (PhD degree).

#### 4.3.6 Rank / Staff Grades

Universities have a well-defined grade structure. In new universities, exactly as it is in older universities, the teaching grades are lecturer, senior lecturer, and professor. In the PUCs, lecturers form the largest group of the academic staff grades (72 %) as against senior lecturers (18%) and professors (2%). The remaining 8 per cent of the staff is constituted by the lowest grade of the academic staff, namely teaching assistants/ research assistants (Table 4.).

The grade structure of employment in the PUCs suggests that progression opportunities may be very limited in the new university colleges, a phenomenon that has potential to cause dissatisfaction in most of the academics, and perhaps leading to leaving the sector.

#### 4.3.7 Number of years worked at the private university college/Working experience of Respondents

The study tried to find out the length of time the academic staff had been at their posts, working as academic staff in the PUC. This was to help establish the experience the

academics have in the profession and in determining the interest shown by both the academic staff and their employers in the job.

The evidence from the Table 4 is that a small number of academics in the private university colleges, 36 (29%) had worked for over 5 to 10 years while a large number, 85 (68%) had worked between 1 and 5 years only.

This finding indicates that quite a number of the academics working in the PUCs may not have had many years of working experience in the private university colleges, and perhaps at the higher education level as academic staff. This evidence is buttressed by the fact that only four per cent of the respondents have over 10 years of work experience in the private university, while 68% of the academic staff has only up to 5 years of experience.

This finding also implies that the private university colleges may not be having too many experienced academic staff – individuals who have knowledge or mastery of a subject, gained through involvement in or exposure to the job over several years - that will help them to easily contribute their best to the realization of the institutions' goals.

#### 4.4 Sources of Recruitment of Academic Staff into the PUCs

Entry into academic career in the private university colleges is by two main routes. The study found that twenty-six per cent of academics enter the PUCs as fresh post-graduates who have completed their courses and are looking up to build a career in academia, while seventy-four per cent enter as individuals who make a career change from senior positions in other organizations to take up employment in academia. The career changers may have various reasons for deciding to move into academia that may be different from reasons fresh post-

graduates have for choosing to work in academia – the two sets of people coming from different backgrounds and having different aspirations.

The post-graduate students may be interested to pursue a career in academia in order to have a chance to lecture at the highest educational level, and the opportunity to do research regularly. A few of them may even want to enter academia and teach for some time, while looking for an opportunity to move into a more lucrative employment later. On the other hand, the career changers may have their own reasons for changing jobs and moving from wherever they may be into academia. Some of them may be interested to change jobs in order to have a variety or move away from a repetitive and boring job, or may be looking for a good working environment.

Whatever may be the motive, the study found that more career changers are working in the PUCs as academics than post-graduate students.

The finding that more career changers work in the PUCs is proven or supported by evidence from the background characteristics of the respondents. The evidence pointed to an aging professoriate in the private university colleges: 70% of the respondents were aged between 31 and 50 years, while another 16% were above 50 years; with only 14% of the respondents being up to 30 years of age.

The implication is that many of the respondents had worked for so many years in other organizations, and had recently moved into the private university colleges for some kind of reasons. This is particularly so when you also consider the number of years that the respondents have worked in the PUCs. Sixty-eight per cent of the respondents have worked for up to 5 years only in the university colleges; while only 28% of the respondents have worked between 6 and 10 years in the PUCs. So, if someone is above 50 years, and the person has worked for 6 to 10 years only at the PUC, then you should wonder where that individual had been from the

time he completed his university education to about 10 years ago that he entered academic employment at the time he was about 40 years old. This is where the respondents' background information supports the finding that the academic staff in the PUCs includes more individuals who have made career change into academic employment.

#### 4.5 Reasons for Entry into Academic Employment at the PUCs

Table 6 below shows the reasons individuals have for entering academic employment in the PUCs.

Individuals have different reasons for choosing to work in particular organizations, and still different reasons for choosing to go into particular careers. While some do so for self-development or professional development, others may make the choice for reasons such as desire to earn bigger salary, or for higher career progression, or to have job security or simply to change jobs in order to have a variety; and still others change jobs just to have a good working environment. Based on these facts, the study sought to know the reasons why the respondents decided to take up employment with the private university colleges. For that matter, the respondents were asked to select from among a set of stated reasons, those reason(s) that convinced them to decide to take up appointment in academia.

Since an individual may have more than one reason for taking a course of action, the respondents were given an option to pick more than one reason if they thought they made their decision based on more than one reason.

**Table 6. Reason (s) for entry into academic employment at the PUCs**

Reasons for entering academia	Responses	
	F	%
To pursue an academic career	84	27.7
Stepping-stone to enter a bigger job	8	2.6
Chance to do research regularly	41	13.5
Bigger salary	10	3.3
Good working environment	36	11.9
High career progression attracted me	35	11.6
Flexibility of working hours in the university	47	15.5
Good physical work conditions	7	2.3
Change jobs and have a variety	12	4.0
The university offers job security	23	7.6
Total	303	100.0

- Respondents were allowed to select more than one reason

Table 6 shows the results of the survey of the academics in regard to the reasons why they decided to enter the private university colleges. The ranking of the reasons the academics had for moving into academia showed that the desire to pursue academic career (27.7%) outweighed all the other reasons. Among the top five of the reasons the academics had for taking up employment with the PUCs were included, desire to enjoy flexibility of working hours in the university (15.5%); then, a chance to do research regularly (13.5%); and followed by good working environment (11.9%) and desire for high career progression (11.6%).

The ranking indicated that the greatest desire of the majority of the respondents for which reason they chose to enter academic employment was to have opportunity to build an academic career and be able to have the chance to do research on regular basis, within an academic environment generally considered to be flexible in regard to working hours. One interesting

observation among the top five reasons for entering the PUCs is the fact that some of the respondents were attracted by a high career progression in academia, and also by the fact that they were looking for a good working environment in academia – both of which factors may be very difficult to find in a new university college. Some of these new university colleges are housed in single storey buildings and are situated in environments that cannot be described as conducive. Some of them even have not as yet established systems to ensure regular promotion of officers, and in some rigidities associated with the promotion process, including the slowness of the system, perception of unfairness in promotion, and discrimination in the process, has resulted in the lack of career progression for many of the academic staff, especially those in the lower ranks.

The five least important of the reasons given for entry into academia included: the university offers job security (7.6%); wanted to change jobs and have a variety (4.0%); for a bigger salary (3.3%); and, as a stepping-stone to enter a more suitable employment later (2.6%); with the very least reason being to enjoy good physical work conditions in the university (2.3%).

Another interesting observation is the fact that expectation of a bigger salary as a reason for entering academia was found much, much lower down the ordering. This means that the respondents had more cogent reasons than pay for desiring to enter academic employment, in spite of the fact that pay has been identified in some previous studies (e.g. Rees, 1994) as a major factor affecting the recruitment and retention of academic staff.

Thus, the finding from this section is that most individuals would join the private university colleges, first and foremost, for reason of pursuing an academic career.

#### 4.6 Effectiveness of the PUCs' Recruitment and Selection Process

Table 7 below shows the various stages in the HR recruitment and selection process. Recruitment and selection has an important role to play in ensuring worker performance and positive organizational outcomes. Attracting and recruiting the best talent is therefore the first step in creating a superior workforce. Organizations endeavor to improve the effectiveness of recruitment and selection by adopting an HRM approach to recruitment, which involves taking much more care in matching people to the requirements of the organization as a whole, as well as to the particular needs of the jobs (French et al, 2008). Based on these views, the study asked the respondents to confirm if they were taken through all the stages in the HR process, during their recruitment.

**Table 7. The Recruitment Process**

Phases within the recruitment process	Responses		Mean	Std. Deviation
	Yes	No		
You applied for the position	Yes 117 (93.6)	No 8 (6.4%)	1.94	0.246
You attended an interview	Yes 121 (96.8%)	No 4 (3.2%)	1.97	0.177
You provided referees	Yes 115 (92.0%)	No 10 (8.0%)	1.92	0.272
You were selected after interview and sent an appointment letter	Yes 119 (95.2%)	No 6 (4.8%)	1.95	0.215
You were introduced to the organization on assumption of duty	Yes 78 (62.4%)	No 47 (37.6%)	1.62	0.486
You were put through an orientation/Induction prior to commencement of duty	Yes 61 (48.8%)	No 64 (51.2%)	1.49	0.502
You were deployed to a section of the job related to your qualification and competence	Yes 115 (92.0%)	No 10 (8.0%)	1.92	0.272

N = 125 in all cases

#### 4.6.1 **Attracting Candidates**

Advertising is the most obvious method of attracting candidates. Prospective candidates who feel they fit the requirements of the job as set out in the form of role profiles and person specifications in the adverts the organizations put forward then apply for the job. The study therefore asked the respondents to indicate whether they did apply for the job.

Out of the total of 125 respondents surveyed, 117 (93.6%) applied for positions in the private university colleges when they decided to enter academia. However, eight of the respondents, representing 6.4% indicated they did not apply for their jobs.

In any case, it is normal for organizations to, sometimes, search for a certain individual who is very competent and highly qualified, such as a professor and convince him/her to take up a key position in the organization. In such a case it could be that the individuals involved may not necessarily have to write an initial application for employment. For instance, evidence from the statistics (Table 7) showed that 117 individuals applied for the job, but more than that number (121) individuals attended the selection interview. Some individuals who did not apply for the job indicated they were among the number that were interviewed, which goes to confirm that their appointments were also based on their being found suitable after a selection interview, just as in the cases of their colleagues who sent in formal applications for the positions.

#### 4.6.2 **Conduct of Selection interviews**

The purpose of the selection interview is to obtain and assess information about a candidate which will enable a valid prediction to be made of his or her future performance in the job in comparison with the prediction made for any other candidates. Interviewing therefore involves processing and evaluating evidence about the capability of a candidate

in relation to the person specification. It is also meant to obtain specific information about competencies, attitudes, experience, and personal characteristics that can be obtained in a face-to-face meeting (Armstrong, 2010). The study therefore wanted to know if the academics were interviewed before appointment, which should confirm that they were found 'fit' for the organization.

The statistics showed that 121 respondents (96. 8%) attended selection interviews before they were appointed. This showed that majority of the respondents appeared before an appointments committee which found that they could do the job because they were competent, and they were well motivated and they did 'fit' into the organization.

**Table 8. Cross tabulation: Selected after interview against Applied for the job**

Did you attend an interview?		Did you apply for the Position?				Total	
		No		Yes		F	%
		F	%	F	%		
Did not attend interview	No	3	2.3	1	25	4	100
Attended interview	Yes	5	4.1	116	95.9	121	100
Total		8	6.4	117	93.6	125	100

Of the 125 respondents who were surveyed, 117 (93.6%) applied for the job but 8 of the respondents did not apply for the job. Out of the 117 individuals who applied for the job, one person did not attend an interview. Also, out of the 8 individuals who did not apply for the job, five attended an interview while three did not. So, in the end, 121 persons out of the 125 respondents attended interview.

Following the discovery that individuals who did not apply for the job attended an interview, a series of chi-square tests were performed to indicate how much deviation could occur before conclusions could be made that something other than chance was at work, causing the observed to differ from the expected; or, in other words, testing what scientists call the null hypothesis, which states that there is no significant difference between the expected and observed results.

a) The first one pitted selected after interview against applied for the job. The idea was to find out if selection for appointment depended on attendance at an interview. The result of the chi-square test was as follows:  $\chi^2 = 32.462$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > 0.000$ . The result meant that selection for appointment depends strongly on attendance at an interview.

b) Also, following the discovery of the importance of selection interviews, a chi-square test was performed to find out the relationship between attendance at selection interviews and Rank/Staff Grade.

The result was as follows:  $\chi^2 = 1.998$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p < 0.573$

The result showed that attendance at a selection interview does not depend on rank.

c) Again, a chi-square test was performed to find out the relationship between attendance at an interview and Educational Qualification.

The result was as follows:  $\chi^2 = 19.101$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > 0.000$

The result showed that attendance at an interview for a position as academic staff in the PUCs depended strongly on educational qualification.

#### 4.6.3 Provision of Referees

The purpose of a reference is to obtain in confidence factual information about a prospective employee and opinions about his or her character and suitability for a job. It is simply necessary to confirm the nature of a prospective employee's previous job, the period of time in employment, the reason for leaving, the salary or rate of pay and, possibly, the attendance record.

For that matter, the study tried to find out from the respondents if they were asked to submit references during the time they applied for their jobs. One hundred and fifteen (92%) of the respondents provided references to support their applications (Table 7) while ten (8%) did not. This result showed that the applicants were interviewed and therefore the circumstances surrounding the decisions of the academics to join the PUCs were generally unraveled, and any doubts about their intentions were removed, thus clearing them to move into the PUCs upon making sure that the two parties would be able to get on together.

The fact that majority of the applicants used or presented referees is good indication of the PUCs determination to employ the most appropriate selection methods, which is supported by what Cook (1993) refers to as the classical trio, consisting of application forms, interviews, and references.

#### 4.6.4 Issuing of Contracts of appointment

Organizations are obliged to issue individual contracts of employment to successful candidates after the selection interviews, which should satisfy the provisions of contracts of employment legislation. That being so, the study asked the respondents if they were issued with contracts of employment as required by law before they took up their

employment. As many as 119 respondents (95.2%) indicated that they received individual contracts of employment before proceeding to take up their appointments, while strangely enough, six individuals said they did not receive any employment contract prior to assumption of duty, which is an anomaly and must not be encouraged.

#### 4.6.5 Selected Candidates introduced to the organization/Inducted

The first step to achieving commitment is to present the organization during an induction as one that is worth working for during the first weeks of employment. It is therefore important for the organization to ensure that care is taken over introducing new employees to the organization through effective induction arrangements when they first join the organization and making sure they are given the basic information they need to settle down quickly and happily and start work. As a result of this the study asked the respondents if they were properly inducted when they assumed duty. The study found that 78 (62.4%) of the respondents were inducted when they first reported for duty. But as many as 47 (37.6%) of the respondents were not given proper induction on their assumption of duty. This is not a healthy sign since the exercise is too important to be toyed with.

Induction is an exercise that can aid retention of staff. Besides using induction to welcome new employees to the organization, it can also be used to prepare employees for their new role. Being the first step towards gaining an employees' commitment, induction is aimed at introducing the job and organization to the recruit and the recruit to the organization. It therefore involves orientation and training of the employee in the organizational culture, and showing how he or she is interconnected to (and interdependent on) everyone else in the organization. This initial process also provides easy access to basic information, programs and services, and gives clarification and allows new employees to

take active role in their organization. Once the exercise has been done very well over a long period of time (say, at least one week) it can help to whip interest and a sense of belongingness in the new employees, and they wouldn't be thinking of leaving the organization immediately. That is why the PUCs should be thinking seriously about moves to properly organize induction programs for their new recruits.

#### 4.6.6 Appointees deployed to appropriate sections/departments

On assumption of duty, employees are deployed to departments and sections of the organization where maximum use can be made of their competencies. However, more talented candidates who are seen to be versatile can be deployed to areas other than those they initially opted for to take up positions which need to be filled urgently. The study consequently asked the respondents if they were deployed to appropriate areas or sections where they could make good use of their competencies. Out of the total 125 respondents, 115 (92.0%) were deployed to the appropriate departments or sections (Table 7 ) and placed on the specific jobs they applied for. However, 10 (8.0%) of the respondents were given schedules other than what they thought they were going to have. The results showed that the PUCs do a good deployment of their staff, sending them almost entirely to positions where they have the qualification and competency, with only a few individuals deployed to sections other than what they expected, most probably for strategic reasons. For instance, it would not be wrong for the PUCs to identify versatile recruits from among the new recruits, and redeploy them to areas where vacancy urgently, still exists. They would do so with the conviction that such individuals have what it takes to succeed in the new roles.

**Table 9. Cross tabulation: Job deployment against Educational Qualification**

Were you deployed to a section of the job related to your qualification and competence?		Highest Educational Qualification								Total	
		PhD		MPhil		MA		BA / BSc			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No, not deployed to appropriate section	No	-	-	6	60.0	4	40.0	-	-	10	100
Yes, deployed to appropriate section	Yes	7	6.1	61	53.0	39	33.9	8	7.0	115	100
Total		7	5.6	67	53.6	43	34.4	8	6.4	125	100

The results of the cross-tabulation showed that out of the 125 respondents 115 (92%) were deployed to appropriate sections of the organization, while 10 (8%) were not. The results also showed that all the PhD holders among the 125 respondents, numbering 7 (100%) were deployed to sections that they had competence. Also out of 67 MPhil holders 61(91%) were deployed to sections they had competence, while six (9%) were not. Of the MA/MSc/MBA holders 39 (90.69%) were deployed to appropriate sections, while four (9.3%) were not. And among the first degree holders numbering eight, all of them were deployed to sections where they have the competence. The results showed that great effort was made to send the academics to take up jobs in sections where they had competence. Only very few of the academics were sent to areas other than they expected. Those deployed to sections other than they initially applied for were individuals holding MPhil qualification, who may be experienced and versatile. Thus, the redeployment may have been done with good intention, since organizations these days are looking for people who are versatile, who can fit into more than one job or people who have the competence to do more than one thing only.

The results also showed that the organizations were careful to deploy all the staff that had the highest qualification (PhD) and those with the lowest qualification (BSc, BA), to the appropriate sections they have the competence.

**Table 10. Cross-tabulation: Relationship between the Rank of Academics and Deployment**

Were you deployed to a section of the job that befits your rank?		Rank								Total	
		Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No, not deployed to appropriate section	No	-	-	2	20.0	7	70.0	1	10.0	10	100
Yes, deployed to appropriate section	Yes	3	2.6	20	17.4	83	72.2	9	7.8	115	100
Total		3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100

$$\chi^2 = 0.357, df = 3, p < 0.949$$

A cross-tabulation was also conducted to determine the relationship between the rank of academics and their deployment. The results showed that of the three professors among the 125 respondents, all three (100%) were deployed to appropriate sections. Also, of the twenty-two senior lecturers among the 125 respondents, 20 (91%) were deployed appropriately, with only two (9%) deployed to other areas. Out of 90 lecturers among the respondents, 83 (92%) also were appropriately deployed, with only seven (8%) deployed to different areas. The same trend was true of the teaching assistants, with nine (90%) out of the ten individuals in the grade deployed to appropriate sections, and only one (10%) sent to a different area.

A chi-square test conducted to show the relationship between rank of academics and deployment of academics showed that there was no relationship, the results coming out as follows:

$$\chi^2 = 0.357, df = 3, p < 0.949$$

#### 4.7 Factors Employed by the PUCs to motivate Academic Staff

Table 11 below shows some motivational satisfiers that the PUCs employ in attempt to get their academics motivated to good effect. Motivation is the driving force behind human behavior. Motivation theory explains that there are a variety of ways to motivate people. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward – one that satisfies their need. Motivation theories have implications for work situations – specifying a variety of things that can be done to motivate individuals at work for them to put up their very best performances, or to stay and work for their organizations for a very long period of time. Thus, the study, in this section, asked the respondents to declare their level of motivation on a number of factors of motivation on a five-point scale, ranging from ‘not motivated at all’ to ‘highly motivated’.

**Table 11. Motivation of Academic Staff**

Motivation Factors	Stats	Not at all motivated	Not motivated	Not sure	Motivated	Highly motivated	Mean	Std. Deviation
Employee workload/Working hours	F	22	29	50	20	4	2.64	1.050
	%	17.6	23.2	40.0	16.0	3.2		
Job security	F	20	36	38	24	7	2.70	1.123
	%	16.0	28.8	30.4	19.2	5.6		
Monetary compensation/Pay	F	15	39	46	22	3	2.67	0.982
	%	12.0	31.2	36.8	17.6	2.4		
Employee involvement in decision making	F	10	42	40	27	6	2.82	1.019
	%	8.0	33.6	32.0	21.6	4.8		
Constant feedback/Clear communication	F	16	35	48	22	4	2.70	1.008
	%	12.8	28.0	38.4	17.6	3.2		
Learning and development Opportunities	F	14	27	43	36	5	2.93	1.056
	%	11.2	21.6	34.4	28.8	4.0		
Promotion prospects	F	29	36	39	17	4	2.45	1.088
	%	23.2	28.8	31.2	13.6	3.2		
Overall motivation level within the organization	F	13	19	50	37	6	3.03	1.031
	%	10.4	15.2	40.0	29.6	4.8		

#### 4.7.1 Monetary compensation / Pay

Money in the form of pay is a powerful motivator. Economists, accountants and many managers tend to regard money as a prime motivator, although many organizations use money not as a motivator but simply as a means of ensuring adequate staffing.

When the respondents were asked whether the pay they received motivated them or not, the study found that only 17.6% of the respondents were motivated by their pay, while 31.2% were not motivated; with another 12.0% who were not at all motivated by their pay. Also, 36.8 per cent of the respondents, however, were not sure.

Despite the importance of money, pay ( $M = 2.67$ ) ranked very low among the motivational factors in the eyes of the academic staff of the PUCs. The fact that many of the academics from the PUCs were not highly motivated by their pay was not strange, anyway, considering that academics' pay has long been known to be lower than pay received by people with comparable grades or qualifications but working in other organizations (Machin and Oswald, 2000).

The finding that academics in the PUCs were not highly motivated by their pay may be due to the structure of the staff working in the PUCs. The evidence showed that the number of academics holding lower master's degrees and that may be eager to establish an initial standard of living, and who may therefore be looking for higher pay is more than academics who hold doctorate degrees in the PUCs and who are likely to be satisfied with the pay they receive. The result shows that many of the academics working in the PUCs are not motivated by their pay, so the PUCs may have to consider giving their academic staff higher pay. Indeed the evidence shows that many of the academic staff in the PUCs was ranked in the lower and middle portions of the academic staff grades, and

so these were people who may now be looking for higher pay to enable them establish an initial standard of living for themselves.

a) **Cross-Tabulation: Monetary compensation / Pay against Age**

A cross-tabulation of monetary compensation/ pay against age of academics showed that among the academics aged up to 30 years, 22.7% were motivated by their pay, while 10.3% were not motivated. Also, of the academics aged between 31 and 50 years, 54.5% were motivated by their pay, while 71.8% were not motivated. Then, among academics aged above 50 years and above, 22.7% were motivated by their pay, while 17.9% were not motivated.

The results showed that the 31 to 50 year old bracket was the one least motivated by their pay. Indeed individuals within that age bracket are the people that can really be described as the 'middle class' people. They need money to sustain a certain lifestyle that can keep them above the poverty line, lest they fall into the poverty bracket. They own cars and need money to run and maintain their vehicles; they need to move from rented premises into their own apartments; they are the people that have their children in the second cycle and tertiary institutions and need money to pay their school fees, and for their accommodation and maintenance. And, of course they have larger families to support.

Individuals falling within age bracket, up to 30 years, may still be quite young and may not have many responsibilities, and so are likely to be motivated by their pay, provided it is reasonably high. Those in the age bracket, 50 years and above are also more likely to be motivated by their pay because at their age, they may not need too much money to survive. Their children may already have completed college, and so they may not be paying school fees now; they may be living in

their own houses and so they may not be paying rent, and all that. Indeed, they may already have arrived. So, they also may be easily motivated by their pay.

**Table 12. Cross-Tabulation: Monetary compensation / Pay against Age**

Monetary Compensation	Age						Total	
	Up to 30 years		31 to 50 years		Above 50 years			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	3	20	9	60.0	3	20	15	100
Not motivated	4	10.3	28	71.8	7	17.9	39	100
Somewhat motivated	5	10.9	36	78.3	5	10.9	46	100
Motivated	5	22.7	12	54.5	5	22.7	22	100
Highly motivated	-	-	3	100.0	-	-	3	100
Total	17	13.6	88	70.4	20	16.0	125	100

**b) Cross-Tabulation: Monetary compensation / Pay against Sex**

The study also considered another cross-tabulation, monetary compensation/Pay against sex. The results showed that 18.2% of female academics were motivated by their pay. But also a further 66.7% of the females were highly motivated by their pay, with only 23.1% not motivated. For the male academics, 81.8% were motivated, with a further 33.3% being highly motivated. Then, also a high percentage of 76.9 were not motivated.

The results showed that for the females almost all of them were highly motivated by the pay they received. The implication of the results was that female academics in the PUCs were motivated by their pay a little bit more than their male counterparts.

**Table 13. Cross-Tabulation: Monetary compensation / Pay against Sex**

Monetary Compensation	Sex				Total	
	Female		Male			
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	3	20.0	12	80.0	15	100
Not motivated	9	23.1	30	76.9	39	100
Somewhat motivated	10	21.7	36	78.3	46	100
Motivated	4	18.2	18	81.8	22	100
Highly motivated	2	66.7	1	33.3	3	100
Total	28	22.4	97	77.	125	100

c) **Cross-Tabulation: Monetary compensation/Pay against Rank**

Monetary compensation/Pay was also cross-tabulated against rank of academics. The results showed that 9.1% of the academics in the Professor rank were motivated, and 6.7% were not motivated at all. In the Senior Lecturer group, 27.3% were motivated by their pay, while 17.9% were not motivated. Also, in the Lecturer group, 59.1% were motivated by their pay, while 71.8% were not motivated. Then, in the Teaching Assistants rank, 4.5% were motivated, while 10.3% were not motivated. The results showed that academics in the higher academic ranks (Professors and Senior Lecturers) were motivated more by their pay than the academics in the junior ranks (Lecturers and Teaching Assistants).

This may be so because it is likely the staff in the higher ranks may be receiving very big salaries and fat allowances, while those in the junior ranks may be receiving low pay. In this case, the academics in the higher ranks will certainly be motivated more than those in the junior ranks.

It should be noted, however, that individuals with higher qualification and experience everywhere are paid higher salary than those with lower qualification and not very high skill. Thus, it is not strange at all if the professors and senior

lecturers in the PUCs have higher pay and consequently are more motivated by their pay than the other ranks.

**Table 14. Cross-Tabulation: Monetary compensation / Pay against Rank**

Monetary Compensation	Rank								Total	
	Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	1	6.7	-	-	13	86.7	1	6.7	15	100
Not motivated	-	-	7	17.9	28	71.8	4	10.3	39	100
Somewhat motivated	-	-	9	19.6	33	71.7	4	8.7	46	100
Motivated	2	9.1	6	27.3	13	59.1	1	4.5	22	100
Highly motivated	-	-	-	-	3	100.0	-	-	3	100
Total	3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100

#### 4.7.2 Academics' workload /Working hours

Other factors relating to physical needs that might be under the manager's control are working hours and aspects of the physical environment, such as provision of rest rooms or staff common rooms, decent offices for staff, on-campus accommodation for staff and healthcare facilities among others. The study put the specific question of workload/ number of hours worked to the respondents, seeking to know the extent to which they were motivated by their workload. The finding was that only 20 (16.0%) of the academics were motivated by the number of hours they worked, while 29 (23.2%) were not motivated, and a further 22 (17.6%) were not motivated at all by their workload.

The result revealed that the academic staff were not motivated by heavy workload ( $M = 2.64$ ), and also by academic staff promotion prospects ( $M = 2.45$ ). These two factors gave the least motivation to the academics. The evidence from the study showed that one of

the recruitment difficulties the PUCs faced was the fact that certain positions sometimes remained unfilled for a long time. In a situation like this there was the tendency that some of the academics would be given additional responsibility to do extra teaching, which was likely to increase the workload of the staff involved. Also, with the reduction in the admission requirements, the likelihood was that certain classes would be filled with too many students, overloading the staff involved in the teaching of those classes with work. Situations like these would take the time academics have to use for other things, and thus demotivating them.

The cross-tabulation of workload against Rank showed that 11.8% of the professors in the PUCs were motivated by their workload, while 2.8% were not. In the case of the senior lecturers, 11.8% were motivated, while 19.4% were not motivated. Also, in the case of the lecturers, the number that was motivated by their workload stood at 70.6%, while 69.4% were not motivated. Among the teaching assistants, also 5.9% were motivated while 8.3% were not motivated by their workload. Thus, the analysis of the results from the cross-tabulation showed that among the academic ranks, the highest ranked people (the Professors) were motivated by their workload more than the people in the other ranks.

The professors always have bigger responsibilities in the institutions because they are in charge of the faculties and departments. They hold the very top positions and manage the faculties and departments so they tend to be highly motivated by their jobs. Although they may have smaller workload, in terms of teaching and marking of scripts, they use a greater part of their time in the day to run the faculties or do administrative work, and also to attend board meetings. However, the diversity of their responsibilities may ensure that they do not get bored easily, which is the reason why they may still derive greater motivation from their work irrespective of the number of hours they work.

**Table 15. Cross-Tabulation: Employee workload / Working hours against Rank**

Employee workload/working hours	Rank								Total	
	Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	-	-	5	17.2	20	69.0	4	13.8	29	100
Not motivated	1	2.8	7	19.4	25	69.4	3	8.3	36	100
Somewhat motivated	-	-	7	17.9	30	76.9	2	5.1	39	100
Motivated	2	11.8	2	11.8	12	70.6	1	5.9	17	10
Highly motivated	-	-	1	25.0	3	75.0	-	-	4	100
Total	3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100

#### 4.7.3 Security of academic staff

As indicated by Maslow (1970) the need to ensure against deprivation is the security need. Again there are many ways managers can appeal to this need. Insurance, retirement benefits, and permanent employment contracts are common security need satisfiers. Others include consistent supervisory treatment, grievance procedures, and job continuity. The study, thus, asked the respondents how the security of their jobs motivated them.

The study found that 36 (28.8%) of the respondents were not motivated by the security of their jobs, while 24 (19.2%) were motivated, and another 38 (30.4%) of the respondents were not sure.

Job security ( $M = 2.70$ ), along with Constant feedback/Clear communication occupied the middle portions of the ranking of the motivation satisfiers that were examined. The result here emphasizes the fact that although the PUCs are new in the system, almost all of them keep to the status quo, making sure that they employ majority of their staff on permanent contract. They also ensure that other security concerns of the academics are

taken care of. For instance, they adhere to payment of insurance and retirement benefits to the staff, and as well the permanent staff is assured of job continuity. Furthermore, a backlog of students wishing to have university education, continually enroll into the institutions, giving the staff the assurance that their work will always be available. All these make the staff feel secured with their jobs.

**a) Cross-Tabulation: Job security against Age**

The results of the analysis of data gathered from the field showed that the academics in the PUC were not highly motivated by their job security. As a result of this finding, the researcher cross-tabulated academics' job security against age of academics to see the relationship between age and job security. The results showed that among the academics that were below 30 years of age, 8.3% of them were motivated by their job security, while 22.2% were not motivated. Among the academics aged between 31 – 50 years, 75% of them were motivated by job security, but 52.8% in the same age group were not motivated. Then, among academics above 50 years of age, the study found that 16.7% were motivated by their job security, while 25% were not motivated.

The results showed that those aged below 30 years and those above 50 years are the age groups where the academic staff were less motivated by job security. The academics in these two age groups may be bothered by the security need satisfiers that affect their age groups, such as permanent employment contracts, supervisory treatment, grievance procedures, issues about retirement benefits and job continuity.

**Table 16. Cross-Tabulation: Job security against Age**

Job Security	Age						Total	
	Up to 30 years		31 to 50 years		Above 50 years			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	4	20.0	14	70.0	2	10.0	20	100
Not motivated	8	22.2	19	52.8	9	25.0	36	100
Somewhat motivated	2	5.3	32	84.2	4	10.5	38	100
Motivated	2	8.3	18	75.0	4	16.7	24	100
Highly motivated	1	14.3	5	71.4	1	14.3	7	100
Total	17	13.6	88	70.4	20	16.0	125	100

**b) Cross-Tabulation: Job security against Sex**

A cross-tabulation was done to find out the relationships between the sex of an academic and job security of an academic. The cross-tabulation showed that out of 28 female respondents, 20.8% were motivated, while 22.2% were not motivated by job security. In respect of the 97 male respondents, 79.2% were motivated by job security, while 77.8% were not motivated. The results showed that almost equal percentages of male and female respondents were motivated by job security, implying that job security as a motivational factor motivated both the male and female academic staff equally.

**Table 17. Cross-Tabulation: Job security against Sex**

Job Security	Sex				Total	
	Female		Male			
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	6	30.0	14	70.0	20	100.0
Not motivated	8	22.2	28	77.8	36	100.0
Somewhat motivated	8	21.1	30	78.9	38	100.0
Motivated	5	20.8	19	79.2	24	100.0
Highly motivated	1	14.3	6	85.7	7	100.0
Total	28	22.4	97	77.6	125	100.0

#### 4.7.4 Constant feedback/ Clear communication

The social needs include the need to talk to others, to associate with others, to express feelings of friendship, to accept and be accepted. Managers satisfy this type of need by providing opportunities for employees to interact. This can be done by arranging the physical layout of the plant or office to allow people to interact, by providing a senior staff common room, lunch facilities and offering recreational activities. The study revealed that while 22(17.6%) of the respondents were motivated by this factor, 35 (28.0%) were not motivated; while 48 (38.4%) of them were not sure.

Academic employment is an area where constant interaction is needed to ensure work delivery, and where teamwork is a vital ingredient for success. The PUCs are doing their best to ensure that the academic staff has what it takes to make them feel the need to associate with one another. Almost all the institutions have lunch facilities; many have senior common rooms where the members of staff meet to relax and interact, and an atmosphere of peace and tranquility prevails in almost all the campuses. That's why

constant feedback/clear communication ( $M = 2.70$ ) is ranked among the top five of the motivators in the PUCs.

#### 4.7.5 Academics' Promotion Prospects

The ego needs involve the esteem one has for oneself as well as the esteem one has in the eyes of others. A manager can give a deserving employee many symbols of status that fulfill these ego needs: promotions, job titles, privileged parking, private secretaries, spacious offices, a company car, and merit awards. Promotion prospects, in particular, are of special interest to academics, and the study asked the respondents how motivated they were by their promotion prospects.

The result showed that only 27 (21.6%) were motivated, whereas as many as 42 (33.6%) were not motivated, and another large number, 40 (32%) were not sure.

Academics' promotion prospects ( $M = 2.45$ ) was the least in ranking of all the motivation variables in the PUCs. In the P private university colleges, staff promotion prospects, in particular was seen as very problematic. While the evidence showed that the academic staff working in the PUCs had several disadvantages, such as doing too much teaching, having less opportunity to do research and so on, they were still being required to satisfy the same requirements for promotion as they have it in the old, public universities. In addition to the issue of promotion requirements, the qualitative research revealed some rigidities associated with the process of promotion in the PUCs - including slowness of the system, the perception of unfairness in promotion, the discrimination in the process, and the lack of career progression for many of the staff in the PUCs, especially staff in the lower ranks, all of which contributed to making the promotion prospects of the academic staff un-savory.

a) **Cross-Tabulation: Promotion prospects against Age**

A cross-tabulation of promotion prospects of the academic staff against age showed that among those aged below 30 years, 7.4% were motivated by their promotion prospects, while 16.7% were not motivated. Among academics aged between 31 years and 50 years, those that were motivated by their promotion prospects stood at 88.9% while those not motivated were 69%. Then, of the academics aged above 50 years, 3.7% were motivated by their promotion prospects, while 14.3% were not motivated. The results showed that more academics within the age group 31-50 years were motivated by their promotion prospects.

The academics in the younger age group could not be motivated by promotion prospects because of the rigidities associated with promotion. Majority of them might be struggling to meet the requirements for promotion in academia, which includes publishing about one dozen articles in a good magazine, among others. In addition, the slowness of the system of promotion, and perception of unfairness in the system, as well as the lack of career progression at the initial stages of employment, may have discouraged them.

As for the academics aged 50 years plus, some of them may have reached their peak already, and so they may not have any reason to expect any more promotions in their career. Others in the same age group may also not be interested in promotion because they may be expecting their retirement sooner than later.

**Table 18. Cross-Tabulation: Promotion Prospects against Age**

Promotion Prospects	Age						Total	
	Up to 30 years		31 to 50 years		Above 50 years			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	1	10.0	5	50.0	4	40.0	10	100.0
Not motivated	7	16.7	29	69.0	6	14.3	42	100.0
Somewhat motivated	7	17.5	26	65.0	7	17.5	40	100.0
Motivated	2	7.4	24	88.9	1	3.7	27	100.0
Highly motivated	-	-	4	66.7	2	33.3	6	100.0
Total	17	13.6	88	70.4	20	16.0	125	100.0

**b) Cross Tabulation: Promotion prospects against Rank**

The researcher further cross-tabulated the academics' promotion prospects against rank of academics. The purpose was to determine the relationship between the rank of an academic and his/her promotion prospects. The findings showed that in the professor grade 3.7% were motivated, and a further 16.7% were also highly motivated by their promotion prospects. There wasn't anybody in the professor rank that was not motivated by their promotion prospects

In the senior lecturer rank, motivated was 18.5%, while not motivated was 11.9%. Then, among the academics in the lecturer rank 74.1% were motivated as against 81% that was not motivated. Also, in the Teaching assistant grade, motivated stood at 3.7%, while not motivated stood at 7.1%.

The results clearly showed that academics in the senior ranks (Professors and Senior Lecturers) were more motivated by their promotion prospects, while the

academics in the lower ranks (Lecturers and Teaching Assistants) were poorly motivated by their promotion prospects.

By receiving promotions from Teaching Assistant grade to Lecturer and then to Senior Lecturer and Professor, academics in the senior grades may have already passed through the most difficult arenas. Now that they are at the top, they do not have any more problems with promotion, and they need not worry about their promotion prospects. As the adage goes, “the higher you go the cooler it becomes.”

The case of the academics in the lower ranks may be different. The academics in the lower ranks may have good reasons not to have confidence in the promotion system, and therefore the promotion system is not likely to motivate them. They see the system as slow; they find it too tight, they are aware it puts too much pressure on them and, above all, they have perceptions the system does not favour individuals in the lower ranks. So, definitely they are lowly motivated by the promotion projections.

**Table 19. Cross Tabulation: Promotion prospects against Rank**

Promotion Prospects	Rank								Total	
	Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	1	10.0	2	20.0	7	70.0	-	-	10	100.0
Not motivated	-	-	5	11.9	34	81.0	3	7.1	42	100.0
Somewhat motivated	-	-	8	20.0	26	65.0	6	15.0	40	100.0
Motivated	1	3.7	5	18.5	20	74.1	1	3.7	27	100.0
Highly motivated	1	16.7	2	33.3	3	50.0	-	-	6	100.0
Total	3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100.0

#### 4.7.6 Academics Involvement in decision making

The highest of Maslow's needs is self-actualization. Maslow (1970) described self-actualization this way: 'what a man can be he must be'. Maslow (1970) clarified the concept in his description of self-actualized person: good perception of reality, spontaneous, accepting of self and others, problem centering, creative, and independent.

Most management experts feel that an employee's drive to self-actualize can be tapped by giving the person freedom of expression. This might be accomplished by allowing employees to participate in decision making and giving them the power to shape their own jobs. Employee involvement and decision making, then, is very vital in motivating employees to their highest performance. The result from the study found that while 27 (21.6%) of the respondents were motivated by the way they were allowed to get involved in the colleges' affairs and decision making, 42 (33.6%) others were not motivated by their involvement and decision making; with a further 40(32.0%) of the respondents not being sure. Indeed, there were six (4.8%) of the respondents who were rather highly motivated by their involvement in decision making.

Employee involvement in decision making ( $M = 2.82$ ) was at the top of the ranking of the motivation variables that were investigated, being second only to learning and development opportunities ( $M = 2.93$ ). The indication was that academics felt motivated by their ability to participate in different fora, including workshops, seminars, colloquia, departmental and board meetings, and even at durbars, where very often they were given freedom of expression to air their views on many interesting subjects, and also sometimes to make personal contributions to various discussions. The opportunity that is made available to them to get involved in matters affecting the institution where they work, and in matters affecting their own jobs, and sometimes in matters affecting their personal lives

often make them feel that they are valued. And this could be the source of great motivation to them.

a) **Cross-Tabulation: Employee involvement in decision making against Rank**

The factor, employee involvement in decision making was cross-tabulated against the rank of an academic. The results showed that 3.7% of the academics in the professor rank were motivated by their involvement in decision making. There was nobody in the professor rank that was not motivated. In the Senior Lecturer rank, 18.5% were motivated while 11.9% were not motivated by their involvement in decision making.

On the other hand, in the cases of academics in the Lecturer and Teaching Assistants ranks, fewer academics were motivated than those not motivated. While 74.1% were motivated in the Lecturer rank, 81% were not motivated; and also in the Teaching Assistant rank, while 3.7% were motivated, 7.1% were not motivated.

The results therefore showed that the academics in the senior ranks (Professors and Senior Lecturers) were more motivated by their involvement in decision making in the PUCs than those in the lower ranks (Lecturers and Teaching Assistants). It may be that those in the lower ranks were never being given the opportunity to get involved in decision making, so how could they be motivated?

**Table 20. Cross-Tabulation: Employee involvement in decision making against Rank**

Employee Involvement in decision making	Rank								Total	
	Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	1	10.0	2	20.0	7	70.0	-	-	10	100
Not motivated	-	-	5	11.9	34	81.0	3	7.1	42	100
Somewhat motivated	-	-	8	20.0	26	65.0	6	15.0	40	100
Motivated	1	3.7	5	18.5	20	74.1	1	3.7	27	100
Highly motivated	1	16.7	2	33.3	3	50.0	-	-	6	100
Total	3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100

#### 4.7.7 Learning and development opportunities

Learning and development is a critical business process in both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. The organizational process of developing people involves the integration of learning and development processes. Its most powerful outcomes for the business are to do with enhanced personal competence, adaptability and employability (Armstrong, 2009). In the light of this, the study asked the respondents to state the level of their motivation regarding the learning and development opportunities available to them in their institutions.

The study found that learning and development opportunities available in the PUCs were a very great source of motivation to the academics ( $M = 2.93$ ). The variable was the most important of all the variables that were investigated, in the eyes of the academics. The PUCs have not lost sight of the fact that majority of their academic staff do not possess the highest qualifications required of academics employed in higher education institutions. And, for that matter, several measures have been put in place to help give their academics further training and education to enable them to upgrade their knowledge

and skills, so that their performance will be high. Measures, such as, offer of scholarships for further education and training, organization of workshops and seminars, attendance of conferences and colloquia, both in Ghana and overseas, are made available to the staff to enhance their knowledge and skill. This, undoubtedly, is the reason the staff feel greatly motivated by the learning and development opportunities within the PUCs.

A cross-tabulation of the learning and development opportunities against the rank of academic staff revealed that, among the professors 2.8% were motivated by learning and development opportunities available to them in the PUCs, while there was nobody at all in that rank that was not motivated. In the Senior Lecturers' rank, 16.7% were motivated by learning and development opportunities, while 25.9% were not motivated. Of the Lecturers' rank, the study found that 75% were motivated, while 59.3 were not. Then among the Teaching assistants, it was found that those motivated by Learning and development opportunities stood at 5.6%, and not motivated stood at 14.8%. The results indicated that the professors were all in favour of learning and development and its effect on academic staff, so they were well motivated about the opportunity available to the staff in that area. The senior lecturers may not have been so highly motivated about this motivational factor because they may have had enough already. But, more of the lecturers were motivated because they probably see learning and development as their opportunity to get more knowledge and improvement of their skills to be qualified for promotion, and for them to be able to move up higher in ranking. The teaching assistants group may not have been so much motivated because, most probably they may not be getting equal opportunities as those above them in ranking. Fact is, organizations frequently grade the opportunities they give to the staff like this, with the higher ranks benefitting more than the other ranks. If it were so, then that may explain the low level of motivation associated

with the Teaching Assistants' grade, in respect of learning and development opportunities within the PUCs.

**Table 21. Cross-Tabulation: Learning and development opportunities against Rank**

Learning and development Opportunities	Rank								Total	
	Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not at all motivated	-	-	-	-	11	78.6	3	21.4	14	100
Not motivated	-	-	7	25.9	16	59.3	4	14.8	27	100
Somewhat motivated	2	4.7	9	20.	31	72.1	1	2.3	43	100
Motivated	1	2.8	6	16.7	27	75.0	2	5.6	36	100
Highly motivated	-	-	-	-	5	100	-	-	5	100
Total	3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100

#### 4.7.8 Overall motivation of academic staff

Finally, the academic staff was asked to declare their overall motivation level. The analysis in Table 11 showed that the overall level of motivation ( $M = 3.03$ ) of the academic staff was higher than any other single factor of motivation that was surveyed. This implies that even though the academics may not be highly motivated by some of the motivational variables described in the statements, they were generally well motivated, overall, to be able to go on discharging their duties creditably.

The means and standard deviations of the responses to the statements also strengthened the study to determine which of the factors of motivation were more dominant in terms of the academics' level of motivation. From the analysis, it was seen that the top five most dominant factors that motivated the academics the more, were learning and development opportunities ( $M = 2.93$ ), and then academics' involvement in decision

making ( $M = 2.82$ ); before constant feedback/clear communication ( $M = 2.70$ ), and academics' job security ( $M=2.70$ ).

On the other hand, the variables that gave academics the least motivation were monetary compensation/pay ( $M = 2.67$ ); and then academics' workload/working hours ( $M = 2.64$ ); and lastly, academics promotion prospects ( $M = 2.45$ ).

The standard deviations of the answers to the statements further strengthened the study in the determination of the rankings of the statements or motivational factors, since the scores in the distributions do not deviate greatly from the means.

The finding therefore is that academics at the PUCs are least motivated by their pay, too much workload and very long hours of work and , especially, by their promotion prospects; while the factors that give them the highest motivation include learning and development opportunities that are made available to them; and their involvement and participation in decision making. Nevertheless, overall the academics in the PUCs have motivation that is high enough to keep them going about their duties.

#### **4.8 The Extent, and Means by which Academics in the PUCs may be Retained**

Studies have shown that job satisfaction is an important factor influencing decisions to leave a job and, hence, retention difficulties (Freeman, 1978; Clark, 2001). Job satisfaction, in this case, implies being satisfied with a number of aspects of the job, but not satisfaction with only one aspect or a few aspects of the job. Thus, the tendency for academics in the private university colleges to stay on their jobs or leave their jobs would, to a large extent, depend on their overall satisfaction with the academic job itself as well as several dimensions of the academic job.

Thus, academics' overall job satisfaction was seen as a product of satisfaction with a number of different aspects or dimensions of the academic job. Based on this, the study decided to examine a number of elements of the academic job that were deemed to have an influence on the academics' job satisfaction. That meant, in order to understand whether the sector might be suffering from a retention problem or not, there was the need to understand the determinants of overall job satisfaction, as well as the academics' level of satisfaction with each of the dimensions of the academic job. The study therefore grouped the elements of the academic job into four different dimensions, namely:

- a) The actual work itself – (i.e., teaching, including setting tests and marking scripts, research, and administration of departments)
- b) Earnings from academic job – (pay or salary and allowances)
- c) Longer-term prospects of the job – (mainly expectation of receiving promotion, and feeling of having job security); and
- d) Non-pecuniary aspects of the academic job – (opportunities available for enjoying good physical work conditions, such as health-care provision, subsidized accommodation, spacious office, involvement in decision making, and ability to use own initiative in the work, overseas travels, sabbatical, etc.).

In a series of open-ended questions, the study asked the respondents to declare their satisfaction with the elements of the academic job, and to further clarify their responses.

#### **4.8.1 Academic staff satisfaction and retention**

The responses given to the open-ended questions showed that some aspects of the academic job satisfied the respondents, while others did not.

a) **Satisfaction with the academic job itself**

The core academic job consists of teaching or lecturing, including setting tests and marking scripts; then doing research, and also doing some administration work in the departments or faculties. These roles involve a number of activities, some of which were seen as pleasurable, while some were not. The researcher reproduced some of the responses from the academics verbatim:

- **Aspects of the academic job that give you satisfaction and those that do not?**

“Teaching gives me satisfaction. Marking is the problem. Departmental administration is okay, but sometimes the work becomes time-consuming, as students waste too much of my time. For research, if we get the opportunity we will do it – our progression depends on it.”

“I like teaching, especially teaching a small class. What I don’t like is teaching a large class, and then you have to mark too many scripts in the end. Research, too, is not bad. But it wastes too much of my time. I like doing the administrative work also, but it wastes my time”.

“I like teaching more than any other aspect of the work. However, if the class is large, it makes the marking of the scripts difficult in the end. Besides teaching, I like administration work, followed by research and then marking.”

“The workload in this university is too much. My work schedule normally starts at 7.30am. I lecture up to 4.30pm in the main campus. Then, I leave and travel to the university’s city campus to lecture another class there, from 7.30pm to 9.30pm before I go home. Sometimes I get home around 11.00pm. The longer hours of work is taking a toll on me. I am seriously considering leaving the job”.

The various responses echoed almost the same sentiments: teaching is an aspect of the academic job that academics like best, especially teaching a small class. Marking of scripts is an aspect of the academics job that gives academics less satisfaction. Also, research is a useful aspect of the job, but it tends to waste academics’ time, just as administration does, when academics

time for doing other things are wasted by students who always want attention – thus making those aspects of the job also less pleasurable.

The most vivid among the responses was the one in which the respondent echoed his sentiments in regard to the loner hours of work he has to do most often. Naturally and surely that would give anybody great dissatisfaction.

The responses obtained from the open-ended question on the academics' satisfaction with the job itself were converted into a graph and analyzed.

**Table 22. Academics' satisfaction with the job itself**

Satisfaction with the job itself	Teaching		Research		Marking scripts		Administering a department	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Satisfied	104	83.2	70	56	75	60	78	62.4
Not satisfied	21	16.8	55	44	50	40	47	37.6
Total	125	100	125	100	125	100	125	100

The results from Table 22 showed that teaching was an aspect of the academic job that satisfied majority of academics, with 104 (83.2%) of the academics satisfied with teaching, but demand for research output with which 70 (56%) of the academics were satisfied was seen on balance rather negatively due to the fact that “it consumed too much time”, as 44% of the respondents were not satisfied with the research aspect of the job.

Much of the reasons given by the respondents for showing dissatisfaction with the academic job itself stemmed from the academics having to do longer hours of work, arising from heavy teaching loads and marking too many scripts, as these took away the academics' time for doing other things. In addition, 47% of the respondents were not satisfied with administration; too much administrative responsibilities was seen as not very satisfying as students in

particular tended to demand too much of the time at the disposal of the academic staff.

Thus, the results showed that teaching gave academics more satisfaction than any other aspects of the job, especially when the teaching involved a small group of people; on the other hand, heavy teaching loads (resulting in marking too many scripts) and an increase in student numbers had led to greater demands on academics' time (especially when it comes to administration of departments) and had reduced satisfaction.

**b) Satisfaction with academic staff earnings**

Pay has been identified as a major influence on recruitment and retention. Academic staff earnings basically comprised their monthly salary/pay and allowances from doing extra duty. The research tried to find out which aspect of the basic earnings of the academic staff satisfied them the most.

Some of the responses from the academics have been reproduced verbatim:

- **Type of your earnings that gives you greater satisfaction?**

*“The salary is not big enough, so the allowance is more important to me. If the authorities refuse to pay the allowances in time, it worries us because that is what cushions the small salary we receive.”*

*“As for the salary in Ghana, it is nothing to write home about. The allowances are rather important to us because it supplements the salary. Without the allowances some of us cannot last the month. Some of the allowances are also too small. You do work for several hours and they pay you a very small allowance.”*

*“We use our energy and time to do these extra assignments. So it is disheartening that sometimes after doing the work the payment is delayed for a long time. In fact, the allowances mean more to us than the salary self.”*

*“The authorities here always try to find excuses to scrap some of the allowances. That is too bad. That is what reduces our satisfaction with the job. For me, if they know they won’t pay me the allowance, then they shouldn’t even give me any extra work to do. If I don’t do the work and I am not paid, I don’t have problem. But if I do the extra duty and they refuse to pay then I get mad.”*

The responses all stress the importance of allowances to the academic staff. They need the allowances they receive for doing extra assignment to supplement the salary which, in their opinion, is not much. While they know they can do very little by way of getting their salaries increased regularly and promptly, the academics try to do extra work in the hope of earning extra money to top up their salaries. So, for the authorities not to pay their allowances promptly, or for them to decide at a point in time to scrap some of the existing allowances the academics have depended on for a long time and had become used to, only puts them in a state of financial imbalance – a situation that reduces their satisfaction in the job.

The results gathered from the responses to the open-ended question in respect of the earnings of the academics were converted into a graph and analyzed.

**Table 23. Academics’ satisfaction with their earnings**

Academics’ Earnings	Salary		Allowances	
	F	%	F	%
Satisfied	72	57.6	111	88.8
Not satisfied	53	42.4	14	11.2
Total	125	100	125	100

The results from the survey showed that many of the academics in the PUCs seemed to be satisfied with their pay, as 57.6% were satisfied. Indeed, this was not strange. Machin and Oswald (2000) found that the academic job

market is one where many individuals earn less than others in comparable grades but working in other departments. Yet, many academics do not always complain about disparities in their pay, even though many of them acknowledge that their pay was not enough. So, many academics in higher education institutions seem to be satisfied with their pay, and according to Rosen (1986), this ‘suggests that there are elements in the academic employment that compensate for (these) disparities’. Some of the things that may be seen to give academics satisfaction in the face of inadequate pay may likely be the freedom, flexibility and opportunity for creative thought that are in academia.

Whatever the case may be, many of the respondents indicated that if they did any extra work, they expected prompt payment of their allowances. Delays in payment of the allowances, and occasional scrapping of some of the allowances by the authorities were a source of great dissatisfaction to the academics, since the allowances helped to improve their earnings.

The finding therefore was that academics in the PUCs were more interested in the allowances they received from doing extra duty, since the allowances helped to supplement their small salaries and thereby improved their earnings.

**c) Academics’ satisfaction with longer-term prospects of the job**

Another set of factors determining academics’ satisfaction in their job was the longer-term prospects of the academic employment (basically academics’ promotion prospects and job security). Evidence from the qualitative research showed that professors and, to a lesser extent, senior lecturers, were generally more satisfied with their jobs than those in the lower grades, particularly with regards to promotion. There

was evidence also that some aspects of the security of the academic job in the PUCs dissatisfied the academics.

The researcher reproduced some of the responses that the academics gave in answer to the open-ended question regarding the academics' job security.

- **What can you say about the security of your job in the longer-term?**

*“I think those of us not on permanent employment contract do not feel very secure. We seem to be the marginal staff, to be sent off when there is need for downsizing. But in any case we receive our salaries all right; and our social security is also paid regularly. Well, in the longer-term, who knows?”*

*“I am on a permanent contract, yet there are occasions I worry about the security of my job. I worry especially during the admission periods; when many students don't apply for admission I get a feeling that my department may be closed down. Then, what becomes of my job? Perhaps the authorities may have to consider reducing the fees in order to attract more students.”*

*“I am not too much worried about the closure of the university. I believe that even if the owner (of the PUC) is unable to continue running the college, government will take over, and the college will not be closed down. My worry is about being able to upgrade my qualification, so that I can always be in the system.”*

The responses from the academics in regard to their job security concentrated on academics' contractual status, as well as job continuity, and how the academics can go about to ensure that their jobs are guaranteed. Several factors determine the contractual status of an individual, including age of the employee, his or her experience, the urgency attached to the position that the employee is to occupy, and the employment conditions prevailing in the business. While many of the conditions cannot be controlled by the employee, there are certain things that the employee can do to mitigate the situation. For instance, upgrading oneself to the level of the highest educational qualification, may guarantee the employee a measure of continuity.

On the other hand, security satisfiers, such as payment of insurance, social security benefits, and other benefits, while they are being enforced by the government, are unlikely to disadvantage the academics. But the same cannot be said of an institution's inability to attract enough students, for example. It is something like this that can pose a real security threat to a new university college, and cause a disadvantage to the academic staff.

- **How soon do you expect your promotion to a higher rank?**

*“The matter about promotion in this institution is very difficult. I don't have hope that I'll be promoted any time sooner. Four of my colleagues who were promoted some time last year had their promotions nullified after they received their promotion letters, with the excuse that the HR Manager did not give sufficient notice to the authorities, and so there was no money to pay their new salaries.”*

*“The authorities here are always silent on promotions. I don't think anybody here has been promoted in the past five years or so. I don't have any hope of being promoted. Besides, the requirements are cumbersome and very demanding, for a new university like this.”*

*“Talks about promotion dishearten me. There is a lot of discrimination about promotion. They promote only those they know, and they expect some of us to do the donkey job.”*

The responses about promotion posted a bleak picture of promotion prospects in the PUCs. The responses indicated that the individuals involved had all resigned themselves to being where they are: no hope. There was an indication about difficulty involved in getting promoted; a reversal of promotions that had been made and sealed; a lack of official interest in promoting staff; and a tightening of promotion requirements in order to keep people away; as well as discrimination in promotion or, at least, perception of discrimination.

These are interesting revelations. But, it is known that certain requirements for the upgrade of the PUCs depend on the status of their academic staff. So, how will keeping the academic staff glued to the lower ranks enable the colleges involved to be upgraded? And, will these happenings not create retention problems for the PUCs?

The responses obtained from the academics on the open-ended question about their longer-term prospects of the academic job was converted into a graph and analyzed.

**Table 24. Academic staff satisfaction with longer-term prospects of the job**

Longer-term prospects of the job	Job security		Promotion prospects		Total
	F	%	F	%	F
Satisfied	81	64.8	42	33.6	123
Not satisfied	44	35.2	83	66.4	127
Total	125	100	125	100	250

N= 125 across all cases

The results showed that the respondents were more dissatisfied with their promotion prospects (66.4%) than with their job security (35.2%). In respect of promotion, the slowness and lack of career progression, as reported by the respondents, appeared to be a problem in the PUCs and, combined with concerns about a lack of fairness about promotion seemed to be a major potential for academics leaving the sector. In most cases systems were not always clear, and habitually they were not always applied in many of the PUCs. Indeed, in some of the private university colleges, as reported by a number of the respondents, even the systems for promotion had not been established; in most, career progression to top positions had also not been established, or was shelved, even if they were available; and opportunities for

promotion appeared to be non-existent, forcing many academics in those institutions to remain in their current positions for a very long time. Thus, issues about promotion dissatisfied many academics in the private university colleges.

On the question of job security, the position of the academics in the PUCs seemed a little bit better. A reduction in the admission requirements for entry into the universities in the country has guaranteed a flow of a sizeable number of new entrants into the PUCs annually, thus allaying fears of a decline in student numbers that could have affected academics' job continuity and caused a stir on the job security of the academic staff.

Also, contractual status of academic staff could affect their satisfaction. Staffs on non- permanent contracts would be significantly less satisfied with their promotion prospects and their job security, even though they could be more satisfied with their salary and total earnings. However, with a large proportion of academics in the PUCs being on permanent contracts, the effect on job security of the academics was a little bit more moderate.

**Table 25. Chi-square Test: Level of satisfaction with job security against background characteristics**

Personal Characteristics	Chi Square Value	N	df	Probability Level
Age	0.164	125	2	0.921
Sex	0.072	125	1	0.789
Rank	8.864	125	3	0.031
Qualification	1.670	125	3	0.644

The chi-square table showed that in the cases of Age, Sex, Qualification of academics, there were no differences. However, in the case of Rank, there was a difference.

**Table 26. Chi-Square Tests: Promotion prospects against Background characteristics**

Personal characteristics	Chi-square value	N	df	Probability level
Age	3.891	125	2	0.143
Sex	0.658	125	1	0.417
Rank	5.355	125	3	0.148
Qualification	6.524	125	3	0.089

The results showed that in the cases of Age, Sex, Rank, there were no differences. However, in the case of qualification, there was a difference.

**d) Academics' satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the job**

The last set of the predicted satisfaction variables included the following: respondents relations with their manager, being able to use own initiative, respondents' involvement in decision making, and respondents' access to good physical work conditions (such as provision of on-campus accommodation for staff, spacious office accommodation, staff common rooms, medical facilities/ health-care for staff and their dependents, overseas travels, sabbatical leave, etc.)

These elements were grouped into a single common factor for the analysis and called ‘satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the academic job’. The respondents in the survey were then asked to indicate their satisfaction with the named variables and go ahead to explain why they felt they were satisfied or not satisfied with each of the variables.

The researcher reproduced a few of the responses given by the academics concerning the non-pecuniary aspects of their jobs.

*“I think generally I have good relations with the V.C. and the top people. But sometimes they tend to do certain things we, the staff, do not like. For example, they take decisions that do not favour the staff. They do not involve all of us in decision making. But, of course we are able to use our own initiative to do the work most of the time.”*

*“Our conditions of service are just bad. Many lecturers do not have office accommodation. We hang around until we teach our lessons and go home. Even those who have been given office accommodation are complaining that the office spaces are too small. Our clinic is a grade 4 clinic. There are no equipment, and no drugs. Some of us call it a paracetamol clinic.”*

*“The service conditions in this college are poor. The staff here, we do not enjoy anything. All we do is teach, teach, teach; collect your salary at the end of the month, that’s all. We do not have opportunity to travel outside, we don’t go on sabbatical. If we compare our conditions to the conditions in the public universities, then it is pathetic.”*

*“Well, the senior ones among us attend meetings regularly with the top men, so we can say they are involved in decision making. We are also allowed to use our own initiative in doing the work. We go on somehow well with our managers, o.k. But the biggest problem we have here is our poor conditions of service. If we get any opportunity we’ll go somewhere else.”*

The responses from the academics about the non-pecuniary aspects of their job and whether or not they are satisfied about those elements in there showed that while some of the elements satisfied the academics, others did not satisfy them. For instance one can get the impression from the responses that the academics were satisfied about the way they were able to use their initiative in doing their own work. Also it seemed that

the academics were very confident about their involvement in decision making. Indeed, they also had the opinion that the relationship they had with their top management was not too strained. What rather looked to bother the academics were their physical work conditions. They seemed to worry about the physical layout of their institutions – the fact that they lacked office accommodation and other facilities, like senior staff common rooms, in some cases. They complained about service conditions that were enjoyed in public universities, which they lacked, such as health care for the staff and their dependents, opportunity to travel for conferences outside Ghana, and their not being allowed to go on sabbatical, for example.

Some of these conditions could come on board with time, though, especially as the institutions grew and their culture developed. But, for the time being, the lack of them is a source of great dissatisfaction to many of the academic staff in the PUCs.

**Table 27. Cross-Tabulation: Academics' satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the job**

Satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the job	Involvement with decision making		Using own initiative		Relations with Manager		Access to good physical work conditions	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Satisfied	85	68	79	63.2	69	55.2	48	38.4
Not satisfied	40	32	46	36.8	56	44.8	77	61.6
Total	125	100	125	100	125	100	125	100

N= 125 across all cases

The results showed that 68% of the academics were satisfied with their involvement in decision making, while 32% were not; also 63.2% of the academics were satisfied with ability to use their initiative, while 36.8% were not satisfied. Again, 55.2% were satisfied with their relations with the management, while 44.8% were not. On physical work conditions, 38.4% were satisfied, while 61.6% were not.

The results from the current study, as is shown in Table 4-19, however, did not fully echo that of Ward and Sloane (2000), who found in their earlier study on the same theme, that academics rate the opportunity to use their own initiative and their relations with colleagues highly, concluding that the dimensions with which they (academics) were least satisfied were their promotion prospects and their salaries and their total earnings (pay and allowances).

The finding from this current study indicated that the academic staff in the PUCs rated the opportunity to use their initiative very high on their level of satisfaction, and also rated their promotion prospects among the least of the satisfaction variables, just as it was found in the previous study by Ward and Sloane (2000). However, in the present study the other variable the academics were very least satisfied about was not their salaries or total earnings. Instead they were least satisfied about their access to good physical work conditions.

The reasons for the dissatisfaction with physical work conditions in the PUCs were not far-fetched. Many of the PUCs do not have a well laid-out campus. Some are located or housed in rented, single storey apartments. Under such conditions it has been impossible for some of the PUCs to give their academics decent offices on the compound, let alone give them housing accommodation. Most of the institutions have not yet been able to establish health-care facilities of their own to benefit their staff and their spouses as is done in old universities. In some of the PUCs opportunities for foreign travel is non-existent; conditions for staff to enjoy sabbatical are also not available. All these explained why the academics in the PUCs saw the physical work conditions as the least of the variables to give them satisfaction. Thus the physical conditions in the PUCs least satisfied the academics who are employed in the PUCs, alongside their promotion prospects.

**Table 28. Academics' satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the job**

Satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the job	Involvement with decision making		Using own initiative		Relations with Manager		Access to good physical work conditions	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Satisfied	85	68	79	63.2	69	55.2	48	38.4
Not satisfied	40	32	46	36.8	56	44.8	77	61.6
Total	125	100	125	100	125	100	125	100

N= 125 across all cases

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or total earnings. Instead they were least satisfied about their access to good physical work conditions.

As a result of the findings, chi-square analyses were produced to determine which categories of staff were satisfied with any of the elements constituting the non-pecuniary aspect of the job.

**Table 29. Chi-square test: Satisfaction with management practices against personal characteristics**

Personal characteristics	Chi-square value	N	df	Probability level
Age	3.708	125	2	0.157
Sex	0.044	125	1	0.835
Rank	1.831	125	3	0.608
Qualification	3.605	125	3	0.307

The results showed that there were no differences in all cases.

**Table 30. Chi-Square Analyses: Satisfaction with involvement in decision making against personal characteristics**

Personal characteristics	Chi-square value	N	df	Probability level
Age	8.492	125	8	0.387
Sex	1.483	125	4	0.830
Rank	16.489	125	12	0.170
Qualification	14.516	125	12	0.269

The results showed that there were no differences in all cases.

**Table 31. Chi-Square Analyses: Satisfaction with physical work conditions against personal characteristics**

Personal characteristics	Chi-square value	N	df	Probability level
Age	1.229	125	2	0.541
Sex	2.336	125	1	0.126
Rank	0.318	125	3	0.957
Qualification	8.495	125	3	0.037

The results showed that there were no differences in respect of age, sex and rank. However, in the case of qualification, there was a difference.

The reasons for the dissatisfaction with physical work conditions in the PUCs were not far-fetched. Many of the PUCs do not have a well laid-out campus. Some are located or housed in rented, single storey apartments. Under such conditions it has been impossible for some of the PUCs to give their academics decent offices on the compound, let alone give them housing accommodation. Most of the institutions have not yet been able to establish health-care facilities of their own to benefit their staff and their spouses as is done in old universities. In some of the PUCs opportunities for foreign travel is non-existent; conditions for staff to enjoy sabbatical are also not available. All these explained why the academics in the PUCs saw the physical work conditions as the least of the variables to give them satisfaction. Thus the physical conditions in the PUCs least satisfied the academics who are employed in the PUCs, alongside their promotion prospects.

Since the study established that it is the overall satisfaction of the academic staff with their work itself or various aspects of their work that determines their retention,

attempts were made to use cross-tabulations to establish relationships between the overall satisfaction of the academics and some of their personal characteristics.

**Table 32. Cross-Tabulation: Overall level of satisfaction against Rank**

Overall Level of Satisfaction	Rank								Total	
	Professor / Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer / Senior Tutor		Lecturer / Tutor		Teaching Assistant / Research Assistant			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	1	3.2	5	16.1	23	74.2	2	6.5	31	100
Disagree	2	2.1	17	18.1	67	71.3	8	8.5	94	100
Total	3	2.4	22	17.6	90	72.0	10	8.0	125	100

The results of the cross-tabulation showed that among the highest ranking officers (Professors and Associate professors), majority of them (3.2%) agreed they were satisfied overall, while 2.4% were not satisfied. Among the Senior lecturers, 16.1% were satisfied, while 18.1% were not satisfied. The lecturer group had 74.2% being satisfied, while 71.3% were not satisfied. Finally, among the Teaching Assistants, 6.5% were satisfied overall, while 8.5% were not satisfied. The results mean that among the academic staff in the PUCs, the Professors, and the Lecturers were those who feel more satisfied overall with their jobs, and who are more likely to stay.

The reasons for this trend are not far-fetched. Most of the professors working in the PUCs are retired professors from public universities who have taken up jobs with the PUCs as contract workers. The fact that they are already retired, and considering their age, they may, and do not have any more desire above teaching and imparting their knowledge and experience to younger generations, and perhaps receiving the little income they will be paid for their upkeep. They have already arrived and, so why should they not be satisfied with the condition they find themselves in? All is just a bonus to them. On the other hand, the lecturers most of them know they are not very

highly qualified. To them where they have reached may be an opportunity and, therefore, they need to make very good use of it. In the face of massive graduate unemployment in the country, at least, they have a job. Thus, they cannot but feel satisfied with their position.

It is no wonder the Senior lecturers are those not at all satisfied with their conditions overall. Fact is, they may have the qualification and status that can easily place them in other places they consider higher than where they find themselves at the moment, in the PUCs; or other places where they may have more satisfaction. So, in this wise, they may be more difficult to please.

**Table 33. Cross-Tabulation: Overall level of satisfaction against Age**

Overall Level of Satisfaction	Age						Total	
	Up to 30 years		31 to 50 years		Above 50 years			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Agree	6	19.4	21	67.7	4	12.9	31	100
Disagree	11	11.7	67	71.3	16	17.0	94	100
Total	17	13.6	88	70.4	20	16.0	125	100

The results showed that among the staff aged up to 30 years, 19.4% agreed that they were satisfied overall with the job, while 11.7% were not satisfied. Among those aged between 31 to 50 years, 67.7% were satisfied overall, while 71.3% were not satisfied. Also, among academics aged above 50 years, those that were satisfied were 12.9%, while those not satisfied were 17%.

The implication of the result was that it is the academics below 30 years who were more satisfied overall with their jobs. The reason may be that the younger staff may not have been around for long, and so they may not be expecting promotion soon, and also they may not have reached the period in their academic career where they may

be worrying about job security, promotion and job security known to be two elements about which the academics found very little satisfaction. On the other hand, academics aged between 31 and 50 years and beyond may have been expecting career progression for a long time, which may not be forth coming, and therefore making them feel dissatisfied.

**Table 34. Cross-Tabulation: Overall level of satisfaction against sex**

Overall Level of Satisfaction	Sex				Total	
	Female		Male			
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	4	12.9	27	87.1	31	100.0
Disagree	24	25.5	70	74.5	94	100.0
Total	28	22.4	97	77.6	125	100.0

The result of the cross-tabulation revealed that 12.9% of the females in the PUCs were satisfied overall with the work, while 25.5% were not satisfied. On the other hand, 87.1 male academics were satisfied, while 74.5% were not satisfied. The result showed that the male academics were more satisfied with their work than the female.

**Table 35. Cross-tabulation: Overall level of satisfaction against Qualification**

Overall Level of Satisfaction	Highest Educational Qualification								Total	
	PhD		MPhil		MA		BA / BSc			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	5	16.1	15	48.4	8	25.8	3	9.7	31	100
Disagree	2	2.1	52	55.3	35	37.2	5	5.3	94	100
Total	7	5.6	67	53.6	43	34.4	8	6.4	125	100

The result showed that academics among academics holding PhD degrees, 16.1% were satisfied, while 2.1% were not. Among those holding MPhil degrees, 48.4% were satisfied, while 55.3% were not. Then, among those having MA/MSc/MBA

degrees, 25.8% were satisfied, while 37.2% were not satisfied. For the BA/BSc holders, 9.7% were satisfied, while 5.3% were not.

The result indicated therefore that academics with the highest qualification (PhD) were more satisfied most likely because they enjoy privileges on account of their qualification, which others with lower qualifications may not have. Indeed, it is the practice in many institutions to offer those with high qualifications headship of departments, for instance; and these could give higher degree holders more satisfaction. On the other hand, academics holding the first degrees were also highly satisfied because they probably see themselves as being privileged, with opportunities ahead of them for progression, a factor that could raise their satisfaction in the job.

#### 4.9 Employee Engagement and Commitment as Factors Influencing Academic Staff Retention

Although the study revealed that academic staff retention depended on their overall satisfaction with the academic job as well as several dimensions of the academic job, it also came to light that employee work engagement and organizational commitment were factors that helped to retain academic staff in their jobs. Consequently, respondents were asked to declare their levels of engagement and commitment to the organization they worked for.

- **How engaged are you in the work you do?**

Some of the verbatim responses to the question are reproduced here.

*“I am very well engaged in my work. I make sure that I prepare my lessons well in advance, and I also deliver the stuff nicely. My aim is always to ensure that the students understand my lessons. But I don’t think I am so much committed to the institution as I am engaged in my work. I do my work well and I receive my pay, that’s all.”*

*“I don’t play with my work at all. I feel I am engaged in my work; in fact, I am very much committed to my work, more than I am to the organization. I come to school*

*early, I prepare my lessons always, and I make sure I do not absent myself from class lessons.”*

*“My level of engagement in my work is evidenced by my patience and ability to tolerate the students, irrespective of how they misbehave themselves. I am always focused on my work. I don’t bother what goes on around me.”*

- **How committed are you to the organization you work for?**

*“It is difficult for me to become committed to the university. They don’t look after us well. There are so many things they do they don’t involve us in. They don’t attempt to create a sense of community among the lecturers. Only their favorites can be committed.”*

*“I think I’m very well committed to the university. I do everything expected of me without complaints. I obey all the regulations, and I always try not to do anything to bring the name of the college to disrepute.”*

*“Well, I am committed to the college, but my commitment is not very high. I always have issues with the authorities. Look, I don’t even have an office accommodation. Is that o.k.?”*

The results from the verbatim responses indicated that while some of the academics were more engaged in their work, there were others who also felt that they were more committed to the college. In fact, while employee engagement refers to an employee’s loyalty and commitment to his own work, organizational commitment refers to an employee’s loyalty and commitment to his organization. Majority of the academic staff indicated they were more engaged in their own work than they were committed to the organization itself. That is not strange because in any organization only very few of the staff can be more committed to the organization itself than they can be to their own work. This may be due to the self- interest inherent in man.

In any case, according to Wright and Cropanzano (2000), managers want to improve staff engagement because this tends to lead to staff performance, reduces staff turnover and improves the well-being of employees.

Also, Cohen (2000) stated that employees who are engaged actively in their organization may have a feeling of obligation to respond and repay the organization in some form.

And also, according to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) “increasing commitment to the organization is one way for employees to repay their organization”.

Hence, an employee with a high level of engagement is likely to be committed to the organization that provides him with the necessary resources to complete his tasks.

Vance (2006) explains that the process of fostering employee engagement and commitment starts with employer practices such as job & task design, recruitment, selection, training, compensation, performance management and career development.

Since engagement and commitment thus contribute to retention of staff, it would be advisable for the PUCs to endeavor to foster these in their academic staff to help retain them. However, for the present study, the finding is that the academics in the PUCs are not very well committed to the institutions, as they ought to be, for various reasons.

- **Would you like to continue working in this university? Explain your answer.**

The responses given by the academics were rather very curt in all cases. Some of the responses are the following:

*“Yes. But I don’t know why”.*

*“No. Opportunities for growth and development are not much here”.*

*“No. The motivation is very low”.*

*“Yes, so that I can continue to help my students. But conditions must be improved”.*

*“No. These days it is not easy to find a job”.*

*“Yes. This is where I get my salary”.*

*“No. If a better opportunity comes my way I’ll leave”.*

The responses from the academics were very interesting. The results show that a number of the academics may not be well disposed to conditions prevailing in the institutions, yet they do not find the situation as constituting enough grounds for them to leave. Even

those who feel totally not satisfied with conditions and may wish to leave, still see the need to be cautious. Some of them want to stay awhile and hope conditions improved; others recognize the difficulty in securing alternative employment in the country, and wish not to rush their decision. While some of the academics were compassionate enough to think about the fate of their students after they have departed, others would only leave when they have firmly secured what they would judge to be better alternatives.

Thus, the study found that given the conditions in the PUCs, there is no way the academics would rush a decision to leave, which is good for retention of the academic staff.

#### 4.10 Summary of Results

The results of the investigation of the background characteristics of the academic staff showed that majority of the academic staffs (70%) in the PUCs are aged between 31 and 50 years, with only 14% being under 30 years. There are more males (78%) than females (22%) lecturing in the PUCs; and a large majority of the academics (91%) are Ghanaian. Only about 6 per cent of the academics have doctorate degrees, with about 88% of them holding Master's degrees. Eighteen per cent of the academics are in the senior lecturer rank, while a large majority, (72%) are in the lecturer rank. Twenty-eight per cent of the academics have worked between 6 and 10 years in the private university colleges, while about 68% have worked between 1 and 5 years.

Most of the academics in the PUCs have changed their jobs and moved from employment in other organizations and have taken up appointments in academia (74%), while 26% of them have entered the PUCs as graduate students.

The reasons for the graduate students for entry into academia include desire to pursue an academic career, and have the opportunity to do research regularly. On the other hand, the

career changers have different motives for joining academia: they enter because they want opportunities to improve their circumstances.

The PUCs employ their academic staff mainly through the Human Resource Management process that involves attracting candidates through adverts, and conducting interviews to select the candidates who are found appoint-able by a board or a committee. The results revealed that the process used by the PUCs is very effective, due to checks and balances inherent in the process.

The results also revealed that there are several factors the PUCs use in attempt to motivate their academic staff to perform highly, but only some of the factors are able to motivate the academics highly, while others also motivate them less, implying that the PUCs may have to take a second look at their methods.

On the issue of retention of the academics in the PUCs, the results revealed that the retention of the academics depends on their overall satisfaction, both with the academic job itself and with other dimensions of the job. The results further showed that some of the dimensions of the academic job satisfy the academics (such as teaching a small class, marking fewer scripts) while other aspects do not satisfy them (such as teaching a large class and marking too many scripts, or having too much workload or longer hours of work). In addition, doing extra work and being paid promptly for it satisfies the academics, while the academic pay itself is seen as low and not satisfying; other aspects of the job that satisfy the academics include their involvement in decision making, using own initiative, and cordial relationship with management and colleagues.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION OF MAIN FINDINGS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the results or main findings of the study. The study identified the factors which lead to individuals (academic staff) entering and leaving academic employment in the Ghanaian Higher Education sector, specifically in the recently established university colleges. The objectives of the study were to:

- a) Determine the sources from which academic staffs are recruited into the Private University Colleges in Ghana
- b) Determine the background characteristics of the academic staff employed in the PUCs
- c) Find out the reasons individuals have for deciding to enter academic employment in the PUCs
- d) Determine the effectiveness of the process by which academic staff is recruited into the PUCs
- e) Determine the effectiveness of the factors used by the PUCs to motivate their academic staff
- f) Identify the factors that lead to the retention of academic staff in the PUCs.

The study made several findings that are discussed in this chapter.

#### 5.2 Background Characteristics of Academic Staffs in the PUCs

The study of personal characteristics of the academic staff in the private university colleges revealed remarkable results.

The results of the investigation of gender characteristics of academic staff employed in the private university colleges in Ghana showed that females are under-represented in the private university colleges. The female under-representation in the PUCs has a great cause for concern, much so because at this time of the nation's development every effort is being made to encourage female participation in every sphere of national life. Previous studies have shown that a pattern of this nature appears to raise the question of discrimination at the work place, pointing out that female under-representation increased as staff grades increased (EC, 2000, Laafia and Larson, 2001).

However, according to Dearden et al (2003) the causes of female under-representation has been explained differently by more recent studies conducted by the Committee for Women in Economics of the Royal Economics Society. The study by the CWE declared that female under-representation is frequently found in the workplace, but that this was not a cohort effect, as there are fewer women than men even at the lowest grades. The committee suggested that there may be other barriers to entry and/ or problems in higher education employment that are responsible for female under-representation. It mentioned that some of these may be due to discrimination, or human resourcing policies, but others may mostly be due to the nature of the job itself.

The suggestions put forward by the CWE seem to give a clue to the female under-representation found in the private university colleges. While there is no real evidence of discrimination in the PUCs against employment of females, the course structure of those institutions reveal that most of the PUCs do not only offer just a few courses, but also many of the courses on offer in the PUCs are male-dominated courses, as opposed to female- dominated ones. The current study found that almost all the PUCs in Ghana offer courses in Computer Studies. Traditionally, there are fewer females in courses like the mathematical, physical and computer sciences, engineering and architecture. However, majority of the PUCs offer some of these

courses at the expense of female-dominated courses like biological sciences and courses allied to medicine, Linguistics, English language, French or Spanish, — Philosophy, Psychology or Sociology, and Communication. In fact, a few of the PUCs have recently added nursing, which is a female-dominated course to their curricular but it will take time to see the influence this can have.

There may be other reasons also why some females may not be interested in academia: standing in front of a large crowd and talking for several hours trying to explain issues, ideas, phenomena may not be in the interest of many females. Also, considering that the Time Table may place courses that are taught by some females at the time of day they may wish to be out of campus on different agenda, especially in regard to management of their homes, may take the interest of some females away from the academic job.

Thus, the fewer courses on offer in the PUCs, coupled with the kind of courses available, and some other special reasons females have for not been very keen on the academic job, may explain why females are under-represented in the academic staff list of the private university colleges in Ghana.

With regards to the age profile of the academic staff, the current study found that there does not appear to be a bulge in staff approaching retirement in the higher education institutions. The study revealed that two-thirds of the academic staff in the private university colleges falls between the ages 31-50 years, which reflects the pattern of recruitment into the PUCs. The majority of the academic staffs enter the PUCs as individuals who make a career change from previous employment into academia for a variety of reasons. Some of them may have decided to build a career in academia, or to change jobs and have a variety after many years in the previous jobs. Still others may have been attracted by other factors, such as flexibility in working hours in the university, or good physical work conditions, and so on. Whatever the reasons may be, a large majority of academic staff working in the PUCs do not enter as a cohort

but rather as individuals who completed post-graduate studies sometime in the past and took up appointments in other organizations, worked for some considerable length of time and then made a decision to change their career to enter academia for some kind of reasons.

Aside of the career changers, a small percentage of the academic staff in the PUCs consists of young people (aged up to 30 years), being individuals who have recently completed post-graduate studies and have chosen to pursue a career in academia.

On the whole, however, the finding shows that the age structure of academic staff in the private university colleges is similar to that of the national workforce, and there does not appear to be a retirement bulge. This implies that the attrition rate will not be too high or that age of academics in the PUCs will not lead to very high rate of leaving the sector.

The result of the breakdown of staff by nationality showed that only about a tenth of the academic staff workforce in the PUCs is made up of foreign nationals. Reasons that could be adduced for this phenomenon include the fact that the PUCs do not offer a lot of courses. In fact, most of the PUCs offer mainly courses in Business Management and Computer studies. These are courses which many Ghanaian academics can handle and, therefore, the need to attract expertise from abroad is not warranted.

It is also a fact that many expatriates lecturing in the country's universities went back home after the country's economy slumped in the 1980s; and it has not been possible for the universities to bring in many other expatriates to teach in Ghana's universities, due to the unhealthy state of the economy (Mohamedbhai, 2008). In any case many indigenous academics have been trained since then, and even the older, public universities do make use of expatriate academic staff only when the need for such staff is deemed very necessary.

The current situation is that more foreign academic staff is employed in the older, more renowned universities in Ghana than the new university colleges. The fact that very few courses

are on offer in the private university colleges in Ghana, with majority of the courses being mainly business and computer studies, could explain why the PUCs do not see the need to depend on foreign expertise, there being abundance of people with business and computer expertise in Ghana to be used in these areas.

The study also found that less than ten per cent of the permanent academic staff currently teaching in the private university colleges has doctorate degree qualification.

The most common qualification expected of academic staff in a higher educational institution is the doctorate degree, and staffs at new university colleges are much less likely to have a doctorate than at older universities. One possible contributing factor may be that entrants into the new university colleges at the younger ages require higher qualifications than those entering with other skills and expertise. The evidence showed that the majority of the academic staff working in the private university colleges have entered as career changers from employment in other organizations and most did enter the PUCs on account of their experience, skill and expertise.

A more likely factor that may explain why only very few highly qualified academics (individuals with doctorate degrees) are employed in the private university colleges is shortage of such individuals on the academic job market. We can perhaps gain a little more insight into the situation when we consider the evidence from the study: as many as 34 per cent have non-research Master's degrees (MA, MSc, MBA, and MPA). Such individuals may have been employed in the PUCs not because they are more preferred to terminal degree holders, but more likely because of the unavailability of the latter. Certainly, not filling vacant positions with the available individuals holding these kinds of Master's degrees may have exacerbated the employment situation in the university colleges, while it is also possible that many of those currently holding the non-research Master's degrees are still studying for their doctorate degrees.

Concerning the ranking of the academics, the results from the study showed that in the Private university colleges, the lecturer grade was the largest group among the academic staff grades, while the Professor grade was the least.

The professor grade may be the smallest group, but one would have expected that the senior lecturer grade should be the largest grade in a university to allow for quality academic work to be done, particularly at the post-graduate level. There is a handicap wherever the lecturer grade turns out to be larger than the senior lecturer grade. In the first place it may mean the university is not doing well enough by way of promoting the staff, even if they have met the criteria required for promotion to senior lecturer grade, probably because of a desire to save money that should be used to make more payments to lecturers that will be promoted to the senior grades, including their allowances. But the availability of more lecturers at the expense of senior lecturers would also mean the university may not be able to grow rapidly. Again, if it is realized that staffs are deliberately not being promoted, it could lead to some lecturers leaving the employment, with its attendant problems of having to find replacements. On the other hand, effort should be made to encourage the lecturers to endeavor to upgrade themselves, so that they can meet the laid down criteria for promotion to the senior lecturer grade.

The grade structure of employment in the private university colleges, as it is currently, suggests that progression opportunities are very limited in the new university colleges, a phenomenon that has potential to cause dissatisfaction in most of the academics, and which may lead to individuals leaving the sector.

The study also revealed that over two-thirds of the academic staff employed in the PUCs has less than five years of experience in the profession. Knowledge and skill acquired by years of employment in a particular field are very important to ensure that individuals operate at the top level of their jobs. In higher education employment in particular experience, or the knowledge or mastery of a subject gained through involvement in or exposure to the job, is very vital in

ensuring that the individuals contribute their best to enable the institution realize its goals. Unfortunately, many of the academics in the PUCs lack this experience, although they are required to take the decisions that affect policies and determine procedures that should make the universities effective. For that reason, it behooves on the authorities in the PUCs to implement strategies that will ensure that their academic staffs remain in the institutions for as long a time as possible to work and gain the experience that will enable them make a huge contribution to the institution. If the academic staff should be allowed to move on too frequently, the PUCs will continue to lack that experienced base that would catapult them into excellence.

### **5.3 Sources of recruitment of academic staff into the PUCs**

The study found that entrants into academic employment in the private university colleges in Ghana follow two main routes – entering as post-graduate students and also as individuals making a career change into academia. The literature on the supply of potential academic staff was very limited. However, it is a known fact that the most common highest qualification of entrants into academia is a PhD (Bryson and Barnes, 2000a). Also, pathways into academia can be very long and varied. They include the traditional route (progression from school through higher education to a PhD degree to academia) and the career change route (from other employment, or other activity, to academia).

There are many variations on these routes: entrants may have moved a number of times between employment (or, economic activity) and education prior to entering academia; stop-gap jobs or unemployment may have punctuated the pathway prior to entering academia (Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens and Weale, 2005). Indeed, academic employment may be interspersed with other activities.

The evidence from the study indicated that virtually all the private university colleges in Ghana have academic staff that has entered through both the traditional route and the career change route. Two-thirds of the academics in the PUCs entered as career changers, while only one-third of the academics moved into the PUCs as fresh graduates seeking to build a career in academia.

The career changers had many and varied reasons for entering academia, which were not necessarily related to building an academic career. Most of their reasons related to seeking their own comfort and interest, after failing to fulfill their desires in a previous employment. They had reasons such as, changing jobs for a variety (because the previous job had become monotonous) and also changing jobs for a career progression (because they are not getting opportunity in their previous jobs to move up higher in a very fast way as they wanted). Moreover, not all the career changers may have moved into academia from institutions that are related to education; in which case a number of them may be expected to struggle with the exigencies of their new job. Therefore it seems plausible for the PUCs to endeavor to recruit more of the post-graduate students as academic staff, instead of the present situation whereby more career changers are rather recruited into the PUCs.

#### **5.4 Reasons individuals have for entering into academic employment in the PUCs**

The study found that individuals who took appointments in the private university colleges as career changers had many and varied reasons for entering academic employment in the PUCs that differed from the reasons the post-graduate students entering academia had.

Among academics in the private university colleges just over one-quarter (27%) had been keen to have an academic career, as revealed by the findings. For the post-graduate students, taking up a job in academia always means a desire to have a career in academia, and a chance to do

research regularly. For the career changers, other motivations, such as a desire to have a better lifestyle or the desire for change, or a desire to work in a good working environment, or a desire for a good physical work condition, or a bigger salary, may have pushed them into academia. Still few may have been driven through lack of further progression in their previous job, and even wanting variety at work, academia seen as being ‘more relaxed and informal’.

Broadly speaking, a career offering research may have appeared as very important to the graduate students, but non-pecuniary aspects of the job were more often important, particularly to the career changers: most often a good working environment, variety, career prospects and flexibility of working hours.

On their part, the graduate students may have believed that an academic career offered the attributes they wanted from a career. However, there are three important exceptions to this: career prospects, job security and high salary, none of which tended to be seen as good in academia. Instead, slow career progression, lack of job security (particularly at the start of an academic career) and relatively low pay are likely to make many of the academics feel disappointed, and consequently lead to a reduction in the supply of academics from this source.

### **5.5 Effectiveness of the PUCs recruitment and selection process**

The study found that the PUCs recruited their academic staff in the manner most other organizations do, relying on the human resource management process of recruitment to attract candidates and to organize selection interviews, before offering the selected applicants contracts of appointment, and passing them through an induction and on-boarding activities, and then finally deploying them to begin work in sections where they were found fit to work (Armstrong, p.409). Prospective employees may have to go through all the stages involved in the process, often delaying recruitment and the need for staff to work. While the HRM

recruitment process may seem cumbersome and frustrating, and seen often as tinged with a lot of delay, it is still regarded by many as the best way to recruit employees because it involves taking much more care in matching people to the requirements of the organization as a whole as well as to the particular needs of the job (Armstrong, 2009). And, the effectiveness of the process is also high because it follows a conscious recruitment policy with rigorous selection procedures (Townley, 1989).

The evidence showed that the PUCs normally placed adverts in both the print media and electronic media to attract candidates. Requirements for particular positions were normally set out in the form of role profiles and person specifications for recruitment purposes (indicating education, training, qualifications and experience), that provided the basic information to draft and assess candidates. These were usually advertised for the attention of prospective candidates, so that they can find out if they have any chance of success before applying for the job, and then waiting for an opportunity to go through other processes leading to their appointment.

Attracting candidates is primarily a matter of identifying, evaluating and using the most appropriate sources of applicants. In a sense, candidates would be selling themselves, but they would also be seeking to buy what the organization had to offer. Thus, the most important issues needed to be considered above all would be the strengths and weaknesses of the organization, encompassing such matters as the organization's reputation, pay, employee benefits, and working conditions, as well as the intrinsic interest of the job, security of employment, opportunities for education and training, career prospects, and the location of the office. These would be the yardstick to be used to attract top talent.

The PUCs have also set up Appointments Committees, whose duty include interviewing, selecting and recommending for appointment individuals who apply for appointment to positions within the institutions. An interview can be described as a conversation with a

purpose. It is a conversation because candidates should be induced to talk freely with their interviewers about themselves, their experience and their careers. But the conversation has to be planned, directed and controlled to achieve the main purpose of the interview, which is to make an accurate prediction of the candidate's future performance in the job for which he or she is being considered.

However, interviews also provide a valuable opportunity for an exchange of information, which will enable both parties to make a decision: to offer or not to offer a job; to accept or not to accept the offer.

The most essential thing about an interview is that it must be realistic – a ‘realistic job preview’ which should spell out any special demands that will be made on the successful applicant in terms of the standards they will be expected to achieve, the hours they may have to work, the travelling they have to do and any requirement they need to know and take a decision upon. If these are onerous, it will be necessary to convince good candidates that the rewards will be commensurate with the requirements.

A major problem is that the behavior that is observed during the short period of the interview may be uncharacteristic. Also, some participants regard the period of interview as too short for them to be able to demonstrate their capabilities and allow the panel to realistically assess their suitability for the position. However, in spite of widespread and growing criticism of the personal interview as a selection procedure, it is still by far the most common method. It is flexible, relatively inexpensive and acceptable to the candidate and management.

Applicants who are invited for selection interviews conducted by the PUCs are normally required to submit two or three names of reputable individuals who know them very well or the names of their current or previous employers to be used as referees. References are widely used in almost all organizations with a purpose of trying to obtain in confidence factual

information about prospective employees. Organizations simply find it necessary to confirm the nature of one's previous job, period of time in employment, reasons for leaving, the salary or rate of pay, and one's attendance record. But that is not to say that all can go well with the use of referees in the provision of such vital information.

The view is held that personal referees are almost entirely useless, and that all they prove is that the applicant has at least one or two friends (Armstrong, 2009). Also, it is believed that opinions about character and suitability of individuals are less reliable and should be treated with caution. The reason is obvious. Previous and present employers who give references tend to avoid highly detrimental remarks either out of charity or because they think anything they say or write may be construed as slanderous or libelous.

Now, employee references are the positive or negative comments about an employee's job performance provided to a prospective employer. In most cases, a prospective employer will contact a person's current or former employer to seek references as part of the process of considering that person for a new position. Prospective employers check references during the interview process in order to ensure that a candidate's assertions about his or her job skills and work experience are accurate. In fact, obtaining references is considered one of the most important parts of the hiring process because it can provide valuable information that sets one candidate apart from others and facilitates a sound hiring decision.

So, although seeking references has a number of benefits for the prospective employer, providing references can be a complicated issue for the current or former employer. As Olga Aikin (2000) pointed out, companies that provide references have a duty both to the employee who is the subject of the reference and to the prospective employer who is the recipient of the reference. Giving a negative reference may expose the company to legal liability if the former employee does not get a desired job and decides to sue for defamation or slander. But providing falsely positive reference or failing to disclose potentially damaging information can leave the

company open to legal liability as well, if a candidate is selected for a position on the basis of a reference and then commits a crime or causes harm to another person. Thus, “the issue of reference is always controversial, involving a balance of employers’ fears of legal liability, interests in providing relevant information to prospective employers, and concerns for fairness to former employees,” (Harshman, E, and Chachere, D.R., 2000).

Indeed, unless the job and companies are identical, how well can existing or ex-employers judge the suitability of someone they may not know particularly well for another job in a different environment? But, in any case, for good and not so good reasons, organizations often retain interviews as the main method of selection; while the use of references boosts the perception that there is improvement in the effectiveness of the recruitment and selection.

Applicants who are found appointable by the Appointments Committee and recommended for appointment are issued with contracts of employment (the agreement between employer and employee which governs the relationship between both parties). Failing to provide a written contract of employment results in a lack of clarity since neither party knows the precise extent of their respective rights, duties and obligations. By taking the time to carefully prepare a contract of employment for each employee, disputes and ambiguity about the employment relationship can be minimized.

a) **What does the contract cover?**

Individual contracts of employment must satisfy the provisions of contracts of employment legislation (Armstrong, 2009). The content of each contract will depend on the nature of the business and the job which is on offer, although there are some standard terms and conditions. They include a statement of the capacity in which the person is employed and the name or job title of the individual to whom he or she is responsible. They also include details of pay, allowances, and hours of work, holidays, procedures and rules. The best thing employees can do is to endeavor to keep good hold of their

contract documents so that they can make reference to the contents from time-to-time when the need arises.

The letter and Contract of Employment will normally specify the:

- Title and classification of the position
- Supervisory arrangements
- Term of the appointment
- Probationary period (if any)
- Remuneration (salary, superannuation and any allowances or loadings)
- Benefits (recreation, long service and sick leave, travel for business purposes, study programs, etc.)
- Role
- Conduct
- Travel and removal expenses (if applicable)
- Termination of employment

Offers of employment include a precondition that evidence of qualifications, identity and work entitlements be provided for verification. Certain appointments will also require pre-employment medical and/or security checks.

#### b) **Acceptance of the offer**

The applicant must accept the offer of appointment in writing. However, if an employee starts work and accepts remuneration paid by the University without providing written acceptance of the offer, the terms and conditions of the offer, including remuneration, are deemed accepted. In either event, the offer of appointment letter constitutes the basis of the contract of employment with the University.

**c) Declining the offer of appointment**

If the preferred applicant declines the offer of appointment the second ranked appointable applicant may be offered the job (if the Selection Committee made this provision on the Recommendation to Appoint form). If there are no appointable applicants, the position may be re-advertised, or the Selection Committee might consider other recruitment strategies.

Contract arrangements as have been discussed have a great chance to make recruitment effective, and many organizations in many countries across the globe make use of this same process.

Individuals who accept the offer of appointment, and report to assume duty are introduced to the organization and inducted after their assumption of duty. The first step to achieving commitment is to present the organization during an induction as one that is worth working for during the first weeks of employment. It is therefore important for the organization to ensure that care is taken over introducing new employees to the organization through effective induction arrangements when they first join the organization and making sure they are given the basic information they need to settle down quickly and happily and start work.

Induction is aimed at introducing the job and organization to the recruit and him or her to the organization. It involves orientation and training of the employee in the organizational culture, and showing how he or she is interconnected to (and interdependent on) everyone else in the organization. Unfortunately, the current study found that as high as 37.6% of the respondents were not properly inducted. This is not a healthy sign at all because what it means is that, while not taking advantage of the benefits of induction, the PUCs also risk enflaming a retention problem. Giving reasons why taking care about induction is important, Fowler (1996) pointed out that employees are far more likely to resign during

their first months after joining the organization and, if they do, the costs to the organization can be considerable. Indeed, the costs can include recruitment costs of replacement, induction costs (training) and cost of extra supervision and error correction and others.

Induction should take place over a number of weeks, even months. During this time, employees need to assimilate a great deal of information.

Organizational problems could be the main reason some of the PUCs don't take induction of new recruits seriously. Nonetheless, for whatever reason, the costs and the troubles involved in looking for replacements alone should motivate the PUCs to go the extra mile to induct new employees properly, since a good induction can be a good retention strategy.

The normal practice is to deploy new entrants into sections and departments where their qualification and competence can be effectively utilized. The study found that the PUCs did this almost to perfection. Ninety-two per cent of their recruits were so deployed, with only 8 per cent sent to areas they did not originally apply for. However, deploying staff to areas other than where they applied for is not entirely wrong.

Today, all organizations are looking for people who can do more than one thing only – people who are versatile - people who can work in other areas besides what they are known for. These are the sort of people who give the organizations flexibility, room to maneuver. Therefore, the PUCs may have seen those few people as staff that were experienced and versatile, and who could be deployed to fill positions in other areas where vacancies urgently existed, without losing anything much.

## 5.6 Factors employed by the PUCs to motivate the academic staff

The study found that the private university colleges, acknowledging that motivation is the driving force behind human behavior, employed several methods in attempt to motivate their academic staff to feel happy about the job they do and to be energized to give of their best performances, for the benefit of themselves and the organization. However, some of the methods they employed motivated the staff highly, while others motivated them only very little.

There are a variety of ways to motivate people. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward – one that satisfies their need. People are driven by several needs, not just one (Maslow, 1970). People have physical needs or biological needs, safety needs or psychological needs, social needs or love and belongingness, ego or self-esteem needs or status needs, and finally, self-actualization needs or self-fulfillment needs, according to Maslow (1970). Thus, to satisfy these needs the PUCs (managers) must do certain things that motivation theory specifies should normally motivate individuals at work. By that means, the PUCs will be able to make the academics happy, so that they will be encouraged to put up their very best performances for the organization and, or stay with the organization and work for the organization for a long time.

The result of the study on academic staff compensation/pay showed that, although money is very important, the academics working in the PUCs were not highly motivated by their pay.

Individuals need money to be able to satisfy their physical needs. The organization can motivate people through these needs by offering adequate wages and salary (pay). Money is important, and money is also a prime motivator.

However, the respondents (31.2%) were not highly motivated by the pay they received from the academic work, while a further 12% were not motivated at all. The fact is that academics' pay has long been known to be lower than pay received by people with comparable grades or

qualification but working in other organizations (Machin and Oswald, 2000). But what may have influenced the finding that the academics' pay does not motivate them enough within the PUCs is probably the structure of the staff working in the PUCs. The number of academics in the PUCs holding Bachelor's degrees (6%) and non-research Master's degrees (34%), which are lower qualifications, and who may be eager to establish an initial standard of living and therefore looking for a higher pay is greater than academics who hold terminal degrees (6%) and who are likely to be satisfied with the pay they receive.

The implication here is that the pay given to academics who are employed in the PUCs does not motivate a sizeable majority of the academics, and the private university authorities may have to offer higher pay to them to ensure that the academics are well motivated. This situation has an implication for retention, and failure to improve the academics' earnings may result in quite a number of the academics eventually leaving to work in other organizations where they may be paid higher.

The study found also that too much workload or very long hours of work dissatisfied most of the academic staff in the private university colleges.

The workload of academics in some of the university colleges and in certain departments may be higher as a result of the institutions' inability to employ many qualified staff, thereby leading to some vacancies not being filled for a long time. This situation, coupled with reported over-enrollment of students in many of the PUCs, results in increased workload for academics in some of the PUCs. One senior staff in one of the colleges that were surveyed disclosed during the qualitative research how he would start teaching around 7.30am during the day and would continue teaching until 4.30pm in the colleges' main campus before he would depart for the college's city campus to teach another set of students until about 9 o'clock p.m. Then he would leave and get back home between 10.00pm and 11.00pm. He expressed regret for having

chosen to leave his previous employment to work in the university college. This case is evidence that very long hours of work cannot motivate the academic staff.

A situation like this can be avoided through job sharing, but that will also mean the PUCs must be in a position to recruit adequate number of academic staff.

Furthermore, the study found that the academics were not very confident about their job security. The academic staffs were aware the authorities took full responsibility for certain aspects of their security needs, such as the payment of Insurance, retirement benefits, and permanent employment contracts which are common security need satisfiers. They also knew the management took responsibility for other security needs they might be worried about, including consistent supervisory treatment, grievance procedures, and job continuity. Yet, the staff had some more security concerns. Factors leading to feelings of job insecurity were identified in the qualitative research. Some lecturers in some of the university colleges that were surveyed were concerned at the decline in student numbers in their colleges and in their own departments and at the implications of that for their job security. They even tried to advise on how the situation could be improved, suggesting a reduction in students' fees as a way to motivate more students to enroll in their institution. But whether a fee reduction can happen is another matter, seeing that the PUCs are privately-owned institutions which have been established with a motivation for profit. It's no wonder, then, that the academics were not highly motivated by the security of their job. In the survey of the academics regarding the extent to which they were motivated by a number of motivation satisfiers, job security with a mean value of (2.70) ranked below many other security satisfiers.

On the question of constant feedback/clear communication with the academic staff as a motivation satisfier, the study found that the academic staffs were not highly motivated. In fact, communication is one of the most important social needs. There isn't any way that work can progress, if individuals don't meet and talk and discuss issues affecting their work. The

academics need to talk to others, to associate with others, to express feelings of friendship, to accept and be accepted. Managers satisfy this type of need by providing opportunities for employees to interact. This can be done by arranging the physical layout of the plant or office to allow people to interact, by providing a senior staff common room, lunch facilities and offering recreational activities, for instance. However, the fact that the academics were not enthused by constant feedback and clear communication as a factor of motivation may mean that probably the PUC authorities have slackened, and have not taken advantage of a factor that can easily bond the employees and make them stay.

Indeed the researcher discovered on his rounds in all the PUCs he visited that the institutions have in place some of the facilities that Maslow (1970) pointed out can help employees to interact, such as staff common rooms and lunch facilities. But many of them also lack recreational facilities, like football fields and other playing grounds to encourage recreational activities to take place in the colleges. The researcher learnt that any time such activities are organized among the staff in the PUCs people have to travel to other public institutions or public recreational facilities to take part. Indeed this situation limits interaction among the staff to technical and/or academic levels only, greatly reducing the levels of interaction among the staff and lowering their motivation.

In the matter of promotion of the academics to higher grades the study found that a lot of the academics in the PUCs were not motivated at all by their promotion prospects. The result of the survey on the academics' motivation with their promotion prospects revealed that the academics promotion prospects, with a mean value of 2.45, was the factor that motivated the academics the least. The reasons for this may be varied. But it should be noted that promotion is connected with a person's ego need. The ego needs involve the esteem one has for oneself as well as the esteem one has in the eyes of others. A manager can give a deserving employee many symbols of status that fulfill these ego needs: promotions, job titles, privileged parking,

private secretaries, spacious offices, a company car, and merit awards. Contributing to the self-esteem of an employee, while more difficult to achieve, is still within the manager's reach. The assignment of a meaningful project within the employee's capability will provide a chance for considerable self-esteem. Providing adequate training will help an employee successfully accomplish his or her work and enjoy the fruits of that labour. The researcher found that at least some amount of training is provided by many of the PUCs, such as training in computer applications and compilation of test items for examinations, which are done through organization of workshops and seminars in the colleges.

Although provision of these facilities will greatly motivate the staff to give of their best, staff promotion prospects, in particular, is very problematic. While academic staffs working in the PUCs have several disadvantages, such as doing too much teaching, having less opportunity to do research and so on, they are still being required to satisfy the same requirements for promotion as it is in the old, public universities. In addition to the issue of requirement, the rigidities associated with the process of promotion, the slowness of the system, the perception of unfairness in promotion and the lack of career progression for many of the staff in the PUCs, especially staff in the lower ranks, all contributed to make academic staff promotion prospects the factor that motivated the academics the least of all. Indeed the researcher learned from one of the PUCs he visited in course of the study that a number of academics that had been promoted the previous year had been ordered to revert to their previous grades, the difficulties they had gone through before securing their promotions notwithstanding. The explanation given for this action was that the owner(s) had not been adequately informed about the promotions by the Vice Chancellor. However, actions like this do not support retention.

Academics' involvement in decision making (Mean= 2.82) was one of the highest motivation satisfiers among the academics in the PUCs. It ranked second only to learning and development opportunities. Most management experts feel that an employee's drive to self-actualize can be

tapped by giving the person freedom of expression. This might be accomplished by allowing employees to participate in decision making and giving them the power to shape their own jobs. Employee involvement in decision making, then, is very vital in motivating employees to their highest performance. In the survey of the academics' satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the academic job, the result showed that academics' involvement with decision making (68%) ranked highest among all the other elements. The variable was found to give the academics a very high motivation. The academics who mostly be satisfied with involvement with decision making are likely to be those at the top of the academic staff grade, such as the professors and the senior lecturers who are normally made members of the Academic Board and Management Board where they take part in decision making. They are also usually appointed heads of departments and Deans of Faculties where they take several decisions about students and other matters.

Learning and development opportunities were seen by the academics as the highest motivational satisfier, with a mean value of 2.93. Learning and development is a critical business process in both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. The organizational process of developing people involves the integration of learning and development processes. Its most powerful outcomes for the business are to do with enhanced personal competence, adaptability and employability. From the qualitative research, it came to light that almost all the PUCs have in place various kinds of arrangements by which everyone in the sector is encouraged and given the opportunity to learn - to develop their skills and knowledge to the maximum of their abilities or capacity. However, a number of the academics always felt that the package that were in place for their learning and development was always inadequate and expected that much more is needed to be done for them. Perhaps in one sense, the academics were voicing their discontent with the PUCs not providing a package for learning that will fully cover every aspect of their study, including fee payment, accommodation and a stipend to cover the period of their

studies. But it's most likely that the PUCs may not be in a position at the moment to do all these. Thus, while the need to invest in learning and development and the provision of appropriate learning opportunities and facilities are recognized, it ought to be recognized also that the prime responsibility for development rests with the individual, who should do his best to ensure that the little opportunity placed at his disposal is fully utilized.

Although many of the respondents from the PUCs had indicated through their responses that they were not highly motivated by a number of the motivation satisfiers, in the end they showed that their motivation level, overall, was higher than what it was for the individual factors. Whilst 19 (15.2% ) of the respondents said overall they were not motivated to work in the sector and a further 13 (10.4%) said they were not at all motivated, as many as 37 (29.6%) declared that overall they were motivated by the academic job, with a further 6 (4.8%) indicating that they were even highly motivated, overall. Nonetheless, Fifty (40%) of the respondents indicated they were not sure. This result was very encouraging because the academic staff definitely need some kind of a high level motivation to enable them continue to work in the sector, and to perform highly as they are required to do. Whatever the adversities the academics in the PUCs had, they still showed they had, at least, enough motivation to make them continue in their work.

### **5.7 Factors that influence retention of academic staff in the PUCs**

Retention of academic staff was the focus of the research, and the results from the investigations conducted among the respondents revealed that the academics' retention in their jobs depended on their being satisfied with their job, overall, and with some specific aspects of the academic job. In other words the tendency for the academics in the private university

colleges to stay in their jobs or leave their jobs depended on their level of satisfaction with the job itself and with other elements associated with the job.

An investigation of the academics' satisfaction with the academic job itself, and with the academics total earnings, and also with the longer-term prospects of the job, and as well, with some non-pecuniary elements of the academic job led the researcher to identify the elements that give the academics satisfaction, as well as elements of the job that do not give the academics satisfaction.

The elements of the job that were seen as being likely to influence the academics' job satisfaction included opportunity to teach a small class, and consequently having just a few scripts to mark in the end. Also the academics were more interested with earning extra allowances from doing extra assignments, because they saw it as a chance to add some more money to their pay which they perceive to be inadequate, and thereby helping to increase their total earnings.

Again, academics were more concerned with the longer-term prospects of their job, namely their promotion prospects and their job security. In that connection they have great interest in the continuity of their job and in their progression in the job. When they are promoted, they get great satisfaction because then they would be able to satisfy their ego needs.

Academics also were more satisfied with opportunity given them to participate in decision making, something that boosted their ego and meant that they had indeed arrived. In addition, academics were also interested in having good leadership, and therefore cherished good relationship with their managers. The findings from the investigations also revealed that the academics were satisfied greatly by opportunity given to them to use their own initiative in doing their work. They also enjoy very much a package of good service conditions that gives them support, like free health care; or that raises their status, like being given opportunity to

travel overseas to attend a conference. If things went this way, then the academics would feel greatly satisfied with the job, and their commitment to the organization could be guaranteed. And, then, they would not be contemplating leaving the organization any time sooner.

On the other hand, too much workload, being given assignments that take too much of the academics' time for doing other things, and putting the academics in a situation in which they cannot see the way forward in respect of their longer-term prospects; or, denying them opportunity to enjoy good work conditions, or subjecting them to a leadership that persistently harass and torment them, are the sure bet that the academics will be leaving sooner or later for another destination.

On balance, pay raised satisfaction amongst academics. However, a high percentage of academics surveyed said they did not worry much about the pay they received. This position may probably mean that most of the academic staffs see their earnings (both academic salary and other earnings) as being competitive enough and are generally satisfied with their pay.

Also, as has been noted, the academic job market is one where individuals appear to earn less than similarly qualified individuals elsewhere (Machin & Oswald, 2000). Therefore, the fact that many of the academics seem to be satisfied with their pay "suggests that there are elements of academic employment that compensate for these disparities" (Rosen, 1986). This may mean that staff that had already decided to join academia may have already discounted the opportunity to earn a high salary and so one might expect the pecuniary aspects of the job to affect academics less than more highly paid graduates in other sectors, *ceteris paribus*. Also, ensuring pay and promotion decisions are fair and seen to be fair would reduce loss of staff from the sector. Again, expanding the opportunities for promotion is likely to increase retention, irrespective of other changes. It is also possible that the emphasis on promotion is, in part, a result of relatively low pay levels. If so, increasing the pay of academics is likely to increase retention as well.

## CHAPTER 6

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. At the tail end of the chapter, key areas of the study that may need further research have been indicated.

#### 6.2 Summary

The study examined issues concerning recruitment of individuals into academic employment in the private university colleges in Ghana, and their retention. The main purpose of this research was to determine whether the emerging private university colleges in Ghana are able to recruit and retain adequate numbers of academic staff with requisite levels of qualification that they need to operate effectively. To this end, the research sought to find out the sources from which the PUCs recruit their academic staff and their background characteristics. It also tried to find out the reasons individuals have for deciding to enter academic employment in the PUCs. Then the effectiveness of the recruitment process used by the PUCs was also examined. The study then looked to find out whether the motivational factors used in the PUCs were able to accomplish the goals they were intended for; and finally an attempt was made to identify the factors that give satisfaction to, and result in the retention of academic staffs in the PUCs. Thus the focus of this research was on resourcing of the private university colleges, while the academic staffs play a vital role that is regarded as sine qua non for the tasks these new institutions have taken upon themselves.

The theoretical and conceptual frameworks for the research were based on the theories of motivation and the concept of employee engagement and commitment. Two models were also

used to support and clarify the concepts: The Job Performance Model and the Join, Stay, Leave Model.

To conduct this research, and as a means of answering the research questions and attaining the objectives set for the research, a survey method of the descriptive type was considered as the most appropriate research design or plan. In order to ensure an appreciable level of comparability, the study also utilized some elements of the cross-sectional survey design based on the critical analytical method.

A multi-stage sampling design was adopted for this study, which was undertaken between August 2010 and July 2015. A total of 125 respondents were selected from six private university colleges that were drawn from two clusters of private university colleges located in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. This approach was found most desirable because the population considered was large and well spread in different locations over a wide area in the region.

Two main instruments were used for collecting data from the field. In stage one of the study, an interview guide, with unstructured, personal interview schedule was used to collect data qualitatively from key members of the Management and Administrative staff of the sampled university colleges. The respondents surveyed in this preliminary stage of the study were purposively sampled. Then, also, the questionnaire was used to collect data from the academic staff of the sampled PUCs in a quantitative survey, during the second stage of the study. The academics were sampled by a simple random method of the lottery type.

Codification of responses and other data gathered from the field was done manually. Since both the qualitative and quantitative methods were used in conducting this research, the data were separately and differently analyzed. The qualitative research data were analyzed with the aid of the method known as the Constant Comparative Analysis of Grounded Theory, while the

codified data were fed into the computer, in the case of the quantitative research, and processed through the Statistical Package for Social Science Research (SPSS) version 16 system for the production of statistical results. The resultant relevant statistics were represented on tables and graphs. Relational analyses were done by cross-tabulation and the chi-square was used to test whether some significant differences existed between the various responses obtained. All tests of relationships were computed at 0.05 (95 per cent) level of significance. The following findings were made from the results of the analysis of data collected from the field:

- a) The study found that entry into the private university colleges is by two main routes: the post-graduate route and the career changers route. The evidence showed that the academics in the PUCs are recruited from these two main sources. Twenty six per cent of the academics enter the PUCs as students who have successfully completed their post-graduate studies and wish to pursue an academic career at the highest level of education; while 74% enter as individuals who make a career change from employment in other sectors of the Ghanaian economy into academia.
- b) The evidence also showed that the post-graduate students were usually younger, and most of them had taken up the appointment as their first ever job.
- c) On the other hand, the career changers are old employees, people who have worked for so many years in industry, commerce, or the public and civil services, and who now make a career change from senior positions in these organizations to take up employment in academia. There are also a few individuals within the career changers group, mainly retired academicians from the old, public universities in Ghana, who enter the PUCs as contract employees or part-time employees.
- d) About 70% of academic staff in the PUCs is aged between 31 and 50 years; with a further 16% above 50 years. This means the age profile of the academics in the PUCs is skewed somewhat towards the retiring age, due to the fact that majority of the

academics are career changers (rather than post-graduate students), individuals who have entered the PUCs after many years of service at previous employment elsewhere. However, the evidence showed further that there does not appear to be a bulge in staff approaching retirement in the PUCs, and that the situation will not lead to a marked increase in the overall leaving rate in the PUCs

- e) The study also found that only 6% of the academic staff employed in the PUCs has PhD degrees, while the most common qualification required of academic staff in higher education institutions is the doctorate degree. Also, 54% of the academic staff has the MPhil degree and 34% has the MA, MSc and MBA degrees
- f) The evidence showed that the foremost reasons for which the post-graduate students enter academic employment in the PUCs is that they want to pursue a career in academia, so they can have the chance to do research often and also lecture at the highest level of education
- g) The reasons the career changers have for entering academia are diverse and different from those of the post-graduate students. The study found that the career changers have motives that include: wanting to change jobs and have a variety (after working for so many years in one place that has now developed into boredom); or, looking for a high career progression (being aware that opportunities for quick progression may exist in a new university); or, looking for job security (and be able to avoid an imminent trouble in the previous employment); or, for flexibility in working hours (academia known to have much autonomy and flexibility). Some may even have wanted a bigger salary or a good working environment or even a promotion to a higher grade.
- h) The evidence was that the PUCs recruit their academic staff through the HRM process, which involves attracting candidates through adverts, and organizing selection interviews to select the best available candidates. The research found that at

each stage of the process there are certain key measures that are taken to ensure the effectiveness of the process. These include, first and foremost, the opportunity to vet the applications received and sort out those that are likely to fit the position advertised; also the opportunity to meet face-to-face with the applicants during the selection interview to interact with them and have the opportunity to obtain first hand impression of the candidates attitude and behavior; then, there is opportunity also to use references; and then there is a chance to organize an induction programme over a period of time for the applicants to afford the employers a chance to see how they, the candidates 'fit' into the positions they have taken up. All these happenings add up to ensure the effectiveness of the process.

- i) The study found that the motivational factors used by the PUCs to motivate the academic staff to top performance do not completely achieve the intended goal, and that the academics feel a need for more effort in that direction if they are to be highly motivated.
- j) The study also found that in terms of ability to motivate the academic staff, the factors that were highest in the ranking were learning and development opportunities made available to the academic staff, with a mean value of 2.93; followed by the opportunity given to the academic staff for them to get involved in decision making in matters affecting their work (2.82)
- k) On the other hand, the study found that factors that motivated the academic staff the least were their workload/working hours (2.64) and their promotion prospects (2.45).
- l) The study found that the retention of the academic staff by the PUCs depended on the overall satisfaction of the academic staff with the academic job itself as well as with some other dimensions of the academic job, particularly teaching a small class and not marking too many scripts; doing less of administrative tasks; having enough time to do research; having no worries about their job security and their promotion

prospects; having a good relationship with their managers and with their colleagues; being involved with decision making; being allowed to use their own initiative; and, of course having access to good physical work conditions, and then improvement in their total earnings.

**So, what aspects of the job satisfy the academics?**

**a) The academic job itself**

With respect to the academic job itself, the study found that the elements of the job that satisfied the academic staff in the private university colleges, in terms of ranking were: teaching (83.2%); doing administrative work (62.4%); marking students' exam scripts (60%); and doing research (56%).

However, the study found that while the academic staff enjoyed teaching, a very big workload and/or very long hours of work dissatisfied the academic staff. Also, marking too many exam scripts dissatisfied the academics as it took much of the academics' time for doing other things.

**b) Academics' Earnings**

With respect to the academic staff earnings, the research found that the academics were more satisfied with the allowances they received from doing extra work (88.8%) than their actual salary (57.6%). This implies that the academics know that their salaries are not enough. Doing extra work is a means of trying to augment their total earnings. That is why they view the allowances from extra work as being more important to them.

Thus, any delay in paying the academics' their earned allowances dissatisfies them, just as any attempt to scrap any of their existing allowances.

c) **Satisfaction with longer-term prospects of the job**

Regarding the academics' satisfaction with longer-term prospects of the Job, the research found that the academic staffs were less satisfied with their promotion prospects (33.6%) than with their job security (64.8%).

Issues about promotion that worry the academics include the fact that they are allowed to stay in one grade for a long time without being promoted. There is a perception that the PUCs are not interested in giving them promotion. But it could also be that some of the academics themselves are not pulling their weight. Fact is, every university has laid down procedures that academics have to go through for their promotion. Normally, an academic should do a number of publications before he is promoted. Those academics who complained didn't say they met the criteria and yet were not promoted. In that case it may be difficult to say whether their complaints are justifiable.

Issues in job security have got to do with the fear that the PUCs at a point in time may not have enough people registering for programs in the colleges, perhaps as a result of competition with other colleges for candidates, in which case certain departments may have to close down. That issue also may not be a problem at all. What is needed is for the departments to be pro-active, and continually seek to upgrade their programs. If that is done they will always have candidates to apply to do courses with them. It is only when they stick with the same programs for a long time without developing new ones that they can fall into the kind of pit they are now worried about.

d) **Satisfaction with non-pecuniary elements of the academic job**

With respect to satisfaction with non-pecuniary aspects of the academic job, the study found that the academic staff in the PUCs rated very high their involvement in decision making (68%), followed by the opportunity to use their initiative (63.2%) as the elements that gave them greatest satisfaction; while they rated their access to good

physical work conditions (38.4%) the least. Indeed being involved in decision making helps the academics to satisfy their ego needs. But it is also imperative that the institutions make efforts to improve the physical conditions under which the academics work, to give their staff some comfort and satisfaction.

### 6.3 Conclusions

In line with the objectives of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

- There was clear evidence from the study to indicate that the private university colleges in the Greater Accra region of Ghana are able to recruit sufficient numbers of academic staff they need to perform their academic duties. The PUCs recruit their academic staff from various sources, including young post-graduate degree holders who seek employment in academia, and also senior employees from other organizations who wish to change their career and move into academia for several reasons. Whenever necessary, the PUCs also recruit part-time academic staff and retired academics from the public universities to teach courses in their departments. Because Accra is the capital city of Ghana, there are many educational institutions as well as the public and civil services that are located in the region, and many educated individuals are employed in all these institutions. All these show that the PUCs in the region are fortunate to have people to fall on in case of need. That is why they are able to recruit the number of academic staff they require to operate, and why they do not have much difficulty recruiting academic staff.
- However, the evidence also showed that the PUCs have some problem when it comes to recruiting highly qualified academic staff. The study found that less than 10% of the academic staff employed in the PUCs has the PhD qualification, which is the

minimum of qualification required of academics to teach in higher education institutions. The fact may be that there aren't many PhD holders on the academic job market who wish to teach in educational institutions in the country. Many highly qualified individuals may prefer to take up employment in the public and civil services or in industry where they think remuneration is higher than what pertains in academia. And, even among highly qualified individuals employed in academia, majority may still prefer the public universities to the private ones, because of greater satisfaction they derive from better working conditions and well-developed culture in the public universities. For whatever reasons there may be, the evidence showed that most of the highly qualified academic staff usually change their jobs and move from the PUCs to the public universities whenever the opportunity offers itself.

So, the private university colleges may be able to recruit the quantity of academic staff they require any time but not the quality.

- As to the question of whether the PUCs are able to retain their academic staff, the evidence showed that the PUCs have policies in place to train and develop their academics not only to motivate them to top performance, but also to give them enough satisfaction to induce them to stay in the institutions for a very long time and help the institutions achieve their academic mandate. The conditions and policies in place to give their academics satisfaction include the following, among others: getting the academics involved in taking key decisions that affect their welfare; also giving the academics opportunity to use their own initiative in performing their jobs; and also offering the academics flexible working conditions as well as commensurate pay; and, above all, giving the academics learning and development opportunities that will enable them improve upon their qualifications and their status. These and many more are the ways and means the PUCs try to give their academics satisfaction to enable them stay and contribute to the development of the institutions. So it is clear that the

private university colleges in the Greater Accra region of Ghana are able to recruit the quantity of academic staff they require for their operations; and they also have policies in place to continually improve the quality of their academic staff and to ensure that their academics are retained.

#### 6.4 Recommendations

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

On recruitment of academic staff, the study recommended that the PUCs should:

- Make every effort to improve their image as employer of choice so that they will be in a better position to attract more or better (highly qualified) academics and be able to retain the academics they select for employment.
- Try to continue advertising for academic staff with same requisite qualification as that demanded by the public universities, to ensure quality standards and to create quality assurance within the private university colleges' set-up. To promote the retention of the academic staff, the PUCs, should endeavour to work towards the overall satisfaction of their academic staff, so that they will stay. From the evidence gathered by the current research, these would include:
  - Offering the academics career development opportunities and a chance to grow in their chosen field
  - Giving the academic staff regular feedback on how both they and the company are doing
  - Giving the academics a chance to contribute directly to the organization and be recognized for doing so

- Making sure the academics have flexible work schedules that recognize their need for work/life balance
- Giving the academics a good salary or wage and an opportunity to increase it over time
- And, sometimes, also giving them benefits tailored to their individual needs.
- See to improve both the physical layout and the conditions of service and make them attractive to the academics

## 6.5 Areas for Further Research

A number of important gaps in our knowledge, which are relevant to policy development in higher education, have been identified in the report covering the recruitment and retention of academic staff in private university colleges in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. However, based on the findings of the study, there are still some important areas where further research is needed.

### 6.5.1 Employee turnover in the PUCs

Employee turnover is a symptom of a deeper issue that has not been resolved in the present study. These deeper issues may include low employee morale, absence of a clear career path, lack of recognition, poor-employee-manager relationships or many other issues.

A lack of satisfaction and commitment to the organization can also cause an employee to withdraw and begin looking for other opportunities. According to Allen (2008) pay does not always play a large role in inducing turnover, as is typically believed.

A further research can be undertaken in the area of Academic Staff Turnover in the PUCs, to enable us determine the rate of turnover, as well as actual factors that cause turnover in the PUCs.

#### 6.5.2 A national survey of all PUCs

A national survey covering all PUCs in Ghana on recruitment and retention of both academic and management staff is also recommended to enable us see whether what pertains in the PUCs in the Greater Accra is nationwide or not.



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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTITUTE OF CONTINUING AND DISTANCE EDUCATIONTHE UNIVERSITY OF GHANASURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY ENTITLED “RECRUITMENT AND  
RETENTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN PRIVATE UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN  
GHANA”.

Dear respondent,

A survey is being conducted on the above topic. This study is being conducted as part of the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Adult Education.

The questionnaire being handed to you is designed to collect data on academic staff employed in the private university colleges in Ghana. Your candid opinion would help improve the outcome of the study, which is purely an academic exercise. Information obtained from the study will be used for academic purposes only and will be treated as confidential. Please fill the questionnaire below as accurately and honestly as you possibly can. You are assured that your responses will be held in strictest confidence, and your anonymity will be protected.

**SECTION A: (Respondents Background Information)**

- |                                       |                                       |     |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----|
| 1. Age:                               | Up to 30 years                        | [ ] |
|                                       | 31 to 50 years                        | [ ] |
|                                       | Above 50 years                        | [ ] |
| 2. Sex :                              | Male                                  | [ ] |
|                                       | Female                                | [ ] |
| 3. Nationality:                       | Ghanaian                              | [ ] |
|                                       | Non-Ghanaian                          | [ ] |
| 4. Highest Educational Qualification: | PhD                                   | [ ] |
|                                       | MPhil                                 | [ ] |
|                                       | MA/MSc/MBA                            | [ ] |
|                                       | BA/BSc                                | [ ] |
| 5. Rank (pls. tick appropriately):    |                                       |     |
|                                       | Professor/Associate professor         | [ ] |
|                                       | Senior Lecturer/Senior Tutor          | [ ] |
|                                       | Lecturer/Tutor                        | [ ] |
|                                       | Teaching Assistant/Research Assistant | [ ] |
| 6. Number of years of service:        |                                       |     |
|                                       | Before joining this university        | [ ] |

At this university

[ ]

**SECTION B: (Recruitment of Academic Staff into PUCs)**

7. Please indicate by which one of the following routes you entered academia:

- (a) Entered as a freshly qualified post-graduate
- (b) Changed career from previous employment

8. Please make a tick against the reason(s) why you chose to enter this university college

I wanted to pursue an academic career

I wanted a stepping-stone to enter a bigger job

I wanted to have a chance to do research regularly

I wanted a bigger salary

I wanted to have a good working environment

The prospect of a high career progression attracted me

Because of the flexibility of working hours in the university

Because of the good physical work conditions

I wanted to change jobs and have a variety

Because the university offers job security

9. Please indicate by ticking the appropriate column to indicate the steps you went through during your recruitment.

Action	Yes	No
You applied for the position.		
You attended an interview.		
You provided referees.		
You were selected after the interview and sent an appointment letter.		
You were introduced to the organization and inducted on assumption of duty.		
You were deployed to a section of the job related to your qualification and competence.		

10. Can you share any experiences you went through when you were seeking the employment?

.....  
 .....

**SECTION C: (Motivation of Academic Staff)**

11. On a scale of 1 to 5 (with 1 indicating ‘Not at all motivated’; 2, not motivated’; 3, ‘somewhat motivated’; 4, ‘motivated’; and 5, ‘highly motivated’) indicate how well you feel motivated in the job by ticking the column that corresponds to your opinion on each of the following statements.

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Monetary Compensation</b> (The pay you receive and incentives such as bonuses and perks).					
Job Security					
<b>Clear Communication/Constant Feedback</b> (specific and clearly defined feedback on performance, including praise where it is due/ Frequent Interactions about what direction to head, what is to be accomplished & long-term goals of the organization)					
<b>Promotion Prospects</b>					
<b>Employee Involvement</b> (encouragement to staff members to actively participate in the decision making process by providing suggestions and feedback)					
<b>Learning and Development Opportunities</b> (encouragement to employees to take advantage of the growth opportunities available to them within the organization).					
<b>Academic Staff workload/Working Hours)</b>					
<b>Overall motivation</b> level in the job					

**SECTION D: (Academic Staff Satisfaction).**

**12. For each of the following elements of the academic job, indicate by a tick whether you are satisfied or not satisfied with it.**

<b>Element of academic job</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Not satisfied</b>
<b>Teaching</b>		
<b>Research</b>		
<b>Marking scripts</b>		
<b>Administration of dept.</b>		

**13. Please give reason(s) to clarify the answer you gave for each of the elements in question 12.**

.....  
 .....  
 .....

**14. Are you satisfied or not with the earnings from your employment (i.e. pay/salary and allowances)?**

<b>Aspects of earning</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Not satisfied</b>
Salary/ Pay		
Allowances		

**15. Please give reason (s) to clarify each of your answers in question 14.**

.....  
 .....  
 .....

16. Are you satisfied or not with your job security and your promotion prospects?

Long-term prospects the academic job	Satisfied	Not satisfied
Job security		
Promotion prospects		

17. Please give reason (s) to clarify each of the answers you gave in question 16.

.....  
 .....  
 .....

18. Please indicate whether you are satisfied or not satisfied with each of the following non-pecuniary aspects of the academic job.

Elements	Satisfied	Not satisfied
Involvement in decision making		
Ability to use own initiative		
Relations with manager		
Access to good physical work conditions		

19. Please give reason(s) to clarify each of your answers you gave in question 18 above.

.....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....

20. Does management often recognize the role you play for the organization?

.....

Please explain how you feel about this.

.....

21. Do you feel committed to the organization you work for?

.....  
.....

22. Please explain yourself.

.....  
.....

23. . Overall, what is the level of your satisfaction with the academic job?

.....

24. Candidly, do you think you would like to continue working for this university for a long time?

.....

21. Whether yes or no, please give your reason(s).

.....  
.....



## APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE

INSTITUTE OF CONTINUING AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

AN INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE STUDY ENTITLED “RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN PRIVATE UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN GHANA”.

Dear officer,

A survey is being conducted on the above topic. This study is being conducted as part of the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Adult Education.

This interview guide is designed to collect data on academic staff employed in your institution. Since, by your position, you are deemed to be the right person to be able to give the kind of information that the study would require, you are being, please, requested to give up a little of your time to enlighten the researcher on the few issues listed herein. Your candid opinion would help improve the outcome of the study, which is purely an academic exercise. Information obtained from you, sir/ madam, will be used for academic purposes only and will be treated as confidential. Please answer the questions slowly but loud enough so that your answer can be recorded as accurately and as clearly as possible. We hope not to use more than half an hour of your time. Finally, you are assured once again that your responses will be held in strictest confidence, and your anonymity will be protected.

1. Recruitment of Academic staff:

- (i) Sources of academic recruits into your institution
- (ii) Effectiveness of your process.
- (iii) Problems you encounter during recruitment of academic staff

2. Retention of Academic staff:

- (i) Effectiveness of measures in place to motivate your academics to high performance
- (ii) Efforts made to foster commitment in the academic staff
- (iii) Any measures in place to improve retention in your university.

Thank you

