



Retention of Lecturers at the University of Zambia, 1990 to 2016

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Abstract: *The article identifies some factors that made lecturers to leave the University of Zambia (UNZA) for alternative employment between 1990 to 2016. The aim of the study was to establish the reasons some of the lecturers decided to remain serving UNZA faithfully in spite of their friends leaving to alternative places that had attractive conditions of service. This study used mixed method approach. Convergent parallel mixed methods, which involved both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used. Quantitative data was analysed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Qualitative data was analysed using common responses from themes. Research findings show that lecturers left UNZA because of poor economic conditions which prevailed in the country among other factors. The study conclude that too much of labour turnover can severely reduce productivity, as workers who are perpetual learners and new to the institution all the time demoralise incumbents and damage an institution's public image thereby adversely affecting its corporate existence. It is recommended that managers should be trained before they take up their offices. Retirement package and remunerations should be paid on time in order to motivate lecturers.*

Keywords: *Retention, turnover, employment, motivation.*

1. BACKGROUND

The University of Zambia is the first public university in Zambia. It started in 1965 at Ridgeway campus in Lusaka opposite University Teaching Hospital. In 1966, the Great East Road campus was opened. Until 1982, UNZA was the only public university in the country. There are other public and private universities which have since been opened. In 2008, there were nine schools at UNZA (MOE, 2008). Currently, it has twelve schools. The Vice Chancellor pointed out, "In July 2016, UNZA divided the School of Medicine into four stand-alone schools to operate on pilot mode until December 2016 when they would be run as independent schools each managed by a Dean (Speech by Vice-Chancellor, 2nd September 2016)". The schools that were created are: School of Medicine, School of Nursing, School of Health Sciences and School of Public Health. The creation of new schools brought the schools for UNZA to 12. There are over seven hundred lecturers at UNZA. In 2012, there were 658 members of the academic staff (UNZA, 2012). The lecturer student ratio was 1:47. There are 33,000 students currently at UNZA.

In the 1990's, Zambia experienced a significant decline in the education sector due to economic decline that arose from structure adjustment programme and global economic restructuring (Kelly, 2006). The economy of the country was poor. The Government therefore invited international monetary fund and World Bank to come and help improve the economy. For many African countries, Zambia in particular, the pressure to keep up with external debt payments forced the government to reduce funding for the university. A wage freeze was introduced by the government on all its workers and institutions that benefitted from government grants. Simutanyi (2006:8) says that, "Social, health and education expenditure were also reduced, affecting mostly working people. Inadequate funding led to demoralisation of Lecturers". This was supported by the Vice-Chancellor's Speech in 2003 who points out that, "Those critical constraints on the funding of the university threatened to undermine the progress made in 2003 with enhancement of staff salaries and slowed down the rate of liquidation of institution's debt accumulated over the preceding decade" (UNZA Annual Report, 2005:5). The working-class bore almost all costs of these International Monetary Fund (IMF) reform (Hawkins, 1991). The policies of the IMF contributed to the brain drain in the country.

The academic staff were poorly paid at UNZA because of the poor economy that prevailed at the time. Many lecturers decided to go and work in institutions outside Zambia especially in the neighbouring countries. The Ministry of Education (2011:6) reports that, "Between 1984 and 1994 UNZA alone lost over 230 of its Lecturers, 161 of them being PhD holders with a considerable degree of seniority".

This mass exodus was alarming and a big loss to the country (UNZA Annual Report, 1990/2000). The remaining Lecturers, who attended to very large student numbers were overworked and became frustrated.

Ministry of Education (2011:6) points out, “The salaries are relatively higher than those paid in other areas of the Zambian economy”. They are low in comparison with what the academic staff are paid elsewhere in Southern Africa. Zambia is no exception to the phenomenon of staff retention which is manifested more in form of brain drain. The deteriorating economic condition in Zambia from the late 20th to 21st Centuries made the country lose a lot of academic staff to other institutions within and abroad. Individuals and private organisations joined in offering university education in Zambia. Private universities that mushroomed made some academic staff to leave the institution because they had attractive remunerations. There was moonlighting and internal brain drain from among the academic staff.

2. SIGNIFICANCE

The findings of this study might be of importance to the main stakeholder, the Ministry of Higher Education, which is the main custodian of educational provision in universities in the country. The findings of this study might also be used to improve policies on retention of Lecturers at UNZA and other public universities. This would improve the country’s human capital resource and might, in turn have a positive impact on education standards. It is also hoped that this study may help managements to evolve a professional structure that would support Lecturers’ morale and improve their standards of living.

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Most people migrate from one country to another because they believe they will find a better living. Each migrant has his or her own motive for migrating and has different experiences. Nevertheless, there are some common features and patterns such as the wish to escape poverty. These are the features upon which the theoretical framework of this thesis is based. Policies of migration address the reasons why people leave their place of work for institutions which give attractive working conditions. Sociologists have long analysed migration in terms of the “push-pull” model. This model differentiates between push factors that drive people to leave home, and pull factors that attract migrants to a new location. The second sets of factors are stick/stuck and stay factors. Stick factors consist of reasons that keep people where they are in spite of persuasive push and pull factors to migrate. The stay factors are those that prevent a person from returning to their place of origin after they have migrated (Dovlo, 2005).

3.1. Push and Pull Factors

Push factors come in many forms and in one way or another they contribute to people leaving their country of origin. Some people are left with no other choice but to leave their country, under circumstances such as natural disasters, war, and political or religious persecution, while others choose to leave for reasons like better work opportunities or higher wages. According to the International Labour Organisation, about half of the total population of current migrants have left home to find better jobs and lifestyle opportunities for their families. The Index Mundi (2012) observed that in some countries, jobs do not exist for a bigger population. In others, the gap between the rewards for labour in sending and receiving countries are push factors. Working conditions that reduce job satisfaction such as poor management, lack of medicine and equipment and the accompanying inability to offer effective care to affected patients are common reasons for those who worked in the health sector. Some work-associated risks of being a health worker in Southern Africa exist, particularly with the rise in prevalence of HIV and AIDS. Owing to the high attrition from the health care profession, it leaves those who stay with an even heavier workload (Padarath et al, 2003). Poor housing, general isolation from social networks and lack of quality education are also common push factors.

3.2. Stick/Stuck and Stay Factors

A variety of reasons keep people from migration. These might include anxieties about learning a new language, cultural and religious differences among others (Padarath et al. 2003). Family, children, and cultural ties are likely to be strong for some people and may keep them stuck in their country of

origin. Loyalty towards government as well as the expense of relocation is another factor that may prevent people from migrating or make it difficult to do so. But also broad factors such as quality of life, family responsibilities, security, career paths and social values have a bearing on stick factors.

Once people have migrated to work abroad, they may choose not to return owing to a variety of stay factors. These include the development of new social and cultural bonds, the risk of disruption in the education of the children, or a reluctance to disrupt new schooling and family patterns, social welfare benefits and good health facilities. Some are also unaware of job opportunities in the home country.

Beneath is an overview of all the factors mentioned above, in order to give a more precise picture of how they are interrelated and work:

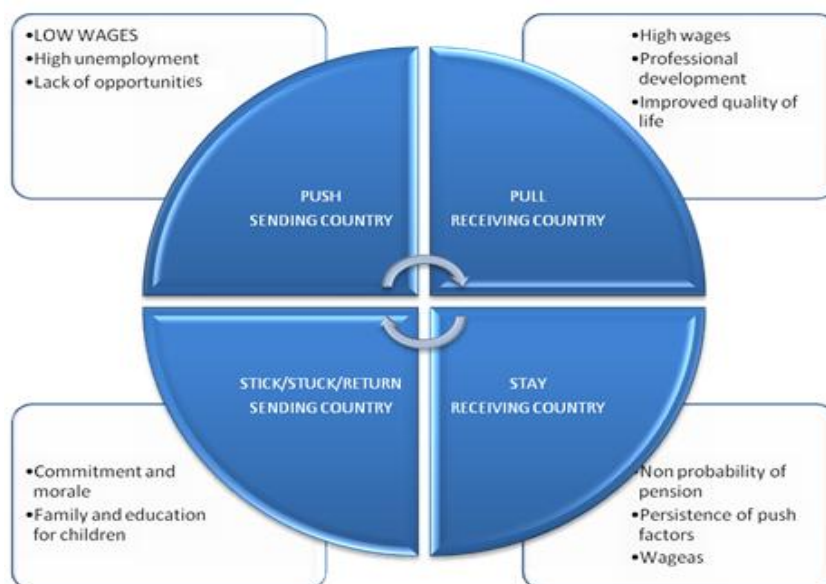


Figure1. Push/Pull, Stuck and Stay Factors

Source: *International Dialogue on Migration, 2011*

4. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many researchers have tried to answer the question as to what determines people's intention to quit by investigating possible past history of employees' intentions to quit. To date, there has been little consistency in the findings, which is partly due to the diversity of employment included by the researchers. Several reasons make people quit from one organisation to another. Stear and Porter (1991) have stated in their studies that high turnover is caused by unhappiness with the work, inadequate compensation, unsafe and unhealthy conditions, unrealistic expectations, inappropriate processes or tools, and poor candidate screening. Other causes are lack of career opportunities and challenges, dissatisfaction with the job-scope or conflict with management. Unstable organisations have a high degree of employee turnover. Employees are more likely to stay when there is a predictable work environment and vice versa. Testa (2008) in his studies found that high turnover rates of experienced professionals can pose a danger to the organisation, due to human capital such as skills, training and knowledge cost. Notably, given the natural specialization of skilled professionals, these employees are likely to be re-employed within the same industry by a competitor.

Motivation is a crucial part of employee engagement. Without motivation towards the job, it is very difficult to be engaged to the job. The motivation theory explains what an organisation can do. Armstrong and Brown (2006:251) suggest that, "It encourages people to apply their efforts and abilities in ways that will further the achievement of the organisation's goals as well as satisfying their own needs". This supports the idea that motivation is an important part of engagement. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory suggests that motivation is created in a hierarchical order, so that the basic needs have to be satisfied first, before the next level of motivation can be reached. These levels include physiological needs, safety, social needs (belongingness), esteem and self-actualisation. According to Griffin and Moorhead (2010:86), "The three needs from the bottom, physiological needs, security and belongingness, are called deficiency needs, since they need to be fulfilled for the

person to be fundamentally comfortable”. The two needs on the top, self-actualisation and esteem, are called growth needs, because they focus on personal growth and development.

Herzberg’s theory is divided into intrinsic and extrinsic factors that affect job satisfaction. Armstrong (2006:256) adds, “The intrinsic factors are the factors that are self-generated, for example responsibility, achievement, recognition, the nature of the work itself and growth of the employee”. He lists pay, promotion, punishment and working conditions as the extrinsic motivators or satisfiers that are done for or to the employees in order to motivate them. Extrinsic factors might have an instant effect. In Zambia and the other developing countries, on the contrary, employees are more satisfied when they receive a good salary or extrinsic factors than in the developed world where they value intrinsic factors. If extrinsic factors are missing, people feel frustrated and may leave the institution due to poverty levels in the developing country.

4.1. Political Instability and Civil War

Political instability and civil war are among the top cited reasons for migration. African countries are in a continuous state of war or conflict. Political conflicts in Africa usually rotate around ethnicity, resource control and power. Power is always at the centre of these conflicts whether they involve ethnic rivalry, resource management or a combination of all these factors and more. Conflict is rarely ever only about one of these factors. Adepaju (2008) wrote that from 1969 to 1990, seventeen of the world’s recorded forty-three civil wars caused major refugee populations were in Africa. These were in countries such as Angola, Liberia and Mozambique. In Sudan, Somalia, Sierra Leone, Rwanda and Burundi, ethnic tensions played visibly important roles in such conflicts. As of 1996, 20 African countries have been involved in some form of political uprising or unrest (Tettey, 2002). Virtually all regions of the African continent have experienced some sort of civil conflict or political instability since independence. Countries like Nigeria, Rwanda, Zambia and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) have experienced periods of political instability.

4.2. Corruption and Poverty

Political instability has created convenient platforms for corruption and theft. African leaders often enjoy a strong and prolonged hold on power sometimes lasting for decades. McFerson’s (2009) observes that Governance and Hyper-corruption in Resource-rich African Countries by corrupt African leaders contribute to the underdevelopment of their own countries. This is coupled with the presence of precious natural resources which is often cited as being directly related with the level of corruption in a country. Nevertheless, corruption still occurs in countries without natural resources. Corruption takes many forms, one of which involves prolonged leadership. There are a number of leaders who have overstayed their presidential term. Zimbabwe, Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo are good examples where presidents have overstayed. The presence of “irregularities” during elections is also common. Power can be obtained at any cost, whether it is through outright violence, intimidation, coercion or through fraudulent election activities. Armed groups are sometimes hired by both the state and community members to execute violent operations against corporations, groups and individuals (Rosenau et al., 2009). Political elites sometimes use these groups to intimidate opponents and rig elections. This type of stronghold on power is resistant to any political opposition, hinders prospects for development, and perpetuates the cycle of corruption.

4.3. Remittance

The immigrants in the Diaspora sometimes remit money back home. Shinn (2008:1) adds: “The Diaspora have become significant sources of financial remittance back to their home country”. Kenya, Nigeria, Ghana, Zimbabwe and Zambia are good examples of African countries that have a number of people who are in Diaspora. These countries gain from foreign transfer of funds by immigrants who are in Diaspora. In Somalia, the transmittal helped the government to finance terrorism, civil wars and liberation struggles in collapsed or failed states. People who work outside the country send money back home to their families.

4.4. Quality of Educational System

Political unrest and corruption undoubtedly contribute to the dilapidation of public infrastructure and services. According to Banya (2001), universities continue to suffer from deteriorating infrastructures — dilapidated buildings, near-collapsed libraries and ill-equipped laboratories — and the ongoing

brain drain. Education is among the public goods that have suffered tremendously as a result of worsening social, economical and political conditions. Hence, the declining state of education in many Sub-Saharan African countries is another reason some Africans migrate to western countries. It is important to note here that despite this fact, many African school systems still produce some of the most brilliant minds. Those who successfully make it through the school system are likely to seek additional educational and occupational opportunities abroad because the prospects of “making it” at home are low.

4.5. Academics a Threat to Government

At the tertiary level, the situation is even more depressing. The absence of qualified and seasoned faculties has affected the process of critical thinking and knowledge production. In addition to this, academic liberty is highly restricted as a result of intolerant regimes. Academics and intellectuals are discouraged, punished, tortured and sometimes even killed for criticising the government (Tettey, 2002). Academics are often seen as a threat to the state because of the power they have in impacting knowledge and influencing the beliefs of students about the state (Jumare, 1997). The state is supposed to make use of this academic staff so that together, development can be enhanced. El-Khawas (2004) writes that academics in particular, have fled institutions of higher education because of the persecution they face when they speak out against the government. The Government should understand Lecturers and try by all means to embrace them and not threaten them. As a result, several thousands of PhD holders from Africa have furthered their studies and sought occupational opportunities in the West (El-Khawas, 2004).

Today, investing in education does not appear to be important among African governments’ top priorities. It has been reported that some African countries spend up to four times more on repaying loans than investing in education (Holman, 1999). This has been difficult for Third World countries which are busy borrowing and at times misusing this money by diverting to projects other than education. According to the Fragile States Unit of the African Development Bank (2011), the extent of brain drain in other developing countries is not as extreme as that of African countries because other developing countries have since seen the benefits of an increased investment in higher education. With so little attention given to the condition of education, Africans are driven to search for better opportunities elsewhere even if these opportunities present themselves outside of the continent.

4.6. Social Mobility

Evidently, social mobility via career advancement in some African countries is often stagnated. There is a tendency for older employees to occupy positions for extended periods beyond retirement often causing the youth to get stuck at a particular level and/or search for opportunities elsewhere (Tettey, 2002). In May 2015, the retirement age in Zambia, was revised to 60 years with options of 55 and 65 respectively as early and late retirement while 60 is normal retirement under the SI number 24 (Lusakatimes, 2014). This has blocked the young ones from getting employed. Furthermore, there is often low valuation and respect accorded to certain professions such as teaching. Some university environments are hostile to professors and other teaching personnel. These environments may sometimes be characterised by violence and cult activity that threaten the safety of academic staff. Lack of stability and high student to professor ratios discourage academics from working in such settings (Jumare, 1997). The academic staff need time to research and relax with their families.

4.7. Social, Political and Economic Factors

Thus, a number of social, political and economic factors simultaneously operate to create conditions where skilled Africans choose to migrate abroad. Each factor is invariably linked to each other, for instance, a dysfunctional and corrupt government threatens political stability and contributes to a failed educational system, unemployment and poverty. It is key to note here that migration in these instances can be viewed as a survival strategy (Nworah, 2005). Those who migrate tend to be individuals who are the most educated and who have the resources (financial and otherwise) to do so. In essence, these conditions force the most valuable human resources required for development out of the countries that need them the most, thereby causing a brain drain. However, the most valuable asset available to an organisation is its people, thus retention of staff in their jobs is essential for an institution. Indeed there is a paradigm shift from human resource to human capital which consists of the knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees in an organisation which is indicative of their

value (Armstrong, 2010). If employees leave their jobs, it is often a sign that something is going wrong. Guma (2011) contends that poor job retention among employees leads to many costs associated with employee turnover which includes additional burden on the remaining staff, recruitment and training costs, lost productivity, loss of clients and loss of intellectual capital. Another more insidious cost of turnover is the sharing of a company's methods, technology, and clients with competitors who may have hired the employee. It thus goes with little emphasis that undesirable employee turnover is costly and disruptive, and drains resources and can cause inefficiency (Harting, 2008).

Despite the aforementioned, the social, economic and political developments in combination with the processes of globalisation and the space time compression that have come with the development in the area of information and communication technologies have contributed towards the flow of highly skilled individuals from one end of the world to the other (Tettey, 2006). Consequently, staff retention has become a challenging phenomenon for both public and private organisations. As the labour market has changed open competition for other companies' staff, once a rarity in business, is nowadays an accepted fact, and strategic poaching of key employees has become common practice. In the modern world of work, the psychological contract between the employer and employee has changed fundamentally and long term commitment to an organisation is no longer expected by either party (Sutherland, 2004). According to Dibble (1999), one of the characteristics of the new contract is that employees continually change jobs throughout their career, endeavouring to secure the best for themselves.

Universities are no exception to the challenge of staff retention particularly with the core employees - the academic staff, and it is expected that these institutions will be increasingly obliged to make retention of academics a strategic priority (Pienaar and Bester, 2008). Indeed, the problem of academic staff retention is global and affects both developing and industrialised countries. A survey of full time faculty members in the U.S. in 2000 showed that more than 40 percent of them had contemplated changing careers (Sanderson et al., 2000). In a study carried out in Australian higher education institutions, 68 percent of the academic personnel indicated that they wished to leave higher education (Yousaf, 2010). In South African higher education institutions, the problem of staff retention is evident, since available data indicate that a substantial number (between 5 percent and 18 percent) of academics leave higher education institutions (Pienaar and Bester, 2008).

In the SADC region, Zambia is no exception to the phenomenon of staff retention which is manifested more in form of internal brain drain. The deteriorating economic condition made the institution lose a lot of academic staff to other institutions within and abroad. Lecturers left for these places because their conditions of service were better than UNZA's. Evenson (2004:5) states: "The escape route from the mass poverty now endemic in most African countries is improved income". Of late there has been an improvement in retention because lecturers move from one institution to another within the country in order to raise finances for their needs. There are many new universities, for example in Lusaka, which have mushroomed and many of them turn to UNZA for the academic staff to go and teach their students. These lecturers are given remunerations which when added to what they get at UNZA make them realise that they are learned people and do not just need to wait for the administration to motivate them .

4.8. National or Organisation Politics

National or organisational politics could lead to poor retention. In Zambia, for instance, every time the country changed a government, some Lecturers were given political appointments leaving work to a few. In institutions where the administrators favoured a small number of Lecturers, those who felt that they were not liked felt isolated and could not stay long there. The Lecturers that left the university were difficult to replace. They left a gap in the institution resulting in poor results in the performance of students. In some institutions, workers saw the environment as unfriendly when they were not protected from unfair criticism, sexual harassment, or gender exploitation by co-workers (MacKusick and Minick in Kantini, 2015). A salary was the most obvious monetary incentive that affected retention. When remunerations were poor in the university, Lecturers were discouraged and joined institutions which offered more attractive packages. There was much evidence that employees, especially knowledge workers, tended to expect their work to be at least somewhat meaningful and rewarding.

Qualified staff of the Zambian universities did moonlighting activities in order to survive. Many times Lecturers negotiated with the management to improve their salaries but they were not given due consideration, and they resorted to strikes, work stoppage or exit to other institutions or countries. Chapman (1994:9) reports: “This has led to many employees leaving the profession or the country to take up jobs that were more motivating”. Those who worked in the university experienced too much dissatisfaction and a low morale to continue working. The Lusaka Times (June, 2012:1) reported: “The Minister of Education regretted the strike action by UNZA Lecturers”. They withheld results demanding salary increment and better conditions of service. This confirms that Lecturers in the University of Zambia at times went on strike when the Government did not bow to their demands.

Those who graduated from this institution during that time came out half baked. This is supported by Kelly (2006:103) who says, “In later years, there was a loss of time, continuity, trust and international credibility through regular and prolonged closures and disturbances”. Some of these closures were due to dissatisfaction of Lecturers who earned poor remuneration owing to inadequate funding to the University. Lecturers’ salaries came partly from grants from the Government, fees for the students and some projects of the University. When funding was low, remunerations were not attractive. This at times led to brain drain.

4.9. Remuneration

The Ministry of Education (2011:6) points out, “The salaries are relatively higher than those paid in other areas of the Zambian economy”. They are low in comparison with what the academic staff are paid elsewhere in Southern Africa. This therefore means that higher institutions were supposed to compete with the universities outside the country in terms of incentives if they were to retain their personnel. The government needed to treasure their human resource and give them more enticement in order to keep them in its institutions. The Government of Zambia needed to compare how much it paid Lecturers in its public universities to other countries outside Zambia in order to give them more money and hence retain them. This is in line with Torrington’s (2005:171) thought: “Good pay reduces staff turnover and that employers who offer the most attractive reward package have lower attrition rates than those who pay poorly”.

If salaries were well formulated to appreciate the works of Lecturers, the latter were going to remain in the university longer. It was therefore imperative for the administrators to develop a good plan of paying benefits and incentives that would have raised the morale of Lecturers and prolonged their stay at the university (Ministry of Education, 1992). This is supported by the Ministry of Education (1996:122) which states: “Terms and conditions of service crucially affect the morale and commitment of teachers and the Ministry will strive to have these improved”. The Ministry was responsible for the retention of Lecturers and this was done through sending of grants to the university for the Payment of salaries and pension benefits.

The other factors that brought about poor retention were no job advancement opportunities, benefits and personal developments, no funds for research, morale and job satisfaction, human resources and management policies. Unhealthy relationship with superiors or colleagues could cause somebody to leave for a happier environment even if salaries were attractive (Nunny, 2005 in Kubler and De Luca, 2006). The affected employees got discouraged and decided to leave for another place where there was motivation.

5. METHODOLOGY

The research instruments used were questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussion. The target population was lecturers in all the schools at the University of Zambia. A research design describes the state of affairs as it is. In this kind of research, the researcher reports the findings as they are gathered from the field and the sampled population. A research design is not only restricted to fact findings, but may often result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solution to significant problems.

The mixed methods approach was used. It includes at least one quantitative technique to collect numbers and one qualitative technique to collect words (Creswell, 2014). The use of a mixed methods approach is meant to secure an optimal understanding of the phenomenon in question involving the

research dimensions of both breadth and depth (Johnson and Christensen, 2012) and (Johnson et al., 2007). Moreover, the use of mixed methods was for the purpose of triangulation due to the fact that the individual merit of one method offset the other methods' demerits (Jick, 2008). The need for both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis allowed the researcher to employ the convergent parallel mixed methods design. Mixed method approach is best suited to exploratory research.

According to Creswell (2014) the convergent parallel mixed methods design used by the present study is one in which a researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data, analyses them separately, and then compares the results to see if the findings confirm or disconfirm each other. This was found appropriate since it accommodated equal use of quantitative and qualitative methods with triangulation of research instruments in concurrent timely data collection (quantitative and qualitative data collected concurrently) and merged, compared and interpreted to give a detailed analysis of the research problem.

6. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The study targeted 137 key respondents. The tools used to collect data were questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. Among the people who were sampled were 110 Lecturers, 10 former students and 17 administrators.

120 Lecturers were purposely sampled and 17 administrators were selected using stratified sampling technique. The overall response rate from the respondents who answered the questionnaires was satisfactory at 96.66 %. The gender of respondents was biased towards men. More males participated than females in this study.

Age of the participant was considered as one influencing factor of job satisfaction and turnover. While 4 (6 %) of the participants were in the range of 26-30 years old, 7 (11 %) were in the range of 36 to 40 years of age and 39 (60 %) were 40 years and older and 2 (3 %) did not disclose how old they were. Age of respondents is one of the most important characters in understanding views about a particular problem; by and large age usually indicates level of maturity of individuals but commonly the younger the people are, the more adventurous they are and are ready to take risks that come with venturing into unknown territories.

Academic qualification of the respondents was considered as one influencing factor of retention in universities. Education is one of the most important characteristics that might affect the person's attitudes and the way of looking at and understanding any particular social phenomena. In a way, the response of an individual is likely to be determined by his/her educational status and therefore it becomes imperative to know the educational background of the respondents. The highest professional qualifications of participants were looked at. It was revealed that 42 (65 %) of the respondents had Masters as their academic qualification. The number of respondents who had PhD was 22 (34 %) while 1 (1.5 %) of the respondent indicated that he had other qualifications which were different from what was listed on the options.

Further, respondents were ranked according to their positions. Ranking is one of the factors which can dissatisfy an academic staff if not properly handled. It can be concluded that generally the respondents were progressive in education but they were still far away from the higher education which is so important today to create a knowledge based society. Whereas 42 (65 %) of the respondents had a Lecturer 1 position, more than half of all the Lecturers sampled held this position. The number of respondents who attained senior Lecturer position was 21 (32 %) while 1 (1.5 %) of the respondent indicated that he was Lecturer 2. Only one respondent (1.5 %) indicated was an Associate Professor.

The number of years participants served at the university was considered. While 20 (31 %) of the respondents served between 0 to 5 years, 20 (31 %) had served between 6 to 10 years with 10 (15 %) of the respondents serving 21 years or more and 10 (15 %) had served between 16 to 20 years.

Low salaries and other financial benefits contribute to job satisfaction and retention. While 27 (42 %) of the respondents strongly agreed that low salaries and other financial benefits contributed to the

migration of Lecturers to other types of jobs, 16 (24 %) of the respondents agreed. However, 18 (28 %) of the participants disagreed, and 4 (6 %) strongly disagreed.

The poor economic conditions in the country can contribute to Lecturers' migrating from the University. While 5 (8 %) of the respondents strongly disagreed, 21 (32 %) respondents disagreed, 16 (25 %) agreed while 34 (22 %) agreed and 1 (1.5 %) did not respond that poor economic conditions in the country contributed to Lecturers migration.

Nevertheless, respondents to this study cited other challenges they faced resulting from working in the university but the most prominent ones were as follows: poor funding from the government for the running of the institution, poor working conditions, lack of incentives, poor infrastructure, limited time for academic research, over-enrolment of students which led to over-crowded lecture theatres, work overload for Lecturers, inadequate teaching and learning resources especially in the library. Besides the questionnaire, there were alumni of UNZA who were used for focus group discussion. Some lecturers were also interviewed especially those who had worked for more than five years.

7. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status and job tenure are important in determining the intention to quit. Older academic staffs rarely resign their jobs. This is because the senior lecturers do not have a wide range of options in searching for employment opportunities. Besides, the old academic staff are more loyal to the organisation because they expect a higher salary for a long period of service, as the longer paid leave and pension benefits are more attractive. The younger workers change jobs more often than the older workers do. This is in line with Souza-Poza and Henneberger (2002) who pointed out that younger employees tend to change their employment more often, since they are experiencing an experimental phase at the beginning of their professional life. Robbins et al, (2008), add that employees usually have fewer alternative job opportunities as they get older. Older academic staff are less likely to resign than younger ones are because their long tenure tends to provide them with higher wage rates and more attractive retirement benefits.

It was found that among other factors, poor salaries affected intentions of academic staff to retain their jobs. Alongside these findings, the theoretical propositions of Herzberg and Maslow's theories (Aswathappa, 2005) which state that the implication of remuneration is that high employee performance followed by monetary rewards make future employee performance and job retention more likely support the findings from this study. Thus, Lecturers at UNZA who are satisfied with their remuneration are capable of retaining their jobs while those that are not satisfied may quit. A good working environment is needed for academic members of staff. If the environment is not conducive to work, they will find an alternative somewhere. "People work simultaneously to attain pay and rewards, social contact and status" (Hannagan, 2008:390).

It was revealed by the participants that staff turnover has negative administrative and financial effects on the institution. It also affects the social set up of an organisation. The majority of the respondents claimed that the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and expertise was the greatest benefit enjoyed as a result of working in a university. This was followed by the establishment of new networks and contacts while new cultural experience was the least benefit. The majority of the participants also claimed to have undergone a smooth recruitment process without any challenges.

In this study, relationship between Lecturers' satisfaction with their employment at the university and their intentions to retain jobs was looked at. Lecturers who were satisfied with their employment conditions or contracts had more intentions of retaining their jobs. This is because as satisfaction with the employment contract increases, intentions to retain the job also increase. These findings have been supported by the findings of Chew (2004) who worked on the influence of human resource practices in Australian organisations. He found out that as employment modes differ, the nature of the psychological contracts among employees also differs and hence a difference in their intentions to retain jobs. Thus, there must first be satisfaction with the employment contract if a sustainable employment relationship between Lecturers and their employer is to exist. Boyle (2000) adds that contracting brings about sustainable employment relationships between employers and employees.

Alongside the findings of Chew (2004), Ssesanga *et al* (2005) found out that the nature of employment contract determines employees' job satisfaction which later influences their intentions to

retain jobs, which is true basing on the results from this study. This is because employment contracts strengthen partnerships between employees and employers (Gillian, 1999). Thus, when an employee is satisfied with the employment contract there are high chances that such an employee will retain the job for more years.

It is implied that contingent employment relationships such as temporary employment contracts result in decreased satisfaction among employees and hence reduced job retention. This is also supported by Taylor (2002) who posits that a permanent contract makes a job attractive and it would take a hard decision for such an employee to leave the job. This is a testimony that satisfaction with employment contract really affects intentions to retain the job. From this discussion therefore the researcher upholds that satisfaction with an employment contract affects Lecturers' intentions to retain their jobs at UNZA.

Mamdani (2007) states that Lecturers, especially those at junior level, worked under the most difficult conditions but they received the least remuneration. He asserts that some Lecturers were never positively recognised for their work in the University. He cited an example of how Lecturers in Makerere taught in the same university for several years without being confirmed. This worked against their motivation to do their teaching jobs and later on the university retained them. Thus, if UNZA is to improve intentions of job retention among its employees, it needs to recognise the efforts that lecturers are putting in their work. The result of this study revealed that Lecturers should be promoted and ranked appropriately before they become frustrated. Remunerations go with ranks that one has. If one is never promoted, the remunerations will be low. The study indicates that lecturers with lower academic rank (Lecturer 3 and Lecturer 2), have greater intention to quit the university than those with higher ranks such as lecturer 1, Associate Professor and full Professor. This is in agreement with Tetty (2006) who said that junior academic staff are more likely to leave their present job than the senior staff are.

The quality of the supervision an employee receives is critical to employee retention (Andrew and Kent, 2007). People leave managers and supervisors more often than they leave companies or jobs. It is not enough that supervisors should be liked by people. They have a critical role to play in retention. Deans of Schools and Heads of Department should develop a good relationship with the people they supervise. The managers should also relate and listen to lecturers' complaints. In the university, the union president is a member of the University Council and hence negotiates for Lecturers' conditions of service.

Employees decide to seek employment elsewhere for a number of reasons such as feeling unappreciated or unchallenged, unreasonable working hours, unpleasant working conditions, and undesirable work schedules were other common reasons cited by participant. Employee job satisfaction is also influenced when they have an opportunity for advancement of individual competencies through various training programs. If another institution offers better conditions of service, employees with appropriate training, skills and abilities will have few qualms about changing jobs and such moves are likely to occur when employees' market skills match available opportunities (Kirschenbaum and Mano- Negrin, 1999).

8. CONCLUSION

- i. One of the primary conclusions from this study is that the factors that most significantly contributed to an employee's satisfaction with a position were similar to the factors that contributed to the likelihood of an employee seeking employment with another institution. The common factors affecting employees' satisfaction and the likelihood to leave were satisfaction with rewards and recognition, task identity, feedback, number of positions held at the university, age, and satisfaction with the rank as an indicator for prospects to seek a position with another organisation (Herzberg, 1982).
- ii. High labour turnover is dangerous because it affects the growth and productivity of an establishment. Scholars believe that a core of experienced workers is necessary for the success of an institution. For experience on the job and in the institution, workers must be stable (Hackett, 1979). Organisations and institutions are highly concerned about the leaving of employees because it is generally very costly to select and train new employees to replace those who left.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- i. Improved conditions of service will immensely contribute to retention of Lecturers towards better performance. The researcher discovered that the university explicitly links rewards to retention. There is evidence that employers who offer the most attractive reward packages have lower attrition rates than those who pay poorly (Gerhart, 2009 in Torrington, 2014). Salaries and fringe benefits should be paid on time and should be competitive with other universities or in the region. Retired academic staff should be given their benefits on time so that the university can reduce the burden on its wage bill or payroll.
- ii. Academic staff developments should be accorded priority since possible growth and advancement on the job is a vital motivational factor. Well-designed training programmes should be emphasised not just to meet the professional needs of university Lecturers but also to enhance the quality of teaching and ensure the retention of competent and dedicated staff. Administrators should be highly trained in management of academic staff (Hachman and Oldham, 2000).
- iii. Prominence should be given to the provision of research grants. The Government should increase money that is given to the university so that the institution can run without any interruption.
- iv. On the other hand, the university should improve on the major projects so that it raises money for salaries and other needs instead of over reliance on the government to help. The university should be self-sustaining.
- v. Attendance and participation in seminars and conferences should be encouraged to enrich the knowledge and skills of Lecturers. "Training is an essential human resources function, providing a number of benefits for both workers and the organization" (Youssef, et al., 2012). These seminars should be funded by the university so that academic staff can attend and be nourished with the knowledge they need for their work. The job should be enriched and made more challenging by allowing Lecturers to have a good chance to take control over the way they do their job and recognise important contributions.
- vi. Qualified personnel get the education from universities. UNZA holds the key for development of our nation. It is therefore important for universities to have adequate capacity for human development in order for the country to achieve Vision 2030. The personnel need to be highly motivated.

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