



Global Advanced Research Journal of Management and Business Studies (ISSN: 2315-5086) Vol. 1(9) pp. 278-299, October, 2012
Available online <http://garj.org/garjbb/index.htm>
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Review

Factors that Determine Academic Staff Retention and Commitment in Private Tertiary Institutions in Botswana: Empirical Review

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Accepted 03 October 2012

Employee retention posits one of the greatest challenges in many organisations, let alone, academic institutions world-wide, in contemporary times. There is a growing global interest in matters of recruitment and staff retention in higher education institutions and Botswana is no exemption. Invariably all tertiary institutions in Africa are confronted with the tremendous challenge of identifying, recruiting and retaining high caliber staff, particularly lecturers. These trends have engendered a more strategic approach to human resource management across the higher education sector, (Kubler and DeLuca (2006: 9). This study found that there is a dearth of research that focuses on academic staff retention in private tertiary education institutions in Botswana, let alone methodological framework that provides for framework to conduct such research. This study therefore reviews content and process theories of motivation alongside job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee engagement theories as possible avenues towards a framework for understanding what motivates academic staff let alone how to actually motivate them in practice. The study conducted an empirical review of literature and applicability of the theories. Eventually this study made a conclusion that a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors was critical to staff motivation, hence providing a hypothetical conceptual model.

Keywords: Factors, Determine, Motivation, Content and Process Theories, Organisational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Employee Engagement, Academic Staff Retention, Private Tertiary Institutions in Botswana

INTRODUCTION

This paper discussed factors that determine academic staff retention and commitment in private tertiary institutions in Botswana providing an empirical review of literature as its main focus and aim. The study provides a background of the study, immediately turning to review of literature which starts with a discussion of what are dubbed as content and process theories of motivation; further discusses job satisfaction, organisation

commitment and employee engagement as important elements of academic staff retention. The paper further singles out important factors on which academic staff retention is not only hinged but contingent upon. The study also proposes a hypothetical academic staff retention model. This study is not complete without an empirical review of literature and a critical review of existing literature on academic staff retention, after which

a conclusion is reached.

Background of the Study

There is no subject that has been darkened by so great a controversy in the studies of social sciences as that of staff retention, and academic staff retention is no exempt. There is a growing global interest in matters of recruitment and staff retention in higher education institutions and Botswana is no exemption. The emergency of globalisation has not been innocent in ensuring staff retention, as it is solely responsible for the better or for the worse for opening the global economy and making its citizens mobile, let alone, academic staff. Research has demonstrated that the quality of staff in an organization has a direct influence on its organizational effectiveness, (Du Toit, Erasmus and Strydom, 2008). Demand and competition for highly qualified academics has intensified. Growth in global mobility and shifting demographic profiles, means recruiting and retaining talented and knowledgeable lecturers and researchers is an ever-increasing challenge. These trends have engendered a more strategic approach to human resource management across the higher education sector, (Kubler and DeLuca 2006).

Simply put academic staff retention refers to the process of the ability of an institution to not only recruit qualified academic staff but also retain competent staff through establish a quality of work-life, motivated staff climate, best place of work and being an employer of choice contingent upon committed formulation and execution of best practices in human resource and talent management. Academic staff retention is a favourable outcome for all university management reliant upon the whole employment package, discussed in this whole document, may be not without exhaustive endeavour, but with definitive terms upon further research can be drafted.

However, globally, while there have been no reports of severe academic staff recruitment and retention challenges in countries such as the United Kingdom (Universities UK, 2007), the case is different with African Universities. Many studies have proved a dire need for not only recruiting qualified and but retaining competent staff as well. Tetty (2006) found that:

“Africa is losing, in significant numbers, a fundamental resource in socio-economic and political development – i.e., its intellectual capital. As the processes of globalization take shape, it is becoming abundantly clear that full, effective, and beneficial participation in the world that is emerging will depend, in no small measure, on the ability of societies to build and take advantage of their human resource capabilities. In the absence of such capabilities, African countries cannot expect to compete at any appreciable level with their counterparts, not only

in the industrialized world, but also from other developing areas which have made the investment and developed the relevant capacities”.

What stems from Tetty (2006) is that there are severe recruitment and retention difficulties in African Universities. The main reason forwarded for the state of affairs, which has eroded academic staff base, unfortunately amongst other things, includes ‘inadequate and non-competitive salaries vis-à-vis local and international organizations, and lack of job satisfaction due to non-monetary reasons’, (Tetty, 2006).

However, such as wilderness of retention staff is further exacerbated by a dearth not only of relevant information to address the subject, but also reliable information on the basis of which decisions can be made. Over the years there has not been any methodology that adequately address the problem of academic staff retention, or least one that we are aware of but further to that not much research output points to the acknowledgement of the problem amongst private tertiary institutions in Botswana. The only research that is close to the problem is one by Tetty (2006) which differs in that it has focused mostly on public sector institutions. The problem of academic staff retention is not a recent problem. Since the history of mankind began, where an employer and employee relation was in concert, staff retention has been commonplace. The need to keep and maintain competent staff is every organisation, let alone, top management’s major source of headache and stress.

Definitions and conceptualisations of staff retention and staff motivation abound with as many in existence as there are schools of thought or experts on the subject. Kreitner (1995), for example, defined it as the psychological process that gives behaviour purpose and direction whereas Buford, Bedeian, and Lindner (1995) used the term to refer to the predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific, unmet needs. Lindner (1998), on the other hand, utilized the concept of motivation to refer to the inner force that drives individuals to accomplish personal and organizational goals. For the purpose of this study, the concept will be defined as a feeling of commitment to doing something well and being prepared to put energy and effort into it. Motivation varies in nature and intensity from individual to individual, depending on the particular mixture of influences on him/her at any given moment. These influences are related to the person’s needs.

The debate about employee motivation for instance can be traced to the results of the Hawthorne Studies, conducted by Elton Mayo from 1924 to 1932. The studies found that employees are not motivated solely by money and employee behavior is linked to their attitudes (Dickson, 1973). This shifted the way of thinking about employees from the perception that employees were just another input into the production of goods and services (Lindner, 1998). Originating from the Hawthorne Studies

was the human relations approach to management, whereby the needs and motivation of employees become the primary focus of managers, (Bedeian, 1993). The publication of the Hawthorne Study results ignited great interest in the subject of employee motivation with many carrying out studies aimed at understanding what motivated employees (content theories of motivation) and how they are motivated (process theories of motivation), (Terpstra, 1979). Emanating from the various studies about motivation is a number of theories that have been developed and used to understand the subject of motivation and its influence on organizational life and also to enable managers to understand more about the complex nature of motivation. The most notable approaches have included content theories viz Maslow's needs-hierarchy theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and process theories viz Vroom's expectancy theory, goal theory and Adams' equity theory.

Maslow's needs-hierarchy theory explained motivation utilizing employee needs. Based on the theory, employees have five levels of needs ranked hierarchically (Maslow, 1943). These are biological and physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualizing needs. Maslow posited that lower level needs had to be satisfied before the next higher level needs would motivate employees. Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory, on the other hand, categorized motivation into two factors: motivators and hygiene factors. He argued that motivators or intrinsic factors (such as achievement and recognition) produce job satisfaction while hygiene or extrinsic factors (such as pay and job security) produce job dissatisfaction among employees. McClelland's theory of needs /achievement. He argued that there are basically three needs present in people, namely, need for achievement, affiliation and power, in varying degrees depending on the weight attached to them. The three needs are enumerated as follows, (a) Need for achievement - where this is high then people have an intense desire to succeed and an equally intense fear of failure; (b) Need for affiliation - where this is high people tend to seek acceptance by others, need to feel loved and are concerned with maintaining pleasant social relationships and (c) the Need for power - people with a high need for power seek opportunities to influence and control others, seek leadership positions and are often articulate, outspoken and stub.

The expectancy theory as developed by Vroom rests on the belief that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards (Vroom, 1964). According to Vroom (1964), rewards may be either positive or negative with rewards increasing the levels of motivation among employees whereas negative rewards reduce the levels of the same. Finally, Adams'(1965) equity theory argues that employees strive for equity

between themselves and other workers. According to the theory, equity is attained when the ratio of employee outcomes over inputs is equal to other employee outcomes over inputs. Edwin Locke and Gary Latham, proposed the importance of specific and challenging goals in achieving motivated behaviour. They argued that goals affect behaviour in four ways (1) they direct attention and action to those behaviours which a person believes will achieve a particular goal; (2) they mobilise effort towards reaching the goal; (3) they increase the person's persistence, which results in more time spent on the behaviours necessary to attain the desired goal; and finally (4) they motivate the person's search for effective strategies for goal attainment.

Alongside the same studies have also been conducted which address job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee engagement as catalytic to desirable organisational outcome, productivity being one and decision to stay being another.

The subject of motivating employees, thus retaining staff, is extremely important to managers and supervisors in today's challenging labour market environment. I propose that you cannot retain unmotivated staff. A motivated workforce is crucial to the success and survival of any business in today's uncertain and turbulent business climate with its ever-rising competition (Smith, 1994; Field, 2003). Tetty (2006) has observed 'Africa is losing, in significant numbers, a fundamental resource in socio-economic and political development - i.e., its intellectual capital. As the processes of globalization take shape, it is becoming abundantly clear that full, effective, and beneficial participation in the world that is emerging will depend, in no small measure, on the ability of societies to build and take advantage of their human resource capabilities'. As such, to be effective managers need to understand what motivates employees within the context of the roles they perform and also how such staff can be motivated to perform as expected. While this may not be an easy task, given that what motivates employees changes constantly (Bowen and Radhakrishna, 1991; McNamara, 1999), it is nonetheless essential. Academic staff retention viz staff motivation in private tertiary education institutions is not freed from the rule.

To survive the increasing global competition, expand and maintain its sustainability, private colleges and universities in Botswana requires a highly motivated workforce. However, despite management's recognition that motivation is important to the organization's competitiveness and the inclusion of motivation in the strategic planning agenda, little or nothing is done to not only understand staff motivation or retention factors but also commitment to execute those policies and practices that enhances the same.

Theoretical Review of Literature

Staff motivation is one of the topical issues in organisations of all sizes and across the globe, whether in government, non-profit organisations, private and SMEs, and academic institutions are not exempt. Most organisations are however unable to figure out those things that motivate people and how to implement or execute them to generate the necessary levels of motivation that enhance organisational performance. When dealing with motivation it actually usually answers the question of why people do what they do. At work everyone often works to achieve those things that motivate them.

Motivation is the answer to the question "Why we do what we do?". The motivation theories try to figure out what the "M" is in the equation: "M motivates P" (Motivator motivates the Person).

Emanating from the various studies about motivation is a number of theories that have been developed and used to understand the subject of motivation and its influence on organizational life and also to enable managers to understand more about the complex nature of motivation. Two sets of theoretical underpinning have been developed over the years which deal with the issue of motivation and here it is discussed as it relates to academic staff retention in private tertiary institutions. Maslow, Alderfer, Herzberg and McClelland studied motivation from a "content" perspective. Process Theories deal with the "process" of motivation and is concerned with "how" motivation occurs. Vroom, Porter and Lawler, Adams and Locke studied motivation from a "process" perspective.

Content Theories of Motivation

Simply put content theories of motivation are often referred to as such because they deal with questions of 'what motivates staff'. These theories discuss motivation from a needs based perspective.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's needs-hierarchy is one of the prominent theories on motivation which explained motivation utilizing employee needs, which is also classified as a content theory. Based on the theory, employees have five levels of needs ranked hierarchically (Maslow, 1943). Maslow classified these five needs into biological and physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs.

Maslow posited that we must satisfy each need in turn, starting with the first (lower level needs), which deals with the most obvious needs for survival itself before the next

higher level needs would motivate employees. According to him, only when the lower order needs of physical and emotional well-being are satisfied are we concerned with the higher order needs of influence, self-actualisation or realisation and personal development. Conversely, if the things that satisfy our lower order needs are swept away, we are no longer concerned about the maintenance of our higher order needs. Maslow's theory suggests that an individual's motivational needs aspire to the next level once the lower level needs have been achieved. However, in the present society, these needs are desired by an individual at the same time and must be satisfied simultaneously, (Maslow, 1943).

On the first level are biological or physiological needs. These are basic to life and include food, shelter, air, drink, clothing, and sleep. These needs are satisfied for a short period of time and they re-appear. The second level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs included what are referred to as safety (or security) needs. These pertain to protection from physical danger and the interest for a conducive environment. Examples of safety needs include protection from elements, security, order, good working conditions, and stability. However, for many employees the most important security need is job security (Carrell, Jennings, and Heavrin, 1997). On the third level are social (or belongingness and love) needs. These mainly refer to social relationships inside and outside the organization; that is, work group, family, affection, relationships.

The final two levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs include esteem needs and self-actualization needs, respectively. The former refer to firmly based high evaluation from others for respect and self-esteem. Esteem needs create feelings of self-worth and of being a useful and a necessary employee. They include those needs like self-confidence, achievement, competence, mastery, knowledge independence, status, dominance, prestige, and responsibility. Self-actualization needs, on the other hand, refer to self-fulfilment, self-positioning to become actualized in what one is potentially good at; independence and creativity.

Although over time Maslow's theory was revised in the 1970s and 1990s to include three categories of needs, - Cognitive needs (e.g., knowledge, and meaning); Aesthetic needs (such as appreciation and search for beauty, balance, and form); and Transcendence needs (or helping others to achieve self-actualization) - it is the original model that is the locus of this study. Furthermore, arguably, the original five-level model includes the later additional sixth, seventh and eighth ('Cognitive', 'Aesthetic', and 'Transcendence') levels within the original 'Self-Actualization' level 5 needs. Indeed, each one of the 'new' motivators concerns an area of self-development and self-fulfilment that is rooted in self-actualization 'growth'.

Maslow's theory has been very instrumental in not only

understanding what motivates staff, but also in the unearthing of new theories that have sort to do the same, probably in an improved way. Despite its wide spread popularity it hasnot gone without scrutiny and criticism. Its rigidity in assuming that people focus their attention on a single need is its first accused major weaknesses especially by Alderfer, who then revises it. How even if , this theory has received little research support and therefore is not very useful in practice, it one could glean some meat on how it could be applied in practice in a work setting. The implications of this theory to management of colleges and universities in the private sector in Botswana is that individuals must have their lower level needs met by, for example, safe working conditions and great employment climate, pay that adequately facilitates and accentuates their purchasing power to take care of one's self and one's family, and job security before they are further motivated by increased job responsibilities, recognition, status, growth opportunities and challenging work assignments.

Alderfer's ERG Theory of Motivation

This theory is regarded a revised version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. It was propounded by Clayton Alderfer who in his own terms sought to streamline and synchronise Maslow's hierarchy of needs into three that is, existence-relatedness-growth, with empirical research. He thus streamlined, synchronised and pitched Maslow's hierarchy of need into the above three, which he called, simpler and a broader class of needs, namely, (1) existence needs, which incorporates the needs for basic necessities such as Maslow's physiological and physical safety needs, (2) relatedness needs which incorporates needs that includes the drive and individuals have for maintaining significant interpersonal relationships (be it with family, peers or superiors), getting public fame and recognition. Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs fall under this class of need; and finally, (3) growth needs which assimilates the need for self-development and personal growth and advancement. Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs fall under this category of need. The importance or significance attached to each of the classes of needs varies from one individual to the next based on their circumstance and context.

Alderfer further made the following conclusions to substantiate his theory findings: (a) there may be more than one need operative in an individual at the same time, unlike Maslow's hierarchy of needs who claims that an individual remains at the same level of need s/he feels until it is satisfied, second, (b) if a higher need goes unsatisfied then the desire to satisfy a lower need intensifies, and third (c) it also claims a frustration-

regression dimension, by which a higher- level need aggravates, an individual may revert to increase the satisfaction of a lower- level need. This is called frustration- regression aspect of ERG theory. For instance- when growth need aggravates, then an individual might be motivated to accomplish the relatedness need and if there are issues in accomplishing relatedness needs, then he might be motivated by the existence needs. Thus, frustration/aggravation can result in regression to a lower-level need.

While Maslow's need hierarchy theory is rigid as it assumes that the needs follow a specific and orderly hierarchy and unless a lower-level need is satisfied, an individual cannot proceed to the higher-level need; ERG Theory of motivation is very flexible as he perceived the needs as a range/variety rather than perceiving them as a hierarchy. According to Alderfer, an individual can work on growth needs even if his existence or relatedness needs remain unsatisfied. Thus, he gives explanation to the issue of "starving artist" who can struggle for growth even if he is hungry.

This theory can be applied in academic staff retention in private tertiary education institutions especially in helping management identify (1) existence needs, (2) relatedness needs (3) growth needs that could form the basis for motivating academic staff.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Herzberg's (1966) proffered another perspective to the whole spectrum of motivation through his acclaimed two-factor theory. According to this theory needs can be categorized into two factors, namely hygiene and motivators factors. He argued that hygiene factors are those which create dissatisfaction if individuals perceived them as inadequate or inequitable, yet individuals will not be significantly motivated if these factors as consequently viewed as adequate or good. Simply put, if hygiene factors are seen as adequate they may remove dissatisfaction but does not guarantee the presence of motivation, motivation requires another set or dose of factors (motivators). Hygiene factors also dubbed as extrinsic factors incorporate aspects such as company policies and administration, supervision (the way they are supervised), salary or remuneration, job security, interpersonal relations, and working conditions.

On the other hand, motivators, also referred to as intrinsic factors include a sense of achievement, recognition, increased responsibility and personal growth and development or those are aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction. What this categorically means is that a person may be satisfied and stay longer in an organisation without their performance guaranteed at the same time, hence satisfaction does not translate or

significant correlate with increased or enhanced productivity.

While Herzberg's model may have garnered wide interest and stimulated much research it has not escaped the scrutiny's eye and vice especially by Hackman and Oldham (1976) who claim that while the formulation of model may have a methodological artefact researchers are unable to empirically prove the model reliably. Furthermore, the theory makes a blanket assumption while failing to consider individual differences, conversely predicting all employees will react in an identical manner to changes in motivating/hygiene factors. Finally, the model has been criticised in that it does not specify how motivating/hygiene factors are to be measured.

This theory is relevant to this study in that it recognizes that employees have two categories of needs that operate in them and that both should be addressed, (Ng'ethe, Iravo, and Namusonge, 2012). The theory has been successfully utilised in studies such as Ssesanga and Garrett, (2005) to establish factors influencing job satisfaction of academics in Uganda while Michael (2008) and Samuel, and Chipunza, (2009) to establish motivational variables influencing staff retention in private and public organizations in South Africa.

Contingent on these empirical successes this theory is instructive in establishing those factors that curb job dissatisfaction and those that garner motivation of academic staff in private tertiary colleges and universities.

McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory

David McClelland, based on his book titled "The Achieving Society", in 1961 identified three basic needs and proffered the McClelland's theory of needs /achievement. He argued that there are basically three needs present in people, namely, need for achievement, affiliation and power, in varying degrees depending on the weight attached to them. The three needs are enumerated as follows, (a) Need for achievement - where this is high then people have an intense desire to succeed and an equally intense fear of failure; (b) Need for affiliation - where this is high people tend to seek acceptance by others, need to feel loved and are concerned with maintaining pleasant social relationships and (c) the Need for power - people with a high need for power seek opportunities to influence and control others, seek leadership positions and are often articulate, out spoken and stub. Persons with a high achievement need for instance assuming responsibility for solving problems at work, often setting challenging targets for themselves at work and take deliberate risks to achieve those targets, looking for innovative ways to achieving their targets.

Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories are often dubbed as such because they deal with how to motivate staff in particular they identify how motivation takes place and seek out answers to questions such as 'how do we achieve motivation? Or how to do we motivate staff? Vroom, Porter and Lawler, Adams and Locke studied motivation from a "process" perspective.

It is important to realise that content theories may be seen as the proverbial biblical Moses that delivers Israelites from the promised land but does not deliver them into the promised land, they identify what motivates but did not send the message home on what it takes to score the motivation goal. Process theories deliver that promises as discussed below.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory expectancy theory, or Vroom's Expectancy-Valence-Instrumentality (VIE) theory (Beck, 1983) was developed by Vroom and is premised on the belief that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards (Vroom, 1964). The common themes on which this theory is premised are, (1) individuals make conscious decisions to behave in certain ways; (2) individual values with regard to choosing desired outcomes; (3) individual expectations concerning the amount of effort required to achieve a specific outcome and finally (4) individual expectations concerning the probability of being rewarded for achieving a desired outcome.

According to Vroom (1964), rewards may be either positive or negative with positive rewards increasing the levels of motivation among employees whereas negative rewards reduce the levels of the same, hence people base their behaviour on their beliefs and expectations regarding future events, namely those maximally advantageous to them (Baron, Henley, McGibbon, and McCarthy, (2002). Essentially, motivation is a function of the relationship between (1) effort expended and perceived level of performance, the belief that changes in behaviour will yield desired outcomes, and (2) the expectation that rewards (desired outcomes) will be related to performance. This process may be summarised in the following way:

Motivation Forces = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence

In this case, force is strength of *motivation*; while *valence* is strength of preference for an outcome and *expectancy* is the level of belief that changes in behaviour will achieve the required outcome. Essentially, the theory explains how rewards lead to behaviour, through focusing on internal cognitive states that lead to

motivation. In other words, people are motivated to action if they believe those behaviours will lead to the outcomes they want. The said cognitive states are termed 'expectancy', 'valence' and 'instrumentality' (Spector, 2003). There must essentially also be the expectation that rewards are available. These relationships determine the strength of the motivational link. Vroom's original theory posits that motivation (or 'force') is a mathematical function of three types of cognitions (Vroom, 1964): $Force = Expectancy \times \sum (Valences \times Instrumentalities)$.

Expectancy is defined as "a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome" (Vroom, 1964). This belief, or perception, is generally based on an individual's past experience, self-efficacy, and the perceived difficulty of the performance standard or goal (Porter and Lawler, 1968). Further, Vroom maintains that when deciding among behavioural options, individuals select the option with the greatest motivation forces.

Valence refers to affective orientations (value) toward particular outcomes. An outcome is said to be positively valent for an individual if he or she prefers attaining it to not attaining it. An outcome which a person would prefer to avoid is said to be negatively valent. An outcome can be perceived as having value in itself or because of its instrumentality in achieving other valued ends. Valence is a function of an individual's needs, goals, values and sources of motivation (Vroom, 1964).

Instrumentality is the personal belief that first-level outcomes lead to second level outcomes (Porter and Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Vroom (1964) suggests that expectancies, instrumentalities, and valences interact psychologically within an individual's beliefs to create a motivational force which in turn influences behaviour, (Este and Polnick 2012).

According to Estes and Polnick (2012) high education institutions can utilize expectancy theory in understanding the determinants of motivations for their staffers, though certain guidelines must be observed. The most important observation made in this analysis is that people do not just do what they do. They choose their inputs based on whether such inputs lead to desired outcomes. When utilizing such a theory to motivate academic staff higher education leaders should as per Nadler and Lawler (1977)'s recommendations, understand the following process elements: (a) behavior is determined by a combination of forces in the individual and forces in the environment, (b) people make decisions about their own behaviour in organizations, and (c) different people have different types of needs, desires and goals which can influence performance. Individuals in an organization, according to expectancy theory, make decisions to perform based on their perceptions of the likelihood that effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to desired outcomes (Vroom, 1964; Porter and Lawler, 1968). If therefore the employment relationship is one-

sided towards attainment of the employer's desired outcomes with no link to the desired outcomes or expectations of academic staff it is highly likely to lead to negative valent, it will disconnect them and give them reason not to put adequate effort. Specifically, higher education leaders utilizing Vroom's theory would assume that "the choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behaviour" (1964, p. 14, cited in Estes and Polnick (2012).

Vroom's original formulation of the expectancy theory has undergone some major SC scrutiny and developments (see House, Shapero and Wahba, 1974; Porter and Lawler, 1968; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970). The theory was extended by making the distinction between extrinsic outcomes e.g. pay and promotion and intrinsic outcomes such as achievement and personal development (Ivancevich, et. al., 1977). A further distinction was also made between two types of expectancies: Expectancy I concerns the relationship between effort expended and first order outcomes while expectancy II concerns the perceived relationship between first-and second-level outcomes (Campbell et al, 1970). This is the equivalent of Vroom's instrumentality. The theory has also been broadened to include possible effects of other work-related variables on the major variables of the theory, e.g. the possible impact of personality variables (such as self-esteem and self-confidence) in the formulation of expectancies; the effect of past experiences on expectancy development; and the inclusion of ability and role perceptions as possible moderating effects on the relationship between motivation and actual performance (see House et al; 1974). Finally, Porter and Lawler (1968) extended the theory to include the variable of work-related satisfaction. According to their model (see Porter and Lawler, 1968), satisfaction is a function of actual performance and the real rewards gained from the performance. The higher the reward received relative to what was expected the more satisfied the worker is supposed to be.

The effort academic staff will put into their work is directly related to the relationship such efforts have with their desired outcomes. Any efforts by higher education institutions in Botswana to motivate staff without the staff's involvement viz precise understanding of specific outcomes they expect from their employment experiences is tenderable fruitless.

Adams' Equity Theory

Also termed justice theory (see e.g., 1983a; 1983b; Markovsky, 1985), the equity theory of job motivation was put forth first by John Stacey Adams in 1963. The theory acknowledges that subtle and variable factors that affect each individual's assessment and perception of their

relationship with their work, and thereby their employer. According to Adams' (1963, 1965) theory, individuals seek a fair balance between what they put into their job and what they get out of it. Adams used the terms inputs and outputs to refer to the two, respectively. Inputs typically include effort, loyalty, hard work, commitment, skill, ability, adaptability, flexibility, tolerance, determination, heart and soul, enthusiasm, trust in our boss and superiors, support of colleagues and subordinates, and personal sacrifice whereas outputs are typically financial rewards (pay, salary, expenses, perks, benefits, pension arrangements, bonus and commission) plus intangibles (such as recognition, reputation, praise and thanks, interest, responsibility, stimulus, travel, training, development, sense of achievement, advancement/growth, and promotion).

Equity theory concerns the worker's perception of how he/she is being treated (Adams, 1963, 1965; Ivancevich, Lorenzi, Skinner, and Crosby, 1994). Consistent with the five levels of needs determined by Maslow (1943) and the two factors of motivation as classified by Herzberg (1966) (intrinsic and extrinsic), the theory posits that positive outcomes and high levels of motivation can be expected only when employees perceive their treatment to be fair. To form perceptions of what constitutes a fair balance or trade of inputs and outputs individuals compare their own situation with other 'referents' (such as colleagues, friends, or partners) in the market place (Homans, 1961; Adams, 1963, 65; Blau, 1964; Carrel and Dittrich, 1978). If individuals feel that their inputs are fairly and adequately rewarded by outputs (or are equal to other employee outcomes over inputs) they experience justice and are therefore happy in their work and motivated to continue contributing to the organization at the same level. On the contrary, if individuals perceive that their inputs out-weigh the outputs (or are unequal to other employee outcomes over inputs) then they experience injustice and thus become de-motivated in relation their job and employer.

Equity theory is grounded on three basic assumptions: First, the theory assumes that individuals are guided by a moral system in which fair distribution of rewards is a fundamental tenet (Vroom, 1964). Second, it is assumed that employees expect a fair, just or equitable return for what they contribute to their job (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978). Finally, the theory assumes that employees who perceive themselves as being in an inequitable situation will seek to reduce the inequity (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978).

Based on equity theory, membership and performance in the organization will continue when a balanced ratio between inputs and outcomes compared to those of others exists (Scholl, 1981). Perceived inequity usually creates tension in the affected individual. According to Adams (1965) the amount of tension created is proportional to the magnitude of the inequity. Adams

(1963, 1965) argued that people respond to the feeling of injustice (or seek to restore a sense of equity) in different ways depending on the extent of the perceived disparity between inputs and expected outputs. Whereas some may reduce effort and application and become inwardly disgruntled, or outwardly difficult, recalcitrant or even disruptive, others may seek to improve the outputs by making claims or demands for more reward, or seeking an alternative job or leaving the situation. According to the Equity theory feelings of inequity are regulated and governed solely by the individual's interpretation of their situation, in this case the fact that a manager feels that the annual pay review is fair is immaterial.

Though this theory has not garnered significant empirical support, it could prove useful in also ensuring that inequitable practices such as discriminatory pay structures, gender based discrimination and help employers in crafting policies and executing those that enhance equity amongst academic staff.

As such the theory can be applied in private tertiary education institutions in Botswana to determine equitable dispositions of individuals in academia to restore some form of balance and cultivate an atmosphere where staffers work performance is in sync with the needs of organisational performance.

Locke's Goal-Setting Theory

The goal-setting theory was predominantly developed by Edwin Locke and Gary Latham, with in mind to show that goals are the most important factors affecting the motivation and behaviour of employees. Goal-setting theory underscores the importance of specific and challenging goals in achieving motivated behaviour. Specific goals often involve quantitative targets for improvement in exuding a set or resultant behaviour of interest. Locke and Henne (1986) argued that goals affect behaviour in four ways (1) they direct attention and action to those behaviours which a person believes will achieve a particular goal; (2) they mobilise effort towards reaching the goal; (3) they increase the person's persistence, which results in more time spent on the behaviours necessary to attain the desired goal; and finally (4) they motivate the person's search for effective strategies for goal attainment. As a direct result of the goal directed behaviour, what stems from this view is that individuals set goals and then immediately there is an internal drive to have those goals met.

Consequently, several prerequisites which are antecedent or a precursor for the goal-directed behaviour to effectively improve job performance (Locke and Henne, 1986): (1) a thorough commitment to the specific goal; (2) regular feedback on the person's performance towards attaining the goal; (3) the more challenging the goal is perceived to be, the better the person's

performance is likely to be; (4) specific goals are more effective than vague goals, e.g. "do your best"; (5) self-set goals are preferred over organisationally set goals. If this is not entirely possible, a person needs to at least have input into his own goals.

The theory has garnered significant empirical accolades, for instance Schiltz and Schultz, 1998, reported that it has an intuitive appeal hinged on its clear relevance to the workplace, and Locke and Latham, (1990) hold that the theory was amply supported by empirical research evidence, while a meta-analysis of 72 on-the-job studies pointed out that goal setting produces substantial increases in employee output (Wood, Mentoand Locke, 1987). According to Spector, (2003) 'it is currently one of the most popular theories informing organisational approaches to employee motivation', (Roos, 2005).

It means this theory is usable in studies relating to academic staff retention in private sector tertiary education institutions in Botswana, though it is instructive to ascertain the individual goals of each person affected rather than to take a blanket assumption of what everyone would have as their goals and proceed to prescribe ways to motivate academic staff. It also further applies as posited by many research outputs involving academic staffers in goal setting will increase the likelihood that they will be motivated to achieve them, hence their involvement should be sought in one or the other. A further factor relevant to goal-setting theory is self-efficacy, which is the individual's belief that he or she can successfully complete a particular task. If individuals have a high degree of self-efficacy, they are likely to respond more positively to specific and challenging goals than if they have a low degree of self-efficacy, (Locke andHenne, 1986).

Job satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Employee Engagement

Besides the rubric of variables that make up the motivation theories, that is content and process theories, this study found it vital to assess the status of three major employee affective responses to the job and organization - that is, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to stay or employee commitment - to serve as a background against which the needs are evaluated.

Some of the key outcomes of motivation are job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee engagement briefly discussed below. This section considers other key concepts related to staff retention as they also related to the review of motivation, which are instructive to top management's plight to find the panacea for academic staff retention and commitment.

Job satisfaction

There is no subject in the history of the study of management that has been darkened by so great a controversy as that of job satisfaction and its impact on organisational performance. What exacerbated the problem further is the unavailability of a single definition that is usually accepted which defines job satisfaction. This has left the subject both complex to define and subject to as many definitions as there schools of thought on the subject. Job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job. The term was first defined by Hoppock (1935) as a combination of psychological, physical and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, "I am satisfied with my job". Among the most accepted definition of job satisfaction is by Locke (1969), who defined job satisfaction as a positive emotional feeling as a result of one's evaluation towards own job or job experience by comparing between what was expected from the job and what was actually obtained. Job satisfaction is the result of the interaction of the employees' values and the employee's perception towards the job and environment (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction is therefore a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job; an affective reaction to one's job; and an attitude towards one's job,(Wikipedia, 2005). Weiss (2002) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect (emotion), beliefs and behaviours. This definition suggests that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings, our beliefs, and our behaviors, (Wikipedia, 2007).

It is generally believed that the whole debate about job satisfaction and staff turnover can be traced back to the results of the Hawthorne studies primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business Schoolbetween 1924-1933, who sought to find the effects of various conditions (most notably illumination) on workers' productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.

Scientific management (Taylorism) also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick Winslow Taylor's 1911 book, *Principles of Scientific Management*, argued that there was a single best way to perform any given work task. This book contributed to a change in industrial production

philosophies, causing a shift from skilled labor and piecework towards the more modern approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers were forced to work at a faster pace. However, workers became exhausted and dissatisfied, thus leaving researchers with new questions to answer regarding job satisfaction. It should also be noted that the work of W.L. Bryan, Walter Dill Scott, and Hugo Munsterberg set the tone for Taylor's work.

Some however argue that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, a motivation theory, laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory. This theory explains that people seek to satisfy five specific needs in life – physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization. This model served as a good basis from which early researchers could develop job satisfaction theories.

It may be generally accepted to say *Job satisfaction* refers to the degree to which an employee likes his/her job (Kallerberg, 1977; Mulinge and Mueller, 1998). S/he exits when the perceived benefits of work exceed the perceived costs deemed by the worker to be adequate under the circumstances (Kallerberg, 1977).

Models of Job Satisfaction

This section discusses the models of job satisfaction with particular focus on the job characteristic model which is assessed in this study. Specific theories that have dominated academic enquiry and endeavour include affect theory, dispositional theory, Herzberg's two factor theory, Job Characteristics Model, Lickert scale, and Job Descriptive Index (JDI), below discussed.

Affect Theory

The 'Range of Affect Theory' (Locke, 1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model. This theory is mainly premised on the ground that job satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet. To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then Employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a

position with little or no autonomy compared to Employee B. This theory also states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more a worker values that facet.

Dispositional Theory

Another well-known job satisfaction theory is the Dispositional Theory. It is a very general theory that suggests that people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, regardless of one's job. This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction.

A significant model that narrowed the scope of the Dispositional Theory was the Core Self-evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy A. Judge in 1998. Judge argued that there are four Core Self-evaluations that determine one's disposition towards job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism.

This model states that higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his self) and general self-efficacy (the belief in one's own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to (outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Motivator-Hygiene Theory)

Frederick Herzberg's Two factor theory (also known as Motivator Hygiene Theory) has been discussed 2.1.3 under content theories above. In brief, this theory attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace by showing that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors namely motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. Motivating factors are those are aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction. These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out and includes aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions.

Job Characteristics Model

The Job Characteristics Model is widely used and touted

as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The Job Characteristics model (JCM) proposed by Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham in 1976 is a very influential model which attempts to address how a core set of job characteristics impact a number of psychological states, leading to specific related outcomes in the work environment, (Wikipedia, 2007).

The five core job characteristics include: skill variety (SV), task significance (TS), task identity (TI), autonomy (A) and feedback (F). The model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.). The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviours. A meta-analysis of studies that assess the framework of the model provides some support for the validity of the JCM, (Hackman and Oldham, 1976).

The psychological states included in the model are meaningfulness of work, responsibility for outcomes and knowledge of results. Consequently these outcomes consist of high intrinsic motivation, high job performance, high job satisfaction and low absenteeism/turnover, (Wikipedia, 2007).

According to Hackman and Oldham's model, skill variety, task significance and task identity are used in the work environment to stimulate meaningfulness and produce outcomes of both or either high intrinsic motivation and high job performance. Therefore, if employees feel they are fully utilizing a variety of their skills (SV), their job affects many people to a great extent (TS) and they are allowed to complete the task from beginning to end (TI), it is likely they will perceive the job as meaningful, leading to high job performance and/or high intrinsic motivation. The presence of autonomy in the workforce leads to the psychological state of felt responsibility for outcomes, resulting in high job satisfaction. Thus, if employees are able to determine the method or approach in which the work is accomplished (A) they feel responsible for the end product and are therefore more satisfied with what they have accomplished, less likely to quit (turnover) and also more likely to attend work (low absenteeism). Autonomy is contrasted by being told what to do and the manner in which to do it. The last core job characteristic, feedback produces a psychological state in which employees develop knowledge of their results, producing outcomes similar to autonomy (high job satisfaction, low turnover/absenteeism). In other words, knowing how you are performing and being aware that superiors know how

you are performing (F) leads to more job satisfaction, less absenteeism and turnover.

Measuring Job Satisfaction And Application Of The Theory

It is also instructive for senior or top management in academia to consider how the above theories may be applied in practice. There are many methods for measuring job satisfaction. By far, the most common measuring scale for collecting data regarding job satisfaction is the Likert scale (named after Rensis Likert). Other less common scales that are used for the measurement of job satisfaction include: Yes / No questions, True/False questions, point systems, checklists, and forced choice answers.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), created by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), is a specific questionnaire of job satisfaction that has been widely used. It measures one's satisfaction in five facets: pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision, and the work itself. The scale is simple, participants answer either yes, no, or can't decide (indicated by '?') in response to whether given statements accurately describe one's job.

The Job in General Index is an overall measurement of job satisfaction. It was an improvement to the Job Descriptive Index because the JDI focused too much on individual facets and not enough on work satisfaction in general. Other job satisfaction questionnaires include: the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the Faces Scale. The MSQ measures job satisfaction in 20 facets and has a long form with 100 questions (5 items from each facet) and a short form with 20 questions (1 item from each facet). The JSS is a 36 item questionnaire that measures nine facets of job satisfaction. Finally, the Faces Scale of job satisfaction, one of the first scales used widely, measured overall job satisfaction with just one item which participants respond to by choosing a face.

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is one of the main themes of this paper, which is a desired outcome for any employer. However, like all the concepts discussed it is desirable for employers in any setting to want to not only retain competent staff but also gain their commitment to the organisation.

Again, generally speaking there is no universally accepted definition of organisational commitment hence concept of organisational commitment has been variously defined. Steers (1977) is among the first to view organisational commitment as an employee attitude and as a set of behavioural intentions, the willingness to exert

considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation. Then, Mowday et al. (1979, 1982) refined that the concept of organisation commitment can be characterised by at least three factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and (3) a strong desire to remain in the organisation. There is a considerable relationship between this conceptualization with the motivation theories discussed in foregoing sections.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) define *Organizational commitment* as the employee's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization. According to Mowday, et al (1982), employees who are committed to their work organization are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organization's well-being. Allen and Meyer (1990) referred to this as "affective commitment" and defined it as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization."

Over the last decade or so Yew (2008) observed that, it has become clear that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct that involves three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative. This conceptualisation of organisational commitment is commonly known as the Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of OC.

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation. Employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organisation because they want to do so, (Meyer and Allen, 1991 and Yew, 2008). This means that the organisation would have created enough reason or conditions that make the employee emotionally attached to its goals hence decision to stay.

Continuance commitment on the other angle refers to the extent to which the employee perceives that leaving the organisation would be costly. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain because they have to do so, (Meyer and Allen, 1991 and Yew, 2008). What stems from this is that it may for instance prove difficult to secure other employment hence the decision to stay on current job even though it may have some undesirable elements.

Finally, normative commitment refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to the organisation and the belief that staying is the 'right thing' to do. Employees with strong normative commitment remain because they feel that they ought to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

However, the components of organisational commitment touted affective commitment, continuance and normative commitment has empirical backing to their validity. According to Zeffanne (2008) organisational commitment is so important that more recent research

works refer to it as "the human side of quality" (Hill and Huq, 2004). It focuses on the employees' emotional attachment and involvement in the organisation and its goals. By having affective commitment, core values will be absorbed easily by employees, which will accelerate the decision-making process. It also refers to the extent to which employees are willing to remain in an organisation. Organisational commitment bears a strong relationship to perceived management support and employee empowerment (John and Lee, 2003). In the same study Zeffanne (2008) was also able to show that employee empowerment, that is, 'giving employees the responsibility and authority to make decisions about their work without supervisory approval... employee empowerment can increase employees' motivation, job satisfaction and loyalty to their companies.

In the meantime, the significance and importance of the concept of organisational commitment, in terms of leading to beneficial organisational and desirable outcomes such as increased effectiveness, reducing absenteeism and turnover, have been documented by many studies such as that of Steers (1977), Porter et al. (1974), Reichers (1985) and Tett and Meyer (1993). These positive linkage between organisational commitment and desirable organisational outcomes may be due to the findings by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) as well as by Angle and Perry (1983) that organisational commitment is considered to be the result of an individual-organisation relationship, where individuals attach themselves to the organisation in return for certain valued rewards or payments from the organisation. Following this logic, it would be likely that job satisfaction is a dominant factor influencing organisational commitment of employees. In other studies it has also been established that age is also a factor in achieving organisational commitment. This may be due to the logic that as workers grow older, alternative employment opportunities become limited, making their current jobs more attractive (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Meanwhile, Russ and McNeilly (1995) discovered that the commitment of younger workers was likely to be more affected by disappointment with pay and promotion opportunities than was the commitment of older employees, who had achieved their advancement and income potential compared to younger employees who often made job choices on the basis of income and career potential. The difference of values held by older and younger employees, which affects their level of organisational commitment, is consistent with the views by Maslow (1970) that middle-age employees are devoted to the fulfillment of social needs, whereas young adulthood is consumed by the need for economic security. Hence, it may be reasonable to view age as moderating the relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment, (Yew, 2008). The concept of organisational commitment is critical in

the construction of academic staff retention in that private tertiary education institutions in Botswana need to secure the commitment of academic staff to both not only stay but apply themselves to higher levels of performance to attain organisational goals and objectives. In this case old methods of management which are devoid of employee empowerment, and involvement may make the decision to leave more desirable than the decision to stay in such institutions. I now turn to the actual decision to leave or stay or employee engagement.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is also not without difficulty in securing an acceptable universal definition. Like the foregoing concepts it is also presented with complexities in securing the definition. Reliance up until now is on working definitions by the various authors who have saddled the concept, thus making this a once again complex concept to define. Kahn (1990:694) defines employee engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and expressthemelves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances”.

The cognitive aspect of employee engagement concerns employees’ beliefs about the organisation, its leaders and working conditions. The emotional aspect concerns how employees feel about each of those three factors and whether they have positive or negative attitudes toward the organisation and its leaders, (*Kular, Gatenby, Rees, Soane, and Trus, 2008*)

The physical aspect of employee engagement concerns the physical energies exerted by individuals to accomplish their roles. Thus, according to Kahn(1990), engagement means to be psychologically as well as physically present when occupying and performing an organisational role.

Most often employee engagement has been defined as emotional and intellectual commitment to the organisation (Baumruk 2004, Richman 2006 and Shaw 2005) or the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their job (Frank *et al* 2004). Although it is acknowledged and accepted that employee engagement is a multi-faceted construct, as previously suggested by Kahn (1990), Truss *et al* (2006) define employee engagement simply as ‘passion for work’, a psychological state which is seen to encompass the three dimensions of engagement discussed by Kahn (1990), and captures the common theme running through all these definitions.

It was disturbing to note that broadly speaking, the evidence surrounding levels of engagement worldwide paints a negative picture; in Japan and

Singapore levels of engagement are as low as 9 per cent, and levels of those ‘not engaged’ are as high as 82 per cent in Singapore and Thailand (Johnson 2005).

Such results indicate that there is no single pill for employee motivation at work, each individual must be engaged differently according to their motivations states and levels and the needs of the organisation. This is also when private tertiary education institutions in Botswana desire to seriously engaged their academic staff positively, both cognitively and physically to attain desirable outcomes.

Factors that Determine Academic Staff Retention

Academic staff recruitment and retention are affected by the whole employment package (the rewards and benefits of the job) relative to other employment (Metcalf, 2005:42). These include pay and fringe benefits (pension and gratuity, comparative pay levels, pay systems, pay discrimination), intrinsic aspects of the job (e.g., for academics, teaching and research), job security, work organization, autonomy, progression (changes in career paths, internal promotion, promotion criteria, Research Assessment Exercise [RAE]), family-friendly practices, congeniality of colleagues and the working environment etc. An earlier study by Strebler, Pollard, Miller, and Akroyd (2006) on factors affecting academic staff leaving the tertiary education sector, consistent with some of the above factors by(Metcalf, et al, 2005) revealed thatthe following factors increased the likelihood of leaving the sector: (1) dissatisfaction with non-pecuniary elements (the work itself, relations with manager, (2) being able to use one’s own initiative, hours, relations with colleagues and physical work conditions); (3) being a non-British EU (and EEA) national, Australian, New Zealander or US national; having had a break in one’s academic career; (4) being on a non-permanent contract; (5) being closer to the end of a fixed-term contract; (6) hours worked; (7) hours spent on administrative tasks; (8) the fewer hours spent on research; perception of excessive workload; (9) belief that decisions on either individual pay, recruitment to senior posts or promotion at their current university are not at all fair and (10) dissatisfaction with pay and the level of pay.

The summary of key factors that significantly affect recruitment and retention from the review various research outputs includes considered in this section, amongst other things, (1) non-pecuniary aspects of academic work, e.g. relations with supervisors; (2) Pay and fringe benefits; (3) Intrinsic job factors; (4) good working conditions, (5) variety, (6) freedom to use own initiative, (7) seeing tangible outcomes from their jobs, (8) autonomy, (9) opportunities to do research and control of their research works; (10) career prospects; (11) collaboration and flexibility of working hours; (12) good physical working conditions; (13) helping people and (14) job security (15) family-friendly practices, (16) nature and tenure of contract; (17) career breaks; (18) citizenship;

(19) hours of work and finally (20) less involvement in administrative tasks.

Management and Leadership

Leadership has been defined variously with no agreement over a single universally accepted definition. However, the definition of Peter Drucker one of the contemporary writers of all time proffers an interesting definition of which he says Leadership ... is not just about a dynamic personality - that can just as well be a glib tongue. It is not just winning friends and influencing people - that could just be flattery. Leadership, he believes, "is about lifting a person's vision to higher sights, the raising of a person's performance to a higher standard, the building of a personality beyond its normal limitations." Peter Drucker (1990) says 'the manager is the dynamic, life giving element in every business. Without his leadership the resources of production remain sources and never become production, in a competitive economy above all, the quality and performance of the managers determine the success of a business indeed they determine its survival. 'As such leadership can be seen as *a process by which individuals are influenced so that they will be prepared to participate in the achievement of organisational or group goals. It is the role of the leader to obtain the commitment of individuals to achieving these goals.* Leadership and management are not synonymous (not the same thing), as is often thought or made to look. The key phrase in the above definition is "*individuals are influenced*".

Management is about *planning, organising, directing, co-ordinating, controlling* and *reviewing* the work process, including what individuals do within that. It is a broad spectrum of organisational processes and practices.

Leadership, on the other hand, is about how one person can *influence* others to do what is required for the achievement of goals – a narrower quality concerned with the *hearts* and *minds* of people in the group.

Management certainly encompasses leadership – good management is probably impossible without appropriate leadership skills. However, *not all managers are leaders* – either by design or default. Leadership itself may have nothing to do with management – it exists in groups rather than organisational structures and, therefore, will certainly also exist in the *informal organisation* where, in management terms, it may create problems in controlling workers whose influence comes from elsewhere. *Not all leaders are managers.* Borrowing from the words of John Maxwell, a leadership expert, 'organisations rise and fall on leadership', it may be instructive for private universities to reflect on their leadership practices that could be the main factor in both academic staff retention and the very success of the organisations they lead.

In contemporary times it has been established that leadership style is one of the main reason people decide to stay or leave an organisation, thus people often or at least over 90 present of the time resign not from the organisation but from the supervisor. As a matter of fact leadership style has been touted the dominant retention factor in South Africa, (Netswera, 2005). As such, whether the motivation factors, job satisfaction factors, organisational commitment and employee engagement factors discussed above, will work any wonders in retaining competent staff viz academia are all hinged on leadership. This may be the top management of the University, the Deans of Faculty, Chairman of departments and all related roles that supervise academic staff have a prominent role to play in determining outcomes of academic staff retention or lack of it. When academic staff find management style to be oppressive, disengaging and not sensitive to their needs it factors in the decision to leave.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is a conceptualisation of Adam's equity theory already considered above. Equity theory is grounded on three basic assumptions: First, the theory assumes that individuals are guided by a moral system in which fair distribution of rewards is a fundamental tenet (Vroom, 1964). Second, it is assumed that employees expect a fair, just or equitable return for what they contribute to their job (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978). Finally, the theory assumes that employees who perceive themselves as being in an inequitable situation will seek to reduce the inequity (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978). Distributive justice therefore is premised on the extent to which rewards and punishments relate with performance, (Price, 2001). What stems from this analysis is that any perceptions unfair distribution of rewards as such will lead to dissatisfaction with one's job, and resultant loss of employee commitment, loyalty and eventual productivity as staffers seek to restore some balance. In the UK for instance "it has been suggested that the RAE has changed the job content, through changing the balance of teaching and research amongst academic staff, as teaching has been reallocated to non-research active staff, particularly in the RAE highest-rated departments (Heap, 1999, referred to in PREST, 2000). Moreover, the House of Commons Science and Technology Committee (2000a) found that the RAE could have a very damaging effect on morale, through the classification of some staff as 'research inactive', (Metcalf, et al, 2005). This is a case example where any element of inequitable distribution of rewards, punishments, opportunities and incentives is perceived negatively, including labeling, hence the need to observe distributive justice as a staff

retention factor, (Ng'ethe, Iravo, and Namusonge, 2012). Several studies have found distributive justice to be an important and significant predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and negative predictor of turnover intentions, (Lambert, 2003, Lambert et al, 2007, Haar and Spell, 2009 in Kipkebut, 2010).

Tetty (2006) observed that in Botswana, viz University of Botswana, "when the University of Botswana decided to stop providing subsidized furnished accommodation to its staff in 2002, due to financial difficulties. This benefit was replaced with a house purchase scheme for citizen staff, under which the university negotiates loans with commercial banks which it then guarantees. The scheme has allowed many citizen staff to own their own homes. Unfortunately, expatriate staff, who are not entitled to this benefit, have had to contend with the high cost of accommodation and are discontent about the lack of housing support for them". Such practices though, may be entrenched in justifiable reasons may create an climate of acrimony, discontent and dissent if not effectively handled, and further contribute to low productivity and commitment amongst affected staff.

From an HRM point of view it is instructive to streamline the pay and incentive schemes and also further administration of policies in a fair and transparent manner to ensure that distributive justice is not just done but is seen to be done.

Pay and Fringe Benefits

Pay levels were the main reason cited by human resource departments for recruitment and retention difficulties in both the survey of HR departments and the case studies (at a sample of 14 higher education institutions) in UCEA (2002). Two thirds of all respondents mentioned pay as being a major factor behind recruitment and retention problems in the sector, particularly for staff whose expertise is valued in the private sector: IT and computing, law and accountancy were the areas where staff were most likely to leave the HE sector. It was also noted that institutions in London and other major UK cities reported that high housing and travel costs were exacerbating the problem of low salaries, (UCEA, 2002).

A salary survey conducted by the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) examined academic salaries and associated benefits in 46 higher education institutions in five countries –Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and the United Kingdom. It established that Australian academic pay scales are above those of the other countries in terms of purchasing power parity (a measure that equalises the purchasing power of different currencies in their home countries for a given basket of goods), with the UK being third after Canada followed by New Zealand and South Africa.

However, when UK salaries are converted using nominal exchange rates they are the highest. UK academics, in common with many other UK workers, experience a relatively high cost of living, (Ramsden B, 2003). This may explain why Australia attracts considerable academic staff of high quality, comparably.

The private sector colleges and universities in Botswana have to seriously considered the issue of pay in order to retain academic staff especially in critical fields that matter for the advancement of its goals. Academic staff with jobs that are considerably easily transferable to other private sector fields or even public universities or abroad will make a decision to leave or stay depending on which options offers attractive packages in terms of pay and fringe benefits. It is instructive that pay and fringe benefits must enable staffers to take care of their standard as well as cost of living and other related needs.

Intrinsic Job Factors

Intrinsic job factors touch on several aspects such as skills variety, freedom to use own initiative, seeing tangible outcomes from their jobs, and autonomy. This is consistent with the job characteristic model discussed above, which posits that the five core job characteristics include: skill variety (SV), task significance (TS), task identity (TI), autonomy (A) and feedback (F) impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.). These job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviour, (Hackman and Oldham, 1976).

Bellamy, Morley, and Watty, (2003) in a study of academic staff in business subjects at all 38 Australian universities to determine why they remain at universities '*despite deteriorating working conditions and reduced job satisfaction*'. They found that the most important factors in becoming and remaining an academic were flexibility, autonomy, teaching, research, and the 'community of scholars'. They found *autonomy* to be an important retention factor (80 per cent of academics said it was an important reason for remaining), (Metcalfe et al, 2005).

It is instructive that when designing academic jobs care must be given to ensure that jobs address the core of the elements here discussed. The aspect of autonomy for instance has surfaced as a factor in most research studies related to academic staff retention. This includes the fact that jobs must not only be interesting, challenging but have autonomy, provide for the use of the staffers talents and skill variety in order for them to includes

academic staff retention.

Workplace Climate

Workplace climate touches on two major aspects already discussed, motivation and job satisfaction. It has been noted in research output that 'there is a difference between motivation to perform well and job satisfaction. Indeed, a well-developed body of literature shows that the correlation between job satisfaction and performance is inconsistent (Lawler, 1971; Lopez, 1982). In her article *On the Dubious Wisdom of Expecting Job Satisfaction to Correlate with Performance*, Cynthia Fisher (1980) concludes that job satisfaction is controlled by overall workplace climate, while improved performance is predicated more by "job facets that seem to be related to the particular situation", (Luoma, 2006). Job facets in this regard touch on working conditions and specific aspects of factor factors discussed in the foregoing paragraph 4.4 on intrinsic job factors.

Working conditions simply put refers to a work environment that promotes the efficient performance of job tasks by employees and this touches on aspects such as physical working conditions, availability of office space, tools and equipment that makes job performance easier, hours of work, internal customer support service from administration department, nature and tenure of contract and safety in the workplace, and requisite support from supervisors. Staffers are generally not just concerned about the jobs they perform but the conditions under which they do so. Tetty (2006) in his study titled *Staff Retention in African Universities: Elements Of A Sustainable Strategy* opined that '*Institutions should work towards a reasonable improvement in the working conditions (salary and non-salary) of staff, because this is likely to result in more than proportionate levels of job satisfaction.* What may be instructive for university and college leaders is the constant need to benchmark their practices with similar organisations both locally and internationally within their means, and execute policies and practices that foster more reasonably desirable outcomes for all concerned parties.

Opportunities to Do Research and Control of Their Research Works

Research has been touted a major retention factor amongst academic staff globally. Research in this case refers to opportunities to conduct research, the necessary support related with the same, control over research works and generally the incentive associated with research are a case in point.

Metcalf, et al (2005) found that "*Research* is a major source of satisfaction for academics and many academic

staff would prefer to spend more of their time on research, although self-determined research tends to be of interest, rather than that determined by others. The demand for research output and the RAE in particular are seen rather negatively. Hours spent on research increase staff satisfaction with the actual work itself." What stems from this is that those Universities or colleges that provide opportunities and support for involvement of academic staff in research will garner increased job satisfaction amongst their academic staff with resultant addition to retention possibilities.

Closely associated with distributive justice, the gender balance is also required in accessibility of research grants for instance. In the UK it has been found that female participation in research was weak due to various factors. Blake and La Ville (2000) for instance found that although men and women are equally successful in obtaining research grants, women are less likely to apply. This does not appear to be due to differences in inclination in women, but rather their under-representation at the top of the academic career ladder and over-representation in part-time and fixed term contracts' (Metcalf, et al, 2005). Females for instance enter academia later due to family responsibility hence struggle to find time-off work to study doctoral studies as most such opportunity require time off work which most women may not afford due to family commitments.

Career Prospects and Promotion

Promotion was regarded as a retention factor in most research outputs into academic staff retention in Universities across the whole world. The study also revealed that regarding promotion as a retention policy factor, there was a deliberate drift from nomination by senior staff or self-nomination towards policies that favoured improvements in appraisal systems, management training and development and effective management of staff and promotion on merit as catalytic to better academic staff retention.

Promotion or recruitment to senior posts was found to be a major factor in academic staff retention in the UK, in fact it was found that academic staff opined that promotion practices 'at their current university are not at all fair, constituted those aspects that contributed to academic staff desire to leave academia in the United Kingdom', (Strebler, Pollard, Miller, and Akroyd, 2006). What stems from such views is that, generally speaking, nobody desires stagnation on their job, hence no job satisfaction can be gained from a job that does not recognise this and provide opportunities for growth and advancement. It is important to not only recognise this but also, coupled with the concept of distributive justice discussed above, transparency, openness must be observed in conducting such practices.

Tetty (2006) however warned that this element must be approached carefully. Those in junior ranks often perceived promotional prospects to be unreasonable while those at professorial level viewed it otherwise. It is observed that it could be that there were 'variations in expectations concerning promotion are observed across the various universities though in each case, the majority of respondents thought the process was unreasonable. There were widely-held views amongst respondents that the criteria and procedures for promotion and permanent appointment were long, stressful and cumbersome. Tetty (2006) observed that 'it also appears that there are misperceptions about the processes which come from a lack of effort on the part of academic staff to consult the relevant guidelines. It is instructive to note that while a majority of respondents below the rank of senior lecturers tend to think that the criteria for promotion are not reasonable, those at professorial levels thought otherwise. Obviously those who have made it successfully through the process are more likely to evaluate it more positively.' What stems from this insightful analysis is that while promotion practices may be a factor in retention of academic staff, the perceptions of fairness in practice must be approached circumspectly. There is need to balance the perceptions with induction to ensure that everyone is fully aware of the possibilities as well as the requirements for accessing promotion opportunities. This however does not absolve universities from the responsibility to ensure that policies and practices are consistent, fair, transparent and also perceived as such by all involved.

Training and Development Opportunities

Closely related to the above factor (promotion), training and development opportunities have been touted an important and significant academic staff retention factor, (Metcalf, 2005, and Tetty, 2006). Training refers to process of changing in thought, behaviour, and action as a result of changes in knowledge, skills and competences. It is widely believed that engaging in training and development widens one's compatibility with opportunities for advancement contingent upon one's ability to competently tackle new levels of responsibility and challenges, hence it is an investment in human capital whether initiated by the individual or the organisation. As a matter of fact the human capital theory based upon the work of Schultz (1971), Mincer (1974), Berker (1993), Sakamoto and Powers (1995), Sacharopoulos and Woodhall (1997) has it that formal education and training is highly instrumental and an imperative to improve national production capacity, in particular that an educated population is a productive population, (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). While this theory has a bearing on formal education it has a bearing

on the reasons for investments in training in organisations.

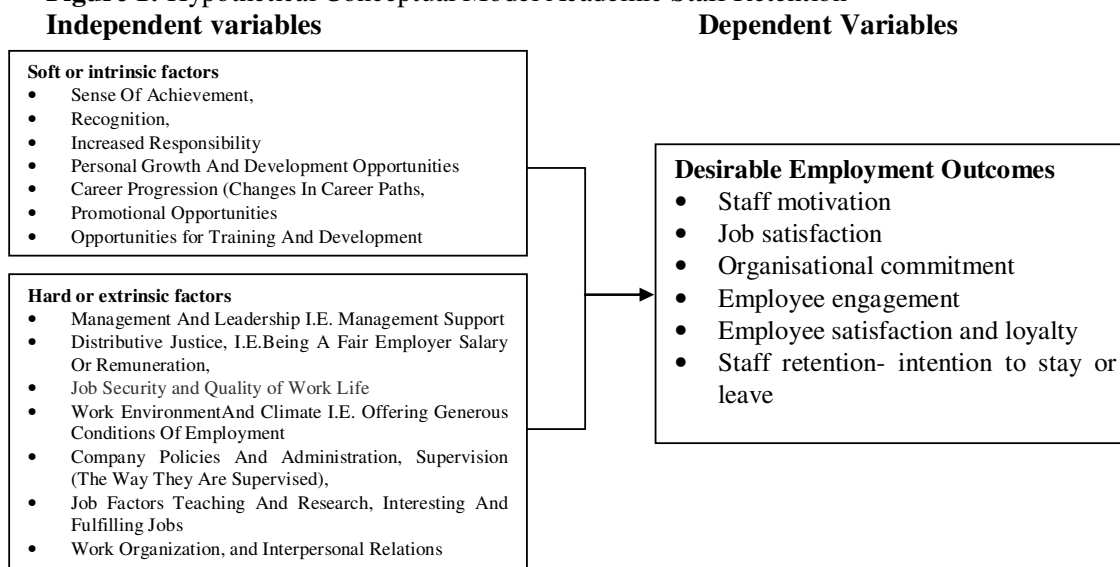
In particular, training was responsible for up-skilling staff on new trends and needs for skills generated by changes in technology and development, for example training of staff on how to use new technology in teaching such as smart boards technologies, addressing staff deficiencies emanating from poor performance on the job and other reasons such as management development. Examples of training that can be offered to academic staff include training in teaching skills, research skills and other related areas of need in academia.

Metcalf, et al (2005) observed that 'Human resource managers stated that heads of department do not always have the skills needed to develop staff and apparently many heads of department did not see staff development as one of the responsibilities of their post while on another extreme many expressed the view that training courses are available for those who are interested, but that career development is largely an academic's own affair, and a result of their own efforts in research and publications'. What stems from this view is that there are mixed feelings with regard to training and the same research found that 'Lack of interest was acute in respect of research staff, who tended to be overlooked in all respects by heads of department.

As a matter of fact, increased responsibility and personal growth and development was touted by Hertzberg (1966) as an intrinsic factors on which motivation was hinged. Opportunities for training and development are among the most important reasons why employees stay especially young and enthusiastic ones, (Ng'ethe, Iravo, and Namusonge, 2012). Dockel (2003) proffered that investment in training is one way to show employees how important they are. It is however instructive that training must not be conducted for its own sake, but must be systematic and processual, hinged on effectively administered performance appraisals, identification of training needs, and establishment of a competence framework that addresses organisational goals. Private colleges and universities in Botswana must consider the desirably outcomes that emanate from investments in human capital development especially amongst their academic staffers who are catalytically contingent to their core business: education. Again, it is instructive to ensure that policies and practices are drawn based on best practices and must not only be done, but must be seen to be done.

Other Factors

Other factors identified to be importance for academic staff retention include: stress at work touching on aspects such as discrimination, work relationships, physical conditions, resources, control and commitment, (Metcalf,

Figure 1: Hypothetical Conceptual Model Academic Staff Retention

et al, 2005), recognition, collaboration and flexibility of working hours; helping people and job security, nature and tenure of contract; career breaks; citizenship; hours of work and finally, less involvement in administrative tasks.

Discrimination can be seen as a major factor as discussed in the foregoing discussion on distributive justice, in particular if for instance gender-discrimination is not eliminated, it fosters environment of perceived inequity debilitating and incapacitating on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Metcalf et al, (2005) observed that '*Discrimination* may reduce recruitment from those groups discriminated against and increase their turnover. Certainly, in a survey of discrimination in Higher Education, 23 per cent of British ethnic minority staff reported encountering race discrimination in recruitment and 20 per cent reported experiencing harassment in academia (Carter *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore 32 per cent considered their institution not very or not at all committed to Equal Opportunities. Bagihole (2002) discusses a range of forms which gender discrimination may take and how the high degree of autonomy of staff in universities allows such discrimination to continue, Metcalf et al, (2005). It is incumbent upon University management to curb any forms of discrimination to create an atmosphere and work climate that is both inviting and pull factor to academic staff of all diverse groups including gender and ethnicities.

Work relationships has produced mixed results in research, it has some reasonable influence in retention. Oshagbemi (1996) found that the majority of staff were satisfied with their supervision (52 per cent satisfied and 34 per cent dissatisfied) and with co-workers' behaviour (70 per cent satisfied and only 17 per cent dissatisfied),

(Metcalf, et al 2005). However, work relations lead to higher stress amongst academics than amongst staff in a range of other public sector employment (University of Plymouth, 2003). Even though this concept has not garnered much evidence in research it still requires careful attention as it is instructive to note no one would be satisfied with a workplace climate of animosity, tension and continued conflict.

Autonomy is also singled out here as a possible factor on retention. Although it has already been discussed above under intrinsic job factors and also job satisfaction theories, viz job characteristic model. In Australia, and UKS autonomy has generated significant attention as a retention factor amongst academic staff, (Bellamy *et al.* (2003). Bryson and Barnes (2000a) found that autonomy, a positive aspect of working in higher education, had been declining. Retention, in particular, is affected by the *accuracy of prior expectations* of the job. Main join academia with little or no understanding of what they will find on the job hence become dissatisfied when the ideal does not coincide with reality. It is therefore instructive for proper induction to be instituted especially for new staffers in the field, (Metcalf et al, 2005).

Control and commitment are other important aspects. Metcalf et al, (2005) observed that "one aspect which might encourage turnover is the degree of *commitment* that staff feel the university has towards them. This is relatively low, compared with that felt by staff in a range of other public sector employment (University of Plymouth, 2003). This is reciprocated by a relatively low commitment by academics to their organisation. What stems from this is that both staff commitment to the organisation and organisational commitment to staff was important and significant to academic staff retention through the former was more important as it usually leads

to the latter. Metcalfe et al, (2005) further observed that, "in Australia, Bellamy *et al.* (2003) concluded that academic staff remained in the sector (despite deteriorating working conditions and reduced job satisfaction) for the same reasons they join it, because being an academic is a 'calling' rather than just a job". What stems from this is that some significant portion of academic staff may remain in the profession or institution if such strong factors as perception of a calling are in place, but this requires more empirical bearing to validate its role as a retention factor. According to Metcalfe, et al, (2005) '*stress* may also affect academic staff retention.' Other studies have identified stress as a factor in retention though not much evidence has surfaced to validate such a view.

Collaboration and flexibility of working hours is another possible factor. This factor does not seem to be a problem in public sector settings but is a sure problem in private sector setting where staffers work as if not in University settings. In this case academic staffs do not get time-breaks when students go on break, they continue to be required to show up for work. This however posits a threat to academic staff decision to stay, hence weakening to academic staff retention in private universities.

Hours on administrative tasks has been seen as another factor. A serious policy area of consideration in this study is the involvement of academic staff in administrative roles. Academic staff, globally, showed a serious disdain for administrative work. Administrative *tasks* and *organisational change* tend to be viewed as negative aspects of the job by most academics. Hours of work spent on administration have a negative effect on satisfaction with almost all dimensions of academics' job satisfaction, (Metcalfe, et al, 2005).

Recognition is another very important factor in academic staff retention. Everyone wants to be appreciated for their effort and outcomes, especially those contributory to the good of the company organisation, and academic staff are not exempt. Recognition is recognized both by content and process theories as an important motivation factor in staff retention viz Maslow, Herzberg, goal theory amongst others. It was observed that 'a number of promotion practices found in the case study universities would increase perceptions of unfairness and so may be detrimental to the sector, included lack of recognition and appreciation, in particular the relative weight given to the various job roles; in particular, lack of recognition for administrative work (except for Principal lectureships) and to teaching and the increasing stress (including at new universities) on research output; there was some shift in this at some of the case study universities, although in at least one case this appeared to be paying lip service to recognising non-research roles, an approach which is liable to increase feelings of

unfairness, (Metcalfe, et al, 2005). What is observable here is that recognition is a critical factor in enhancing the need for academic staff retention in academic institutions as much as any organisation that employs people.

Citizenship as it relates to the UK in particular was found to be a factor especially non-UK citizenship provided a challenge to academic staff. As stated above 'being a non-British EU (and EEA) national, Australian, New Zealander or US national' was seen as a factor that contributed to academic staff wanting to leave academia in the UK universities. What stems from this is that immigration policies may be unfavourable to non-UK, EU or other favourable citizenship status stated above. This may be related to the issue discussed above with disparities in housing benefits amongst locals and expatriates with respect to the University of Botswana. Again, here the university management must ensure that practices that enhance staff welfare whether locals or expatriate are practiced so that they are not perceived as practicing inequitable practices. This is a factor of distributive justice exclaimed the Adam's equity theory and is critical to garnering academic staff commitment.

Empirical Review of Literature

It is observable that literature in academic staff retention studies pulls out two major bearings for staff motivation, namely intrinsic or soft factors and extrinsic or hard factors that must be combined in adequate promotions to generate the much needed motivation amongst academic staff. Several research outputs provide proof to this assertion. As observed by Ng'ethe, Iravo, and Namusonge, (2012) that 'argues that retention of employees needs to be managed and remuneration, development, career opportunity, work environment, performance management and work, family and flex time were identified as areas that impact on staff, (Dibble 1999). Though this list does not exhaust some other major elements such as recognition, equitably practices, research it provides a good starting point. For instance (Yew, 2008) further established job satisfaction and affective commitment, as further attributes that positive played on the ability to garner staff commitment to the organisation. Gaiduk, and Gaiduk, (2009), cited in Ng'ethe, et al (2012) observed that previous studies have found that employee intentions to remain with an organization are influenced by three major groups of variable which are: employee personal characteristics such as gender, age, position level; the nature of an employee's current job; and adequate working arrangements including such aspects as the quality of current supervision, opportunities for promotion, available training, and quality of communication within the organization.

A study of retention of employees in Australian

Organisations, established that younger employees focused on remuneration, training and development, career advancement, challenging work, growth opportunities and recognition, while for older employees autonomy, opportunities to mentor and job challenge were of great importance, (Chew, 2004). Metcalf, (2005) Research output identified pay and fringe benefits (pension and gratuity, comparative pay levels, pay systems, pay discrimination), intrinsic aspects of the job (e.g., for academics, teaching and research), job security, work organization, autonomy, progression (changes in career paths, internal promotion, promotion criteria, Research Assessment Exercise [RAE]), family-friendly practices, congeniality of colleagues and the working environment etc as critical to academic staff retention while Strebler, et al, (2006) had earlier identify (1) dissatisfaction with non-pecuniary elements (the work itself, relations with manager, (2) being able to use one's own initiative, hours, relations with colleagues and physical work conditions); (3) being a non-British EU (and EEA) national, Australian, New Zealander or US national; having had a break in one's academic career; (4) being on a non-permanent contract; (5) being closer to the end of a fixed-term contract; (6) hours worked; (7) hours spent on administrative tasks; (8) the fewer hours spent on research; perception of excessive workload; (9) belief that decisions on either individual pay, recruitment to senior posts or promotion at their current university are not at all fair and (10) dissatisfaction with pay and the level of pay, as push factors that made academic staff decide to leave academia in the UK.

Tetty (2006, 2009) identified pay and benefits as critical academic staff retention factors in African universities it is instructive that see the whole employment package fitting in intrinsic and extrinsic factors is critical to academic staff retention.

A Critical Review of Existing Literature On Academic Staff Retention

As noted above there is a dearth of studies and methodology that studies academic staff retention let alone those that single out private colleges and tertiary education institutions at large in Botswana. Academic staff retention is contingent upon the fact that labour presents the biggest asset to any institutions, especially that even those organisations with the most sophisticated machinery and equipment cannot achieve the required production and productivity through the same. It is therefore incumbent on organisations to look for those things that motivate each staffer and execute them in a fair and reasonable manner within the confines of its resources to generate required motivation and resultant academic staff retention.

It is evident from the findings of Ng'ethe, et al (2012)

that previous studies have not shed sufficient light and clarity on those critical factors influencing academic staff retention, but rather studies are inclined towards staff turnover (Rosser, 2004; Johnshrudand Rosser, (2002), that such studies have also played much attention on the corporate world and scant on academic institutions, most notably private tertiary education ones. Such scantiness of research on academic staff retention in Africa, prompted researchers such as Tettey (2006) to recommend institution based studies and surveys in order to develop efficacious strategies for academic staff retention. Ng'ethe, et al (2012) proffered advice on which further studies could be based, viz that future studies could consider a combined study of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, longitudinal and case study approaches as shown in the following studies. Chew (2004) used qualitative and quantitative methods in a study on retention of core staff in Australian organisations. Pienaar and Bester, (2008) employed longitudinal design to study retention of academics in early career phase in order to determine whether those who had considered leaving the institution indeed did so over a period of time. Tettey (2006, 2009), also utilised case study method across African Countries as we have already shown above. Kipkebut (2010) conducted a cross sectional study using quantitative methods in her study on organisational commitment in universities in Kenya. There is need for a study that will employ both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to bring out clearly factors influencing retention of academic staff in public universities in Kenya, Ng'ethe, et al (2012).

What stems from this analysis is that as much as motivation and the resultant academic staff retention is one of the most widely studied concepts in human resource management, and Organizations, worldwide not much research has been conducted around the subject in Private Sector Education Institutions in Botswana. Therefore, there is a cogent need for more studies that seek to apply content theories viz Maslow's (1943) needs-hierarchy theory of motivation and other motivation theories such as Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory, and process theories viz Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, and Adams' (1965) equity theory amongst others to different private sector education institutions work environments in the country. Future studies should also attempt a cross-sector comparison, for example comparing the public, and private sector work settings. There is also a need for studies that transcend the ranked importance of the various categories of factors that are central to Maslow's and other theories of motivation, to include a causal analysis in which the most important determinants of motivation are isolated.

Further to this a development of a model that also touches upon organisational commitment, job satisfaction, employing include affect theory, dispositional theory, Herzberg's two factor theory, Job Characteristics

Model, Lickert scale, and Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to measure job related factors that impact on staff motivation and employee engagement factors is also required. Any development of a comprehensive model should not neglect the factors of organisational commitment and employee engagement to provide the richness of factors that could provide for causal factors that hinge on academic staff retention. Metcalfe et al (2005) identified a number of important gaps in our knowledge, which are relevant to policy development in higher education, have been identified in the report up for research focus in academic staff retention: *career-decisions amongst undergraduates and masters students, hourly paid staff, career-changers; discrimination, further research on leavers, international flows of academics; human resource practices and management, and fixed-term contracts.*

I propose a cross-sectional study that not only focuses on strength of the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic factors on academic staff retention and commitment using combined qualitative and quantitative research design (survey and cases study), including longitudinal study and a causal analysis which singles out important determinants amongst hard and soft factors. It would also be important to have a study that investigates the role of leadership and management on academic staff retention in private tertiary education institutions.

CONCLUSION

The importance of human resources, viz academic staff in achieving organisational viz university goals has been underscored, especially the need for creating a motivating work environment that not only motivates but engages workers in productive work outcomes. This paper discussed motivational theories (content and process theories); job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and employee engagement theories as critical to staff motivation generally and academic staff retention specifically. An empirical review of literature and review of literature on academic staff retention specifically was reviewed including suggestions on specific gaps that required further research attention. Be that as it may, a combination of theory and praxis is conditional to any successes in garnering positive outcomes in organisations. Theory provides bedrock on which any practice can easily be premised for sound application while praxis is required make reasonable sense of any reasonable theory, as theory without practice is like a boat on dry ground.

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