

## Reducing Employee Turnover in Tertiary Institutions in Ghana: The Role of Motivation

Abudu Amadu Musah<sup>1\*</sup>, Joseph Kofi Nkuah<sup>2</sup>

1.Faculty of Education, University for Development Studies, Tamale

2.School of Business and Law, University for Development Studies, WA, Ghana

\*Email:amabudu2012@gmail.com

### ABSTRACT

Labour turnover and its adverse effects on institutional productivity remains a major challenge to many tertiary institutions in Ghana. This study looks at labour turnover and its implications on productivity in the Tamale Polytechnic. The study used descriptive survey as a research design with a convenient sample size of 120 respondents. The study discovered that most of the employees in the Polytechnic were not satisfied with the motivational factors in place at the Polytechnic thereby contributing to the high labour turnover in the institution. The study recommended that staff development policies be taken seriously since it has the potential of reducing labour in the Polytechnic.

**Key Words:** Institutional Productivity, Challenge, Labour Turnover, Motivation

### Introduction

The problem of academic staff retention is a global one which affects both developing and industrialized countries. The difficulties within Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries are well documented. In the United States, for example, about 7.7% of all full-time academic staff left their institutions for other places within one academic year – from Fall 1997 to Fall 1998 (National Centre for Educational Statistics, 2001). The source further indicates that of these, only 29% were retirees; the remaining 71% left for a variety of reasons. A 2000 survey of full-time faculty members in the US showed that more than 40% of them had contemplated changing careers (Sanderson, Phua and Herda, 2000). In Canada, it has been argued that one of the challenges that universities will face over the next decade or so is academic recruitment and retention (Carleton University, 2000; The Laurier Institution, 2000). Similarly, “it has been suggested that early in the 21st century there will be a crisis in Australian higher education with an estimated academic labour shortage of 20,000 if this trend is not addressed” (Mathews, 2003:313). Most African countries face a huge challenge in terms of skilled human resource capacity, which has a debilitating effect on its ability to make strides in the areas of socio-economic and political development. While various efforts have been made to address the problem, there seems to be little progress, due to a variety of reasons, particularly, the inadequate investment in education and other training programmes (Ndulu, 2004). Thus, while the World Bank, for example, made significant investments in capacity building initiatives in several countries during the 1990s, these initiatives have not generated sustained human capital benefits for the countries thereby resulting in the outflow of professionals to more developed countries of the world (Ndulu, 2004). An appropriate and critical starting point for addressing the issue of human resource capacity building and, by extension, socio-economic development, is the university. As Evenson (2004:174) surmises, “the escape route from the mass poverty now endemic in most African countries is improved income. This means invention and reinvention, innovation, and reverse engineering. Such processes require skills that can be produced only in higher education programmes.” Evenson (2004) laments that the universities themselves do not seem capable of mobilizing the intellectual strength needed to drive these processes. This therefore serves as a threat to the efforts of tertiary institutions to retain the best brains in order to realize their objectives of becoming middle and high level manpower developers. Indeed, staff development/retention remains a major challenge (Ng’etheAssie-Lumumba, George and Esi 2003) and Blair and Jordan (1993) also highlighted the problems posed by high turnover in seven African universities. Most researchers (Bluedorn, 1982; Kramer et al., 1995; Peter et al., 1981; Saks, 1996) have attempted to answer the question of what determines people’s intention to quit an organisation by investigating possible antecedents of employees’ intention to quit. To date, there has been little consistency in findings to the causes of these, which is partly due to the diversity of methods employed by researchers and lack of consistency in their findings (Kalliath and Back, 2001). Similarly, the ever-increasing number of tertiary institutions in Ghana also makes academic staff very fluid thereby leading to a possibility of high demand for them. According to a survey conducted in 2009 on Labour Turnover in the Tamale Polytechnic by the Planning Unit (Tamale Polytechnic, 2009), many senior members are leaving the Polytechnic to the universities for greener pastures. For example forty three (43) staff members have left the Polytechnic between 2008-2011 (Personnel Unit of Tamale Polytechnic, 2011). These therefore put a threat to the Polytechnic’s vision of becoming the best middle level man-power training institution in West Africa and Ghana in particular. There is the need therefore to investigate

the role of motivation in staff retention and increasing productivity

## THEORITICAL ISSUES

### Overview of Labour Turnover

The issue of employees' turnover is a much study phenomenon. According to Price (1977), the term "turnover" is defined as the ratio of the number of organisational members who have left during a given period divided by the total number of people in that organisation during the period. As vacancies are created voluntarily and involuntarily, new employees are hired to fill these vacancies. Mitchell (1981) describes labour turnover as the gross movement of workers in and out of employment with respect to a given company. Price (1977) also defines employee turnover as the ratio of the number of organisational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organisation during the period. In another perspective, Woods, Heck and Sciarini (1995) also referred to employee turnover as each time a position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new employee must be hired and trained. This replacement cycle is known as turnover. In view of differential characteristics associated with employee turnover, it is further classified into three categories by Griffeth and Hom (2001) namely: (1) voluntary or involuntary; (2) functional or dysfunctional; and (3) avoidable or unavoidable. According to Griffeth and Hom (2001), involuntary turnover refers to the termination of the employment relationship initiated by the company or when there is natural occurrence of death to the employee. They conclude that little research has been carried out on involuntary turnover because most organisations consider it desirable and necessary. On the other hand, voluntary turnover receives the most attention by researchers in their bids to explain the mystery of employee turnover in an organisation (Steers and Mowday, 1981). These researchers developed models to explain voluntary turnover. Most theories on voluntary employee turnover come from the ideas of March and Simon (1958) on the perceived ease and desirability of leaving one's job. According to Taylor (1991), job satisfaction and job alternatives tend to be considered as integral to voluntary turnover. Job attitudes combined with job alternatives predict intent to leave, which are direct causes to turnover. The people become dissatisfied with their jobs, search for alternatives, compare those options with their current jobs, and leave if any of the alternatives are judged to be better than their current situation (Mobley, 1982). Hom and Griffeth (1991) produced a summary model featuring job satisfaction and unemployment rate as two of the six predictors. Voluntary employee turnover is considered to be functional for the organisation. Dysfunctional turnover, on the other hand, is voluntary separation of employees whom the organisation prefers to retain (Dalton, Todor, and Krackhardt, 1982). The latter form of turnover has been classified as dysfunctional based on the employee's turnover characteristics. Turnover type is classified as: (1) voluntary or involuntary; (2) functional or dysfunctional; and (3) avoidable or unavoidable (Griffeth and Hom, 2001).

### Employee Motivations

Motivation plays a crucial role in enhancing productivity in an organisation. In view of this, various scholars have expressed their views on what motivation stands for and how it could be ensured at the work place. According to Mullins (2007), "motivation can be described as the direction and persistence of action" (p.2250). McShane, and VonGlinow (2000) also describe motivation as "the forces within a person that affect his or her direction, intensity and persistence of voluntary behavior" (p.66). Praising staff and telling them the good things they have done, are other cheap ways of monitoring and motivating them (Templar, 2005). Similarly, Lee-Ross (2002) further asserts that motivation is the process of gratifying the internal as well as the external needs of individuals in an organisation through actions and behaviours that are capable of securing optimum working environment. Kumar and Sharma (2001) also describe motivation as the force which moves the person to action, and enables him or her to continue in the course of action that has already been initiated. Simply put, motivation can be explained as the driving force that propels or energizes behaviour of workers to put up their maximum best in order to ensure higher productivity. Motivation plays a vital role in reaching and fulfilling the goals and objectives of an organisation by trying to motivate, inspire, and raising their satisfaction and self-esteem in order to be highly productive that in turn will lead to the fulfilment of organisation's goals and objectives. According to Herzberg (1959), there are two dimensions of employee motivation: hygiene issues and motivators. Hygiene issues cannot motivate employees, but can minimize dissatisfaction (Hall et al., 2010). These include company policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions (Hall et al., 2010). They argue that motivators can create job satisfaction by fulfilling employee needs for personal growth. These include achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself. Moreover, employees tend to have higher job satisfaction when they feel they have a sense of empowerment in their organisation (Butts, Vandenberg, Schaffer, and Wilson, 2009). From the organisational standpoint, maintaining high job satisfaction through motivation reduces turnover (Robinson et al., 2003). Employee motivation also impacts positively on staff effectiveness at work and leadership strength of an organisation (Hall et al., 2010). Hall et al. (2010) further maintain that employee expectations on motivational packages from managements are often not met. Through

the lens of expectancy theory, employees tend to perform based on desired outcomes in relation to their perceived expectations of obtaining those outcomes (Vroom, 1964). In addition, Hall et al. (2010) assert that the theoretical framework of expectancy theory often drives research on job satisfaction. Also, Isaac, Zerbe, and Pitt (2001) found that influencing others to ensure that maximum job satisfaction is derived could occur by using a “pull, rather than push, strategy” (p.224). In other words, it involves motivating employees on an individual basis, thereby aligning their efforts (expectancy) with outcomes (valence) to enhance job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964). Content theories tend to be largely external (example, pay and co-workers), whereas process theories tend to be largely internal (example, comparisons and expectations) (Hall et al., 2010). One of the universal process theories is the theory of inequity propounded by Adams (1963). On the aspect of referent selection, Whisenant, Pedersen, and Smucker (cited in Hall et al., 2010) studied how employees determine their job satisfaction through motivation by exploring the referent selection process. Essentially, there is a strong correlation between high involvement work practices and empowerment (Butts et al., 2009). Research supports that satisfied employees are likely to be more productive at work than unsatisfied employees (Hall et al., 2010).

### **Reward Systems**

The greatest amount of motivation is present when people perform tasks that are rewarding, both intrinsically and extrinsically (Lawler, 1990). Extrinsic rewards relate to tangible things that an organisation makes available to employees in order to induce or influence their behaviour to perform (Lawler, 1990). According to Sethi and Pinzon (1998), one of the major criteria for the quality of work life is adequate and fair compensation. Compensation broadly refers to all the ways in which an organisation may reward employees for the services that they render. These rewards could include wage and salary payments, fringe benefits, such as vacations, pensions, and medical aid, status symbols, promotion and security. Lawler (1990) views compensation as the primary inducement offered to employees in exchange for the contributions of labour services in the employment contract. Compensation management methods and techniques can significantly affect the relationship between an organisation and its employees. Sethi and Pinzon (1998) explain that such methods and/or techniques should not create fixed cost patterns and operational constraints but should be managed as a variable linked to the strategy and success of the organisation. Schuster and Zingheim (1992) assert that reward system as motivational strategies should be designed to drive, reinforce and sometimes alter the culture in such a way that the organisation’s goals will be supported. There are many different types of pay systems which include piecework with a wide variety of formulae, measured day-work and high-rate systems, plant-wide incentives and framework processes which affect employee pay (Martocchio, 1998). In various ways all these systems try to relate performance to pay, whether it is individually or through small or large groups.

### **Implications of Labour Turnover**

Labour turnover comes with enormous effects on organisations as it distorts the wage and salary systems put in place by managements. Employee turnover is expensive from the view of the organisation, and the subsequent replacement process entails manifold costs to the organisation (Curran, 2004). According to Denvir and Memahon (1992), several studies have proved that labour turnover has significant effects on organisation. In a similar view, Barrows (1990) argues that high turnover rates might have negative effects on the profitability of organisation if they are not managed properly. Research suggests that hiring and training a replacement worker for a lost employee costs approximately 50% of the workers annual salary (Johnson, 1986). When an employee leaves an organisation, it is presumed that productivity drops due to the learning curve involved in the replacement, understanding of the job functions and the organisation rules and its associated culture. Furthermore, the lost of intellectual capitals adds to this cost, since not only does the organisation loses the human capital and relational capital of the departing employee, but other competitors tend to gain through the employment of these personnel (Meaghan and Bonts, 2002). Therefore, if labour turnover is not properly managed it would adversely affect an organisation in terms of personal costs and in the long run affect its liquidity position. According to Meaghan and Bonts (2002), turnover is described as a costly phenomenon and a difficult exercise to undertake. The difficulty of estimating the financial costs of labour turnover arises because of the range of variables involved. There are four main categories of costs which can be calculated (Meaghan and Bonts, 2002). These, according to them, are:

1. Administrative costs: These include advertising, interviewing applicants and medical examinations;
2. Training costs: Preparing new workers for their new jobs often requires on-the-job training;
3. Production costs: These costs often arise from the relative inefficiency of using new employees; and,
4. Miscellaneous costs: These include increased accidents and sometimes wastage of materials.

Turnover costs could be calculated by using one of the following formulas:

- Cost per employee =  $\frac{\text{Total cost of turnover in e.g. one year}}{\text{Average number of employees during one year}}$
- Cost per leaver =  $\frac{\text{The cost of turnover in e.g. one year}}{\text{Number of leavers during one year}}$

- $L = P/M \times T$   
Where:  
L = Loss in terms of Ghana cedis  
P = Plan production in Ghana cedis, e.g. in one year  
M = Man hours worked during the period  
T = Man hours lost in turnover during the period (Meaghan and Bonts, 2002).

Excessive labour turnover can be extremely costly, particularly if the cases require replacement training. Usually the more specialized the job that needs to be filled, the greater the cost and delay in finding the right person (Chang, 2006). Certain professional jobs often take a year or more to fill. Example, a hospital that loses a Urologist may struggle for a longer period to get one due to the scarcity of these professionals. Chang (2006.) further asserts that the cost of labour turnover varies from industry to industry and from company to company. There are both positive and negative effects associated with high and low labour turnover. High labour turnover can potentially facilitate adjustment if firms that need to decrease or restructure their staffing can utilize attrition and layoffs to adjust, and if workers can profit from hiring and job opportunities to secure better job matches. Also, larger flows may bring more fragility, less security and more uncertainty to workers (Gimpelson and Lippoldt, 2001).

There are certain advantages, according to Gimpelson and Lippoldt (2001), to lower labour turnover. They argue that these include enhanced worker motivation and commitment to corporate goals, lower resistance to change (in light of apperception of employment security), and increased incentive to employers to invest in training their workers. The reason so much attention has been paid to employee turnover is that employee turnover has significant negative impacts on organisations (Dyke and Strick, 1990). There are negative impacts on customer service and satisfaction. In other words, high turnover is more likely to provide poor customer service and can ultimately lead to customer dissatisfaction. Anecdotal evidence illustrates that in a company experiencing 150% turnover, customers are continually being served by new employees (Wood and Macaulay, 1989). High turnover rates might have negative effects on the profitability of companies. Birdir (2002) conducted research on two divisions of the Marriott Corporation and found out that there was a significant relationship among turnover, customer retention, and company profitability.

### **Causes of Labour Turnover**

#### **Job related factors**

Most researchers (Kramer, Callister and Turban, 1995) have attempted to find answers to what determines people's intentions to quit from jobs. In a similar view, Mano, Negrin and Tzafir (2004) indicate that people quit from organisations for economic reasons. Using economic model, they showed that these can be used to predict the labour turnover on the job market. Well-established organisations can provide workers with better chances for advancement and higher wages, and hence ensure organisational attachment (Kreitner and Kinicki. (1998). Role ambiguity refers to the difference between what supervisors expect of their subordinates on the job and what the subordinates think they should do. This causes uncertainty about what the role of workers should be at the workplace. It can be a result of misunderstanding what is expected, how to meet the expectations or the employee thinking the job should be carried out differently (Muchinsky, 1990). According to Tor and Owen (1997), insufficient information on how to perform the job adequately, unclear expectations of peers and supervisors, ambiguity of evaluation methods, extensive job pressures, and lack of consensus on job functions or duties may cause employees to feel less involved and less satisfied with their job and careers, less committed to their organisations, and eventually display a propensity to leave the organisation.

#### **Organisational factors**

Simon and Hinkin (2001) observe that organisational instability has been known to have a high degree of high turnover, and that employees are more likely to stay where there is a predictable work environment and vice versa. In addition, Ogoshi (2006) also posited that in organisation where there was a high level of inefficiency, there was also a high level of staff turnover. This means that organisations which are not stable, employees tend to quit and look for placement in stable organisation where they can predict their career development. Employees have a strong need to be informed and organisations with strong communication systems capable of creating awareness to their employees on information required by them tend to enjoy low turnover of staff (Lee, 2006). Employees feel comfortable to stay longer in positions where they are well informed on pertinent issues concerning the organisation and their welfare. Employees need to fully understand the issues that affect their work (Johnson, 1986). Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) noted that pay and pay-rated variables have a modest effect on turnover.

#### **Employee Motivation and Retention**

Lake (2000) suggests that understanding employee motivation is as important as being able to identify strategies to ensure employee retention. The Institute of Development Studies (IDS) (2004) suggests that in order to gain an accurate perspective of internal causes of turnover, it is useful to look at both quantitative and qualitative



information in relation to how employees can be retain in an organisation. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), UK also suggests that it is important for employers to have an understanding of the rate of labour turnover in the institutions and the effect on organisational effectiveness (CIPD, 2004). Depending on the size of the business, understanding the levels of turnover across occupations, locations and particular groups of employees can help inform a comprehensive retention strategy. By understanding the nature of the turnover problem, an organisation can decide whether to adopt targeted retention initiatives, for example at particular sites or groups of employees, or to manage overall levels so that there is sufficient labour (Morrell, 2004). Another strategy for reducing turnover is the application of crude wastage rate for measuring turnover (Barton, 2002). This is done by the number of leavers in a given period as a percentage of the average number of employees during the same period. To calculate the average number of employees during a given period, organisations often add together the number of employees at the beginning of the period with those employed at the end of the period and divide it by two. The simplicity of this measure means there is less risk of different parts of the organisation supplying inconsistent data. However, the crude wastage rate has its limitation because it includes all types of leavers – both voluntary and involuntary leavers (Barton, 2002). Morrell (2004) holds the view that a single measure of turnover that does not distinguish between cases where people left because they were dissatisfied and where people left because of ill-health or retirement will be inadequate because it treats leavers as a homogeneous group. Furthermore, when calculating replacement figures it may be misleading to base them on crude wastage rates which include employees that do not need replacing (IDS, 2004). The crude wastage rate also makes no distinction between functional (i.e. beneficial) and dysfunctional turnover. In another perspective, Wood and Macauley (1989) identified numerous short-term and long-term prescriptions to cure turnover. Each employee has his or her own mentor who provides him or her with a special assignment and development plan. With this formal structure, the employees can contact their mentors by telephone or in person to help them grow in their jobs (Hogan, 1992). Some studies indicate that line-level employees with mentoring relationships are likely to feel more positive about working for their hotels than employees who are not receiving any type of mentoring. Mentors also seem to make a difference in employee decisions about whether to stay or to leave the organisations. Effective selection practices play important roles in eliminating candidates who are at high risk of not lasting long on the job (Bitzer, 2006).

## RESEARCH APPROACH

### Research Design

Every research requires a well-defined framework upon which the research will be conducted. The study adopts a descriptive survey of non-experimental research design to investigate the implications of labour turnover on polytechnic administrators in Tamale Polytechnic. The descriptive survey method was adopted for the study in view of its flexibility and ability to obtain in-depth information from respondents especially in relation to motivation and staff retention among polytechnic staff (Yin, 2003). In similar view, Bernett (1991) adds that descriptive survey is a very suitable design for research because it affords the researcher an opportunity to obtain accurate information from field study thereby helping to achieve the best results for his or her study.

### Population and sample

Research population refers to the total number of people associated with or living in the area around which the study is being conducted (Yin, 1994). In terms of Tamale Polytechnic as an area for which this study was conducted, it has a staff population of 478 with 381 and 97 being male and female staff, representing 80% and 20% respectively (NCTE data for Tamale Polytechnic, 2010) as shown in Table 3.1 below.

### Table3.1: Staff of Tamale Polytechnic by Ranks, gender and Roles

This explains a huge gender disparity in terms of male and female representation in the institution. In addition, the data shows that the Polytechnic has a total academic staff strength of 226 whilst the non-academic staff also constitute 212, indicating that the Polytechnic has a huge resource when it comes to staff numbers. With regard to staff by rank, the Tamale Polytechnic has five (5) Principal Officers made up of the Rector, Vice Rectors (2), Registrar, Librarian and the Finance Officer. However, the second Vice Rector who is in charge of non-tertiary programmes is by convention as illustrated in Table 3.2, next to the Principal Officers include the Deans of Schools and the Dean of Student. The Polytechnic is also made of fifteen (15) academic departments with 13 of them being males whilst 2 are females.

### Table 3.2: Staff of Tamale Polytechnic by Key Positions

Much the same, the departments has 15 sectional heads with 14 of them being male and 1 female. Also, with the 15 course coordinators each in every department, 4 are female and the remaining are male staff. However, the situation is different since both male and female staff have equal representation in terms of Hall Masters/Mistresses (that is, 2 Hall Masters and 2 Hall Mistresses). With regard to administration, there were 11 administrative units with 10 of them being male whilst only one of them being female. In order to ensure smooth administrative procedures and clear reporting lines, staff of Tamale Polytechnic were grouped into three ranks

including junior staff, senior staff and senior members and these spanned through both the academic and non-academic divide. Bennett (1991) holds the view that in view of large population figures associated with study areas coupled with limited resources, it is always prudent for researchers to select a sample population from the entire population of the study area to ensure easy analyses. Contextually, a sample is described as a subset or a portion of the total population (Bennett, 1991). As argued by Nsowa-Nuamah (2005), “A survey basically involves the sampling of a population to estimate the numerical characteristics of the population” (p.95) The rationale is to make generalization or inferences based on the study of the samples about parameters of the population from which the samples are drawn (Yin, 2003). Obeng (2003) holds the view that sampling a population for research is advantageous for the following reasons:

- It saves time and resources;
- It minimizes problem of record keeping since researcher is handling relatively smaller number of respondents; and
- If well done, it can be highly accurate.

Considering the nature of staff population of Tamale Polytechnic, one will come to a realisation that it contains the relevant population characteristics in terms of numbers, sex distribution, ranks and variety of job specifications with regard to academics and non-academics. This made the study population unique in a sense and this provided grounds for assurances that the researcher was able to derive relevant information from the population to inform the study.

#### **Sample size determination**

This study used a sample size of 120 respondents comprising both academic and non-academic staff of Tamale Polytechnic. The sample size was deemed representative enough to reflect the general views of staff on the thematic areas of the study as contained in the study objectives. The researcher used purposive sampling technique to select the five principal officers of the Polytechnic who include the Rector, the Vice Rector, the Registrar, the Finance Officer and the Librarian. In addition to the five Principal Officers were the four (4) Deans of Schools and Students Affairs, 15 Heads of Department and 11 Heads of Administrative Unit who were also be selected for the study using the purposive sampling technique. The reason was that these staff constituted critical decision making bodies in the Polytechnic thereby making their inputs on labourturnover and its implications to polytechnic administrators very relevant, hence the use of purposive sampling technique for their selection. This brought the number of respondents to thirty five (35). On the other hand, systematic random sampling technique was used to select the other eighty five (85) respondents from the remaining 443 (478 staff population – 35 Principal, deans and HODs= 443) staff. This was performed by using a sampling interval of  $(443/85=5.2) 5$  to select the respondents from the remaining 443 staff. The first element was determined through a lottery method from the staff list. With this sampling interval, the list of staff were counted in a non-replacement form and the 5th element of every staff counted was selected for the study starting from the first element when counting. For this to be done, the researcher obtained staff profile from the Personnel Unit of the Polytechnic which contained names, ages, ranks and qualifications of all staff of the Polytechnic.

#### **Procedure for data collection**

The researcher started the project by visiting all the units/departments and number of staff in the Tamale Polytechnic. Through this, better insights of the institution and its structures were adequately realised. Respondents were selected using purposive and systematic random sampling techniques as described earlier. The objectives of the research were made known to respondents with assurance of confidentiality and anonymity. Healey and Rawlinson (1994) holds the view that an assurance from researcher to respondents that confidential information is not being sought makes interviewees more relaxed and opened in their responses. In order to carry out the field survey, four field assistants were trained on how to administer the questionnaire. They were also be trained on how to identify eligible respondents in accordance with the sampling techniques used in the study. To this end, respondents were located and given questionnaire each to provide their views on the implications of labour turnover in the polytechnic. At the end of each day, the number of questionnaires administered were counted and stored to ensure that they do not get loss. All completed questionnaires were then assembled and organised for processing.

#### **Research instrument**

Research instrument refers to the tools such as questionnaire, interview schedule, observation and other forms of guides the researcher uses to obtain information from elements under investigation (Pope, 2000). This study adopts questionnaire as the research instrument for the study (Sarantakos, 2005). The research instrument titled “labour turnover and its implications to polytechnic administrators” was used to gather data for the study. The research questionnaire was divided into five sections-sections “A”-“E”. The section “A” of the research questionnaire describes respondents’ background information, categories include: gender, age, rank, level of education and length of service in the Polytechnic. Section “B” on the other hand described possible variables associated with the implications of labour turnover on the Polytechnics whilst the section “C” also described a

set of questions that could obtain in-depth information on the factors that contribute to labour turnover. In addition, section “D” looked at the associated cost of labour turnover on the Polytechnic while section “E” also covered the employee motivation that will prevent them from leaving the polytechnic. The questions used in the questionnaire were semi-structured and administered to 120 respondents selected for the study. Closed-ended and opened-ended questions were used to obtain information from the respondents. As a way of minimizing researcher bias, the open-ended questions provided an opportunity for respondents to elaborate and provide further details on variables of consideration (Punch, 2004:52). On the other hand, the closed ended questions offered respondents enough time and space to provide appropriate answers to the questions by choosing from possible options made available to them in the questionnaire. However, most of the questions were closed-ended. This was to ensure that respondents’ views were guided within the thematic areas dictated by the research objectives so as to prevent too much digression.

### **Types of Data for the Study**

The data for the study were obtained from two main sources namely; primary and secondary sources. Primary source of data involves data the researcher obtains through the field work. Data of this calibre allow more informed judgment about the quality and usefulness of information a researcher intends to use. The primary sources of data were obtained mainly from the analysis of the views of the respondents selected for the study. This included information received from respondents through the analyses of their responses and the type of data constituted the main source of data to be used by the researcher in the study. The researcher also used secondary data to guide the overall objective of the study. The secondary data or data from archival sources were obtained from existing works of others including books, journals, news papers, magazines and many other existing sources. Stewart and Karmins (1993) made a case that secondary data is very useful in providing bibliographical information on relevant sources to augment fresh knowledge primary source of data provides. However, the researchers cross-checked the data to verify their authenticity before using them in the study. In other words, critical analyses were made of these data by taking into consideration their sources, ages and relevance to the topic under study. This is to ensure that only relevant but authentic data are considered in the study.

### **Pre-Testing**

Before the commencement of the real field data collection, the researcher performed a pre-test at the Wa Polytechnic because it has similar features with the Polytechnic. A sample size of 10 was selected and administered with the questionnaire. The exercise helped the researcher to eliminate ambiguous and irrelevant questions.

### **Data Processing, Analyses and Presentation**

Quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed by means of elementary statistical analysis. Frequency distribution, percentages and bar-chart/pie-chart were used for simple reporting purposes and easy understanding of readers. A coding manual was designed after knowing the nature of responses. Both open and closed-ended questions were coded. Data were analyzed with the use of cross tabulation to establish relation labour turnover and its implications on polytechnic administrators. This was done using Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS version 16) computer software. This software analysed the data by grouping the key variables that are identifiable to the activities of the study institution so as to come out with clear picture of implication of labour turnover on polytechnic administrators in the Tamale Polytechnic.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

### **Demographics of the Respondents**

This section specifically discussed the age, gender, length of service in Tamale Polytechnic level of education and rank of respondent as key demographic elements. In the examination of labour turn over and its implications on the Polytechnic Administrators, the study considered views of respondent on their ages. This was to help inform the extent to which the respondent could give analytical views on thematic issues the study sought to achieve. According to the data obtained from the respondents, 18 of them were aged between 18-27 years whilst significant amount of 46 of them were identified as being between the age group of 28-37 years, representing 15% and 38.3% respectively. The results are illustrated on the Figure 4.1 below.

#### **Figure 4.1: Age of respondents**

Further analysis of data on the ages of the respondents revealed that 32 of them who represented 26.7% of the sample size were aged 38-47 years and the remaining 24 respondents were 48 years and above, representing 20%. From the analysis, it could be deduced that most of the respondent fell within a modal age group of 28-37 years and a significant portion of these respondents were as old as 28-47 years. This indicates that most staff of the Polytechnic are youthful and have the potentials of seeking better conditions of services. The fluid nature of the staff calls for prudent management techniques to ensure their retention in the Polytechnic. Another important demographic characteristic of the respondents the study considered was their gender. By this, views of

respondents were sought on whether they were males or females. Analyses of data obtained from their responses revealed that quite a huge number of them were males. For example, the data illustrated on the Table 4.1 below revealed that 86 of the respondents were males while the remaining 34 of them were females, representing 72% and 28% respectively.

**Table 4.1: Sex of respondents**

This therefore suggests that male staff dominate their female counterparts in the Polytechnic. By extension, female staff are likely to be less represented in most committees and management meetings where issues of staff welfare are discussed. As a result, needs of female staff may not be catered for and this may impact negatively on their motivation and retention. Digging further into the demographic profile of the respondents, the study asked them to indicate the number of years they worked in the Tamale Polytechnic. This was to help understand the extent to which they could contribute meaningful information on the issue of labour turnover and its implications on the Polytechnic Administrators. According to the field data, majority of the respondents had ample working experience in the Polytechnic. For example, as shown on the Table 4.2 below, 26(21.7 %) and 43 (35.8%) respondents had worked in the Polytechnic for four (4) years and below and 5-8 years respectively.

**Table 4.2: Number of years worked in the Polytechnic**

Similarly, 30 (25 %) respondents indicated that they had worked in the Polytechnic for 9-12 years whilst the remaining 21 (17.5%) respondents also revealed that they had worked in the Polytechnic for 13 years and above. This, therefore, shows that the respondents could have in-depth information on the effects of labour turnover on the Polytechnic Administration as they were found to have worked in the institution for several years.

On the level of education of the respondents, they were made to choose from three objective areas. Out of the total number of respondents selected for the study, it was found that a significant number of them had attained tertiary education status. The results are graphically illustrated on the Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3: Respondents by the level of education**

As seen on the table above, it was noted that 14 respondents indicated “secondary” and 88 respondents also indicated “tertiary”, representing 11.7% and 73.3% respectively. On the other hand, the remaining 18 respondents who represented 15% chose “others”. This was to suggest that they did not have any form of education or they had only basic education. In view of the above data, one could observe that majority of these respondents had acquired tertiary education. The finding reflects the literate nature of the Polytechnic staff and the ability of the staff to offer meaningful contribution to the study through their views on the key issues under investigation. The last demographic characteristic of the respondents the study elicited was ranks. As a tertiary institution, staff of Tamale Polytechnic is grouped into three main ranks depending on their qualifications. These include senior members or officers, senior staff and junior staff. The data generated from the responses of the respondents revealed that majority of them were senior members occupying managerial and other positions of responsibilities. As indicated on the Table 4.4 below, as many as 52 of the respondents showed that they were senior members, representing 43.3%.

**Table 4.4: Rank of staff**

On the other hand, 36 respondents indicated that they were senior staff whilst the remaining 32 of them said they were at the ranks of junior staff, representing 30% and 26.7% respectively. This finding is also a reflection of the finding on staff level of education where it was found that an overwhelming majority of the respondents had attained tertiary education. In this regard, the overall analysis of the demographic data of the respondents came to light that useful information pertaining to labour turnover and its implications on the Polytechnic Administrators could be realised.

**Factors that Contribute to Labour Turnover in Tamale Polytechnic**

After the analysis of the field data, it was revealed that the staff of the Polytechnic took this factor as a key source of labour turnover in the institution. The results are illustrated on the Figure 4.2 below where majority of the respondents were said to have agreed that improper job placement could contribute to labour turnover in the Polytechnic.

**Figure 4.2: Improper job placement**

For example, it was shown that 44 respondents who constituted 36.7% of the sample size chose ‘important’ whilst 57(47.5%) respondents who constituted the majority also indicated ‘very important’, suggesting that improper job placement could lead to labour turnover. Only 19(15.8%) respondents disagreed with the assertion. By this revelation, one could state that improper job placement is a contributing factor to the cause of labour turnover in Tamale Polytechnic. This goes to affirm the view of Kreitner and Kinicki(1998) where they used an economic model to suggest that properly placed staff in an organization which provides chances for advancement and higher wages could minimise labour turnover occurrences. As part of issues considered in the assessment of factors that contribute to labour turnover in the study area, the research elicited views of the respondents on the extent to which denial of study leave could be a factor. The responses revealed that the respondents were unanimous on the denial of study leave as a key contributing factor to the cause of labour



turnover in the study area. For example, the data showed that 58 respondents chose “very important” whilst another 55 of them similarly chose ‘important’, representing 46% and 48% respectively. These were to suggest that denial of staff study leave could contribute to his or her exit from the institution (as seen on the Table 4.5 below).

**Table 4.5: Denial of study leave**

On the other hand, only 7(6%) respondents disagreed with the assertion. This finding reflects the importance staff of the Polytechnic attached to their academic progression. In comparing the results on improper job placement and denial of study leave as factors contributing to labour turnover, one could observe that the respondents attached greater importance to the latter than the former. As captured in the literature, Cotton and Tuttle(1986) classified causes of labour turnover as work related factors, personal factors and external factors. Contextualising the denial of study leave within the framework of work-related factors and its tendency to demoralize the affected staff, one could agree with the view of price (1977) and Cotton and Tuttle (1986) that it could lead to high incidence of labour turnover in an organization. In addition to the above issues was low remuneration as a contributing factor to labour turnover in the study area. That is, the respondents were made to indicate the extent to which low remuneration could be a contributing factor to labour turnover in Tamale Polytechnic. As seen on the Table 4.6.below, all the respondents agreed that low remuneration could contribute significantly to labour turnover in the Polytechnic.

**Table 4.6: Low remuneration of staff**

During the literature, it was observed from Griffeth, Hom and Gaetner (2000) that pay and pay-rated variables such as salaries and allowances had a modest effect on labour turn over in an institution. This finding therefore seems to further exemplify their assertion as it was found that low remuneration was a variable that could lead to higher tendency of labour turnover in the Polytechnic. This calls for the stake-holders involved in decision making at the Polytechnic and other analogous institutions to take staff remuneration seriously. It is only through this means that employees could be retained for the maximum benefit of the institution. More importantly, it was revealed during the literature that job satisfaction tent to be considered as an integrated and most influencing factor for voluntary turnover in an organization (Taylor, 1991). In a related manner, Mobley (1982) also commented that dissatisfied employees are more likely to search for other alternatives by comparing the conditions attached to those options with their current jobs and that when they feel satisfied with the new options, they may leave. On the basis the above premises, the study again asked the respondents to assess the contributing factors to labour turnover using lack of job satisfaction. After the analysis of the data gathered from the respondents, it was revealed that lack of job satisfaction could lead to turnover in the Polytechnic and the results are illustrated on the Table 4.7 below.

**Table 4.7: Lack of job satisfaction**

For example, it was revealed during the study that only 8 respondents indicated ‘not important’ among the four objective variables, representing 6.7%. Contrary to this, an overwhelming majority of the respondents indicated that lack of job satisfaction was a key factor for the occurrence of labour turnover in the Polytechnic. On the basis of this, one can categorically state that lack of labour turnover is a contributing factor to labour turnover in organizations.

In a broader sense, the study also considered views of respondents on lack of good working environment as a contributing factor to labour turnover in the Polytechnic. This was to also help in realizing how staffs of the Polytechnic feel about their work environment so as to inform management decisions in that regard. Out of the four objective variables presented to the respondents, it was discovered that only 11 (9%) of them chose ‘not important’ whilst none of them chose ‘not at all’. The results are illustrated on the Table 4.8 below.

**Table 4.8: Lack of good working environment**

On the other hand, the rest of the respondents who constituted the majority revealed that lack of good working environment could motivated a lot of staff to seek greener pastures elsewhere. For example, 68(57%) respondents indicated ‘important’ and the remaining 41 (34%) respondents also chose ‘very important’. These were to indicate that lack of good working environment was a major contributing factor to labour turnover in the Polytechnic.

By extension, the results suggest that staff of the Tamale Polytechnic take issues of their work environment very seriously. In their own opinions, the respondents suggested that lack of recognition for performance, lack of social cohesion and lack of involvement of staff in decision making were some of the other factors that could contribute to labour turnover in the Polytechnic.

**Cost of Labour Turnover**

After analyzing the views of the respondents on the data shown on the Table 4.9 below, it came out that their answers were on the affirmative. For example 65(54.2%) respondents indicate ‘strongly agree’ whilst 44(36.7%) respondents also chose ‘agree’. On the other hand, only 21(17.5%) respondents disagreed with the assertion.

**Table 4.9: Labour turnover and the Polytechnic having to spend extra money in employing new staff**

Reflecting back on the literature, Johnson (1986) revealed that hiring and training a replacement worker for lost employee costs approximately 50% of the worker's annual salary. Relating the view of Johnson (1986) to the finding of the study where the respondents saw the replacement of a lost employee as an extra cost to the Polytechnic, one could vehemently agree that labour turnover presents enormous financial burden to the Polytechnic. In a related development, the study wanted to find from the respondents whether it was cheaper to replace a lost employee than putting policies in place to main him or her. Implicitly, Bonts (2002) asserts that the lost of human capital adds to the cost of the organization since not only does the organization loses the capital and relational capital of the departing employee, but other competitors turn to gain the employment of these personnel. His views, therefore, holds true in relation to the finding of this study (see on the Table 4.10 below).

**Table 4.10: It is cheaper to replace employees than to maintain them**

According to the data obtained from the respondents on the above issues, 17(14.3%) of them agreed that it was cheaper to replace a lost employee than to main him or her. On the contrary, 60(50%) respondents indicated 'disagreed' whilst the remaining 43(36%) respondent also chose 'strongly disagree' from the four objective variables. This result is an indication that it is cheaper to maintain an employee than to replace a lost employee. Hence replacement of a lost employee constitutes a major cost of labour turnover to the institution. Exploring further into the cost associated with labour turnover in the study area, the researcher considered the subjective views of the respondents on time spent in searching for new employee as a cost element. In view of this, four objective variables were presented to the respondent to choose from so as to illustrate their views as to whether time spent in replacing a lost staff constituted a cost to the Polytechnic. According to the data obtained from the field study, it came out that the time spent in searching for the replacement of a lost staff constituted a significant cost to the Polytechnic and the results are illustrated on the Figure 4.6 below.

**Figure 4.6: Labour turnover and precious time being spent by the Polytechnic in search for new employees**

For instance, reading from the above figure, it was observed that 66(55%) respondents indicated 'agree' whilst 32(26.7%) of them similarly indicated 'strongly agree'. On the reverse, just an insignificant portion of the respondents (22 respondents or 18.3%) maintained that time spent by the management of the Polytechnic in search for a replacement of a lost staff did not constitute a cost to the Polytechnic. In view of the results analyzed, it is convenient to state that one of the costs associated with labour turnover to an organization is the time spent in searching for replacement. One important element that makes every organization to be proud of itself is good image. This therefore, is in tandem with the adage that good names are better than riches. Rhetorically, does labour turnover then lead to a dent of an organizational image? This question was presented to the respondents to find out if a dent of image of the Polytechnic occurring as a result of labour turnover constituted a cost to the Polytechnic. After the analysis of the field data, it was deduced that this variable constituted a major cost to the Polytechnic as a corporate organization. As can be seen on the Table 4.11 below, 42(35%) respondents indicated 'strongly agree' whilst an overwhelming respondents amounting to 68 (56.7 %) simply agreed with the assertion.

**Table 4.11: Labour turnover and organisational image**

On the other hand only 10 respondents who constituted 8.3% of the total number of respondents disagreed with the assertion. That is to suggest that they did not see a dent of corporate image of the Polytechnic being caused by labour turnover as a cost. The results therefore gives an indication that when labour turnover occurs, it brings about a cost to the organization as a result of a dent in the corporate image of the affected organization.

Going back to the literature, Meaghan and Bonts (2002) made a point that when an employee leaves an organization, it is presumed that productivity drops due to the learning curve involved in replacement, understanding of the job functions and the organization rules and its associated culture. By relating this assertion to the study and using it to determine the costs associated with labour turnover on the Polytechnic, respondents were made to indicate the extent to which low productivity resulting from labour turnover could constitute a cost to the institution. Four objective variables were presented to the respondents to choose from and the results are illustrated on the Table 4.11 below.

**Table 4.12: Low productivity associated with labour turnover is a cost to the Polytechnic**

Reading from the table above, it was revealed that 64 (53%) of them also indicated 'agree'. However, none of the respondents rejected the assertion. Owing to the above revelations, it could be stated categorically that low productivity from the occurrence of labour turnover constitutes a significant cost to the Polytechnic.

**Employee Motivations and Retention**

This section presents findings and discussions of employee motivation factors that could ensure staff retention in the Polytechnic. To achieve this objective, a number of issues were presented to the respondents and among them was whether respondents had ever thought of leaving the Polytechnic for employment opportunities elsewhere. Two objective variables were presented to the respondents as shown on the Table 4.13 below. As seen on the table, respondents indicated 'yes' and the remaining 12 (10%) respondents however indicated 'no'.

**Table 4.13: have you ever thought of leaving Tamale Polytechnic to work in other institutions?**

By implication, this finding as shown in the results suggests that majority of staff of Tamale Polytechnic are not satisfied with motivational factors available to them and have been thinking of leaving for better conditions of services elsewhere. This therefore serves as a wakeup call to the Polytechnic authority to institutionalize policies that could attract the staff to stay. On further analysis, the study asked respondents to rate the extent to which high remuneration could influence them to stay and work in the Polytechnic. Eventually, all the respondents were found to have agreed that higher remuneration was a major motivation factor to influence their stay in Tamale Polytechnic. Statistically, 88 respondents indicated ‘strongly agree’, representing 73% as illustrated on the Table 4.14 below.

**Table 4.14: High remuneration as a factor to retain staff**

In the same way, the remaining 32 respondents who constituted 27% of the entire respondents also indicated ‘agree’. Reading from the table above, though four objective variables were presented to the respondents to choose from, one could deduce that none of the respondents chose ‘disagree’ or ‘strongly disagree’. As captured in the literature, Griffith et al. (2000) argued that where jobs provide higher remuneration, employees are more likely to remain with the organization and vice versa. Comparing the views expressed by the respondents about the influence of high remuneration on their stay in the Polytechnic, one could notice that this finding further affirms the stand of Griffith et al. (2000). On the basis of this, it is imperative to state that another important motivation factor that can ensure staff retention in the Tamale Polytechnic is high remuneration. Through this, the staff would be motivated to stay in order to give off their best for the collective development of the Polytechnic. In a more related manner, Hall et al. (2010) were of the view that recognitions for work done constituted a major employee need that could offer them job satisfaction in an organization. Expanding these frontiers further, the study also elicited views of the respondents on the extent to which this variable could serve as a motivation factor that could ensure staff retention in the Polytechnic. In the final analysis of the field data, it was revealed that all the respondents affirmatively agreed that recognition for good work done could serve as a key motivation factor for staff retention. For example, as illustrated on the Table 4.15 below, 72(60%) respondents chose “strongly agree” from the four objective variables presented to them. Similarly, the remaining 48 respondents who represented 40% also revealed that recognition for good work done by staff could bring about motivation and staff retention in the Polytechnic.

**Table 4.15: Recognition for good work done as a factor for ensuring staff retention**

In a further analysis, the study took into consideration the objective views of respondents on staff development and its tendency to motivate and influence staff to stay in the Polytechnic as a key motivation factor capable of influencing them to stay and work for the Polytechnic. The data are shown on the Figure 4.7 below.

**Figure 4.7: Staff development as a factor for ensuring staff retention**

That is, it could be noted from the figure that 78(65%) respondents indicated “strongly agree” whilst the remaining 42 (35%) respondents also chose “agree”. It is therefore clear from the results that staff of Tamale Polytechnic recognized staff development as an integral part of their life and something that could be used to add value to them.

Commenting further, the respondents used in the study were very unanimous when the issue of scholarship as a motivation factor for staff retention was presented to them. That is, when asked whether scholarship offered to a staff for further studies could convince him or her to stay and work in the Polytechnic, all the responses were on the affirmative. As illustrated on the Table 4.17 below, it was revealed that all the 120 (100%) respondents chose “yes” from the two objective variables they were made to express their views on.

**Table 4.17: Will scholarship influence you to stay on your job?**

On their part, the respondents identified a number of factors such as good working relationship between staff and management, sabbatical leaves for academic staff and patronage of staff social activities by management as some of the factors which could ensure staff motivation and retention in the Polytechnic.

**Implications of Labour Turnover**

According to the field data, there was a high occurrence of labour turn-over in the Polytechnic. For example, it was revealed that 88 respondents who represented 73% of the total respondents chose “very often” from the three objective variables (as seen on the Table 4.18 below).

**Table 4.18: The frequency at which staff of the Polytechnic leave for other institutions**

On the reverse side, only 32 of the remaining respondents opted for ‘not often’ and ‘not sure’. This finding as revealed by the study gives an indication that staff are aware of the labour turnover situation in Tamale Polytechnic. For example, earlier data obtained from the Personnel Unit (2011) of the Polytechnic revealed that about 43 staff had left for employment opportunities in other organizations between 2008 and 2011. This calls for concerted effort by management of the Polytechnic to put modalities in place, not only to motivate staff of the institution but, to ensure their retention. It is only through this means that the Polytechnic can achieve its vision of becoming the best institution for the training of middle level personnel for the development of Ghana as whole, as contained in its Strategic Plan 2008 – 2012. In a more similar manner, the study discovered that one

serious negative implication of labour turnover on the Polytechnic was that it leads to a decline in productivity levels in the Polytechnic. It was gathered that 116 respondents who constituted 96.7% of the entire staff saluted for the study indicated that labour turnover could lead to a reduction in productivity. Only 4 respondents indicated 'not sure; representing 3.3% (as illustrated on Table 4.19 below).

**Table 4.19: Effect of labour turnover on productivity in Tamale Polytechnic**

Deducing from the results of the data, one can tentatively state that labour turn-over contributes significantly to a reduction in productivity in Tamale Polytechnic. In connection to the finding of the study, the literature showed that labour turn-over leads to a drop in productivity (Johnson, 1986). This is similar to the view of Blitzer (2006) that labour turn-over reduces institutional performance, hence a reduction in productivity.

The negative implications of labour turn-over on the Polytechnic was further established when the study gathered from respondents that it brings about a reduction in the staff strength of the institution. This point was well illustrated by the overwhelming responses in favour of the fact that the labour turn-over causes a reduction of staff strength in the Polytechnic. As illustrated on the Table 4.20, 72(60%) respondents indicated "strongly agree" and 48(40%) also indicated "agree". None of the respondents however disagreed with the assertion.

**Table 4.20: Labour turnover as cause of reduction in staff strengths**

This result confirms that labour turnover presents a negative effect on the Polytechnic as it brings about a reduction of staff strength of the institution.

Further analysis of the field data led to the realization that labour turnover had negative effect on the quality of teaching in the institution. According to the field data shown on the Figure 4.9 below, 73(60.8%) respondents indicated 'strongly agree' whilst another 42(35%) of them also indicated 'agree'.

**Figure 4.9: High labour turnover as a negative factor for quality of teaching**

From the four objective variables, only 5 respondents chose 'disagree', representing 4.2% of the entire respondents. By this result, it is clear that low quality of teaching is one of the negative effects labour turnover presents on the institution. This could be attributed to the absence of qualified staff which occurs as a result of the lost labour.

Conclusively, views of the respondents were on the extent to which labour turnover could affect efficient management of the polytechnic. By all indications, the results indicated that labour turn-over could lead to inefficient institutional management. For instant, 104 respondents who constituted 87% said that labour turn-over had negative effects on the efficient management of the Polytechnic (as seen on the Table 4.22 below). Only 16 respondents "disagreed" with the assertion, representing 13%.

**Table 4.22: High labour turnover as a negative factor for efficient institutional management**

In their own opinions, the study gathered that depletion of stock of quality staff in the Polytechnic was another danger posed by labour turn-over on the institution. It was also illustrated by the respondents' views that labour turn-over does not promote healthy growth of the Polytechnic.

## CONCLUSIONS

### Summary of Findings

#### Cost of labour turnover

The study also sought to establish the cost associated with labour turnover on the Polytechnic. The study revealed that it was more costly to replace a lost staff than to maintain him or her and this is in tandem with the view of Johnson (1986) that it is cheaper to maintain a staff in an organisation than to research for a replacement. The analysis of views of the respondents was also of an indication that one of the costs associated with labour turnover on the Polytechnic was the time spent in searching for replacement of lost staff. In the view of this study, apart from the fact that time spent search of a replacement of a lost staff could have been used in productive activities, it also leads to a dent of the corporate image of the Polytechnic. In the end, the study concludes that labour turnover had adverse effects of low productivity constituted a significant cost to the Polytechnic.

#### Employee motivations and retention

With regard to the establishment of the extent to which employee motivation could lead to staff retention in the Polytechnic, the study discovered that there was a positive relationship between these variables. For example, the study discovered that high remuneration and recognition for performance were key employee motivation factors which could influence staff to stay and work in the Polytechnic. It was also clear from the results that staff of Tamale Polytechnic recognized staff development as an integral part of their life and something that could be used to add value to them; hence they could be influenced to stay and work in the institution should these factors be put in place by management. This was further illustrated where the respondents overwhelmingly said that scholarship granted to them for further studies could be a key motivation factor to influence their stay in the Polytechnic. Generally, the respondents identified a number of factors such as good working relationship



between staff and management, sabbatical leaves for academic staff and patronage of staff social activities by management as some of the factors which could ensure staff motivation and retention in the Polytechnic.

### **Implications of labour turnover**

According to the field data, there was a high occurrence of labour turn-over in the Polytechnic as 73% of the respondents indicated that it did occur very often. In a more similar manner, the study discovered that one serious negative implication of labour turnover on the Polytechnic was that it leads to a decline in productivity levels which could come as a result of declines in staff strengths. Further analysis of the field data led to the realization that labour turnover had negative effect on the quality of teaching in the institution and that labour turn-over could lead to inefficient institutional management in the Polytechnic.

### **Recommendations**

The analyses of the views of the respondents on the effects of labour turnover and its implications on the Polytechnic Administrators called for the recommendations below. It is the recommendation of this study that staff development policies be taken seriously since it has the potential of reducing labour in the Polytechnic. In doing this, a comprehensive and all embracing staff development policy could be developed to ensure that all staff have equal access to the facility. The study found that labour turnover had negative effects on the institutional productivity and efficient management. In view of this, it is the recommendation of this study that management of the Polytechnic should put in place prudent employee motivation factors in place to ensure that staff are adequately motivated to stay and work in the polytechnic. It is through this means that the polytechnic could achieve its strategic goal of ensuring efficient institution management and growth through increases in its productivity levels. This study strictly considered the effects of labour turnover and its implications on Polytechnic Administrators. It could not look at the extent to which leadership characteristics of Polytechnic authorities could impact on the labour turnover and productivity in the institution. For this reason, it is the recommendation of the study that further research be undertaken in this area to add up to the existing stock of knowledge on labour turnover and productivity especially in the polytechnics.

### **References**

- Bernett, V. (1991). *Sample Survey Principles and Methods*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Burgess, S and Dolado, J. (1989) "Intertemporal rules with a variable speed of adjustment: an application to UK manufacturing employment", *Economic Journal*, 99, pp. 347-65.
- Hammermesh, D and Pfann, G. (1996) "Turnover and the dynamics of labour demand", 63, pp. 359-68.
- Hammermesh, D. (1995) "Labour demand and the structure of adjustment costs", *Economic Journal*, 105, pp. 620-34.
- Healey, M.J. and Rawlinson, M.B. (1994). *Interviewing Techniques in Business Management Research*. Wassy: V.J and Wells.
- [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPTEIA/Resources/Academic\\_Staff\\_Retention\\_Final\\_2\\_06.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPTEIA/Resources/Academic_Staff_Retention_Final_2_06.pdf)
- Hutchinson, S, J Villalobos and Beruvides, M. (1997) "Effects of high turnover in a serial assembly environment", *International Journal of Production Research*, 35, pp. 3201-23. <http://ritco.biz/files/Statistical%20Analyses%20using%20SPSS.pdf>
- Kersley, B and Martin, C. (1997) "Productivity growth, participation and communication", *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*, 44, pp. 485-501.
- Ministry of Education, (1993) *White Paper on the Reforms to the Tertiary Education, System*, Accra.
- Nsowah-Nuamah, N.N.N. (2005). *Basic Statistics: A Handbook of Descriptive Statistics for Social and Biological Sciences*. Accra: ACADEC Press. P95.
- Obeng, S.A. (2003). *Introduction to Research Methods*. Cape Coast: University Press, p.42.
- Stewart, D.W. and Karmins, M.A. (1993). *Secondary Research: Information Sources and Methods*. (2<sup>nd</sup>ed.). Newbury Park: California, Sage.
- Tamale Polytechnic (2001). *National Council for Tertiary Education Data*, Unpublished.
- Yin, R.K. (1994, 2<sup>nd</sup>ed.). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Beverly Hills: California, Sage.
- Price, J.L. (1977). *The study of turnover*, 1st edition, Iowa state University press, IA pp10-25.
- Saks, A. M. (1996). "The relationship between the amount of helpfulness of entry training and work outcomes", *Hum. Rel.* 49: 429-451.
- Griffith R.W., Hom P.W, Gaertner S. (2001). "A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium", *Journal of Management*. 26 (3): 463-88.
- Mobley, W.H. (1982). *Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control*. Reading, MA: Addison Valley.
- IDS (2004), *Improving staff retention*, IDS HR Studies No. 765, Jan 2004.

- McShane, L. S. and VonGlinow, M. A. (2000). Organizational Behavior, Emerging realities for the workplace revolution. USA, World Color.
- Lee-Ross, D. (2002) 'An Exploratory Study of Work Motivation Among Private and Public Sector Hospital Chefs in Australia', *Journal of Management Development*, vol. 21, no. 8, pp. 576 – 588.
- Kumar, A and Sharma, R. (2001) *Personnel Management Theory and Practice*. Atlantic Publishers and Distributors.
- Templar, R. (2005). *The rules of management*. Pearson Prentice Hall. <http://www.businessballs.com/images/16/06/2011>.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., and Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Hall, S. A., Bowers, A. G. and Martin, C.L.L (2010). 'An exploratory study of job satisfaction levels of athletic marketing directors at national collegiate athletic association (ncaa) division i-a institutions.' *International Journal of Sport Management Recreation and Tourism*, Vol.6, pp.1-17.
- Butts, M., Vandenberg, R., DeJoy, D., Schaffer, B., and Wilson, M. (2009). Individual reactions to high involvement work processes: investigating the role of empowerment and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 14, 122-136.
- Robinson, M., Peterson, M., Tedrick, T., and Carpenter, J.R. (2003). Job satisfaction on NCAA division III athletic directors: Impact of job design and time on task. *International Sports Journal*, 7(2), 46-58.
- Vroom, V.H. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Warr, M. (1998). Life Course Transitions and Desistance from Crime. *Criminology* 36, pp. 183- 218.
- Isaac, R., Zerbe, W., and Pitt, D. (2001). Leadership and Motivation: The effective application of expectancy theory. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13, 212-226.
- Butts, M., Vandenberg, R., DeJoy, D., Schaffer, B., and Wilson, M. (2009). Individual reactions to high involvement work processes: investigating the role of empowerment and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 14, 122-136.
- CIPD (2004). Employee turnover and retention. [www.cipd.co.uk/subjects/hrpract/turnover/empturnretent.htm](http://www.cipd.co.uk/subjects/hrpract/turnover/empturnretent.htm)? Accessed on 14 September, 2008.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research and Managerial applications*. (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.
- Lawler, Edward E. (1990). *Strategic Pay*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Arnold, H. J., and Feldman, D. C. (1986). *Organisational behaviour*. Singapore: McGraw-Hill International Editions.
- Sethi, D. and Pinzon, B. (1998). A seven-step strategy to help retain your company's high-impact performers. *Human Resource Planning*, 21(4), 16.
- Schuster, J. R., and Zingheim, P. K. (1992). *The new pay*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Martocchio, J. J. (1998). *Strategic Compensation*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) (2004). Fact sheet on employee turnover and retention.
- Griffith, R. W., Hom, P. W., and Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the millennium. *Journal of Management*, 26, 463-488.
- Lake, S. (2000). Low-cost strategies for employee retention. *Compensation and Benefits Review*, 32(4), 65-72.
- Woods, R. H., Heck, W., and Sciarini, M. (1998). *Turnover and diversity in the lodging industry*. Washington, DC: American Hotel Foundation.
- Mitchel, J. O. (1981). The effect of intentions, tenure, personal, and organizational variables on managerial turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24, 742-750.
- March, J. G., and Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911). *Principles of scientific management*, Harper, New York, NY.
- Dalton, D. R., Todor, W. D., and Krackhardt, D. M. (1982). Turnover overstated: The functional taxonomy. *Academy of Management Review*, 7, 117-123.
- Adam, J. S. (1963). Towards an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67(5), 422-436.
- Bitzer, E. (2006). Strategies for cutting turnover, *Security Management* 50(5), 88-93.
- Curran, C. R. (2004). Rewards: respect, responsibility, relationship and recognition. *Nursing Economics*, 22(2), 57-59.
- Denvir, A., and McMahan, F. (1992). Labor turnover in London hotels and the cost effectiveness of preventative measures. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 11(2), 143-154.
- Johnson, A. (1986). An incentive system for all seasons. *Management Review*, 75(8), 58-60.

- Dyke, T. V., Strick, S. (1990, Spring). Recruitment, selection and retention of managers in the hotel and restaurant industry. *FIU Hospitality Review*, 8, 1-9.
- Woods, R. H., and Macaulay, J. F. (1989, May). Rx for turnover: Retention programs that work. *Cornell Hotel Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 30(1), 79-90.
- Birdir, K. (2002). General manager turnover and root causes. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(1), 43-47.
- Mobley, W. H. (1982). *Employee turnover: Causes, consequence, and control*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Lankau, M. J., and Chung, B.G. (1998). Mentoring for line-level employee. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 39(6), 14-20.
- Hogan, J. J. (1992). Turnover and what to do about it. *Cornell Hotel Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 33(1), 14-21.
- Abbasi, S. M., and Holman, K. W. (2000). Turnover: The real bottom line. *Public Personnel Management*, 29(3), 333-342.
- Lee, S. (2006). Expectations of employee toward the workplace and environmental satisfaction. *Facilities*, 24(9/10), 343-353.
- Ogoshi, Y. (2006). Current Japanese employment practices and industrial relations: The transformation of permanent employment and seniority-based wage system. *Asian Business and Management*, 5(4), 469-485.
- Simon, T., Hinkin, T. (2001). The effect of employee turnover on hotel profits: A test across multiple hotels. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(4), 65-69.
- Kreitner, R., and Kinicki. (1998). *Organizational behaviour* (4th ed.). Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill.
- Chang, C. (2006). A multilevel exploration of factors influencing the front-line employees' service quality in international tourist hotels. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 9(2), 285-293.
- Barrows, C. (1990, September). Employee turnover: Implications for hotel managers, *FIU Hospitality Review*, 8, 24-31.
- Johnson, A. (1986). An incentive system for all seasons. *Management Review*, 75(8), 58-

#### DATA : GRAPHS/FIGURES

**Table3.1: Staff of Tamale Polytechnic by Ranks, gender and Roles**

Category of Staff	Sex of Staff	Supporting Staff	Senior Staff	Senior Members	Totals	%
Administrative Staff	Male	89	35	17	141	67%
	Female	60	11	0	71	33%
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>149</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>100%</b>
Academic Staff	Male	66	126	48	240	90%
	Female	10	12	4	26	10%
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>138</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>100%</b>
Grand Total	Male	155	161	65	381	80%
	Female	70	23	4	97	20%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>225</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>478</b>	<b>100%</b>

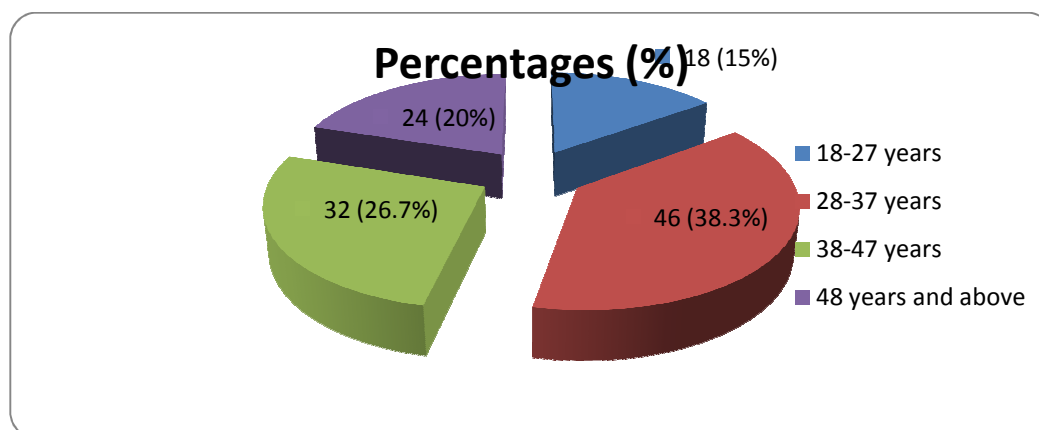
Source: NCTE Unpublished data from Planning Unit of Tamale Polytechnic, 2010

**Table 3.2: Staff of Tamale Polytechnic by Key Positions**

RANKS OF OFFICERS	MALES	FEMALES	TOTALS
Principal Administrative Officers	5	0	5
Deans	4	0	4
HODs	13	2	15
Unit Heads	10	1	11
Course Coordinators	14	1	15
Sectional Heads	11	4	15
Hall Masters/Mistresses	2	2	4
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>59(85.5%)</b>	<b>10(16.5%)</b>	<b>69(100%)</b>

Source: NCTE Unpublished data from Planning Unit of Tamale Polytechnic, 2010

**Figure 4.1: Age of respondents**



Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.1: Sex of respondents**

Sex category	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Male	86	72
Female	34	28
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.2: Number of years worked in the Polytechnic**

Number of years	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
4 years and below	26	21.7
5-8 years	43	35.8
9-12 years	30	25
13 years and above	21	17.5
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.3: Respondents by the level of education**

Educational level	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Secondary	14	11.7
Tertiary	88	73.3
Others	18	15
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

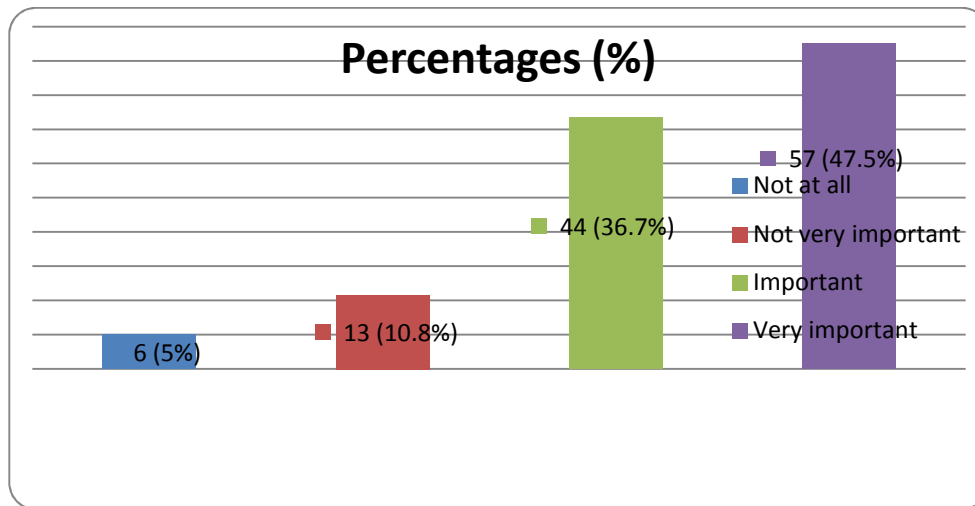


**Table 4.4: Rank of staff**

Ranks	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Senior member	52	43.3
Senior staff	36	30
Junior staff	32	26.7
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Figure 4.2: Improper job placement**



Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.5: Denial of study leave**

Variable	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Not very important	7	6
Important	55	46
Very important	58	48
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.6: Low remuneration of staff**

Variable	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Important	53	44.2
Very important	67	55.8
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.7: Lack of job satisfaction**

Variable	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Not very important	8	6.7
Important	54	45
Very important	58	48.3
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.8: Lack of good working environment**

Variable	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Not very important	11	9
Important	68	57
Very important	41	34
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.9: Labour turnover and the Polytechnic having to spend extra money in employing new staff**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	65	54.2
Agree	44	36.7
Disagree	11	9.2
Strongly disagree	10	8.3
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

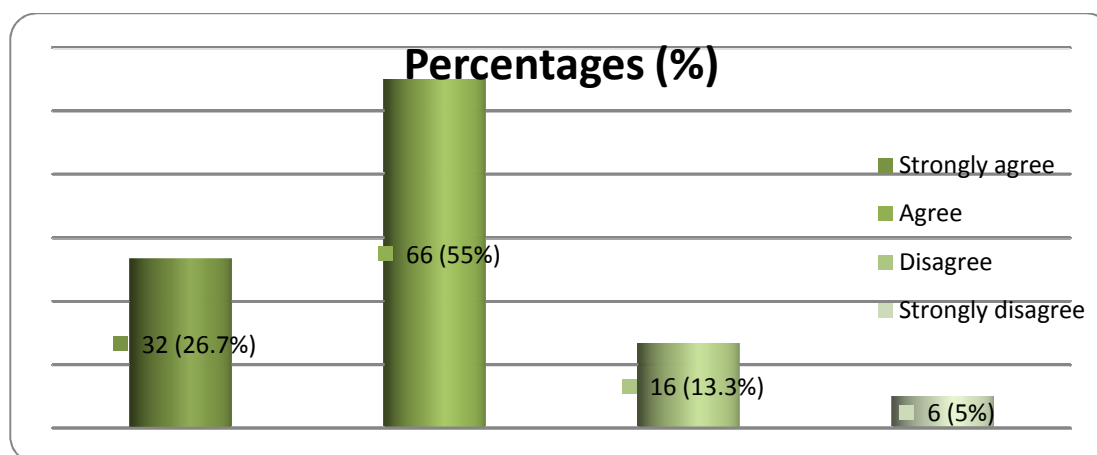
Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.10: It is cheaper to replace employees than to maintain them**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	4	3.3
Agree	13	11
Disagree	60	50
Strongly disagree	43	36
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Figure 4.6: Labour turnover and precious time being spent by the Polytechnic in search for new employees**



Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.11: Labour turnover and organisational image**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	42	35
Agree	68	56.7
Disagree	10	8.3
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.12: Low productivity associated with labour turnover is a cost to the Polytechnic**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	64	53
Agree	56	47
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.13: have you ever thought of leaving Tamale Polytechnic to work in other institutions?**

Response	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Yes	108	90
No	12	10
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.14: High remuneration as a factor to retain staff**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	88	73
Agree	32	27
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

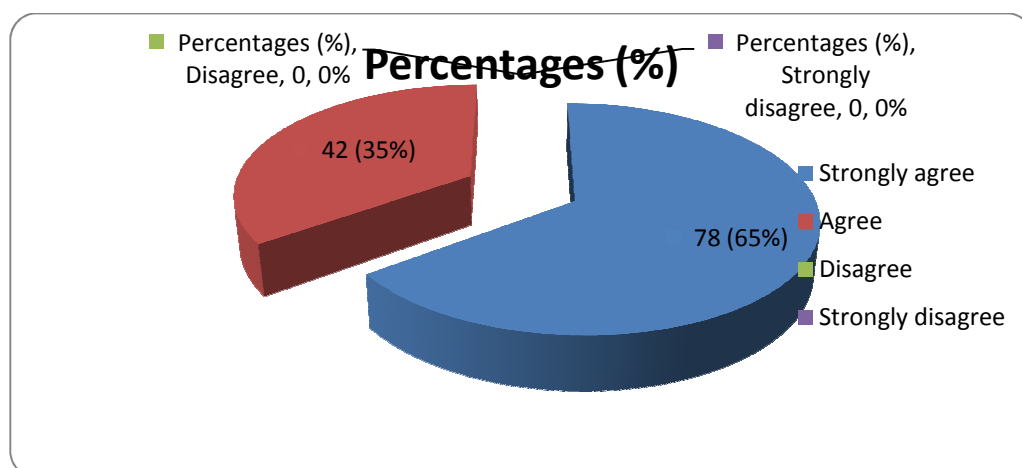
Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.15: Recognition for good work done as a factor for ensuring staff retention**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	72	60
Agree	48	40
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Figure 4.7: Staff development as a factor for ensuring staff retention**



Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.17: Will scholarship influence you to stay on your job?**

Response	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Yes	120	100
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.18: The frequency at which staff of the Polytechnic leave for other institutions**

Response	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Very often	88	73
Not often	6	5
Not sure	26	22
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.19: Effect of labour turnover on productivity in Tamale Polytechnic**

Response	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Decrease in productivity	116	96.7
Not sure	4	3.3
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

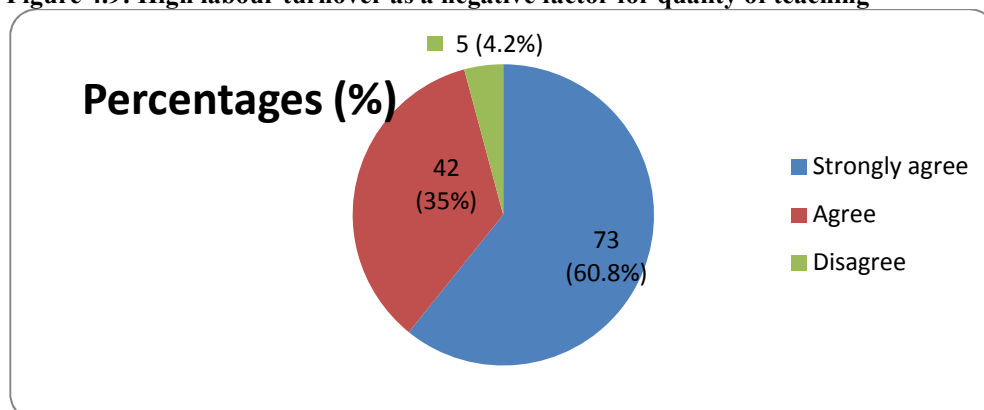
Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.20: Labour turnover as cause of reduction in staff strengths**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	72	60
Agree	48	40
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Figure 4.9: High labour turnover as a negative factor for quality of teaching**



Source: Field data, 2012, n=120

**Table 4.22: High labour turnover as a negative factor for efficient institutional management**

Level of agreement	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Strongly agree	54	45
Agree	50	42
Disagree	12	10
Strongly disagree	4	3
<b>Totals</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data, 2012, n=120



This academic article was published by The International Institute for Science, Technology and Education (IISTE). The IISTE is a pioneer in the Open Access Publishing service based in the U.S. and Europe. The aim of the institute is Accelerating Global Knowledge Sharing.

More information about the publisher can be found in the IISTE's homepage:

<http://www.iiste.org>

## CALL FOR JOURNAL PAPERS

The IISTE is currently hosting more than 30 peer-reviewed academic journals and collaborating with academic institutions around the world. There's no deadline for submission. **Prospective authors of IISTE journals can find the submission instruction on the following page:** <http://www.iiste.org/journals/> The IISTE editorial team promises to review and publish all the qualified submissions in a **fast** manner. All the journals articles are available online to the readers all over the world without financial, legal, or technical barriers other than those inseparable from gaining access to the internet itself. Printed version of the journals is also available upon request of readers and authors.

## MORE RESOURCES

Book publication information: <http://www.iiste.org/book/>

Recent conferences: <http://www.iiste.org/conference/>

## IISTE Knowledge Sharing Partners

EBSCO, Index Copernicus, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, JournalTOCS, PKP Open Archives Harvester, Bielefeld Academic Search Engine, Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek EZB, Open J-Gate, OCLC WorldCat, Universe Digital Library, NewJour, Google Scholar

