

**IMPACT OF MONETARY INCENTIVES ON TEACHER RETENTION AND  
ATTRACTION TO RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS: CASE OF RURAL  
ALLOWANCE IN SALIMA DISTRICT.**

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SUPERVISOR

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## DECLARATION

This is a declaration that this thesis is my original work and to the best of my knowledge, it has never been submitted to any university or institution for the award of a degree or presented for publication in any part of the world.

Signature.....

Denis Beneka Mwenda

Date.....

## **SUPERVISOR’S APPROVAL**

This is to certify that this research report titled “Impact of monetary incentives on teacher retention and attraction to rural primary schools: Case of rural allowance in Salima District” is submitted with my approval as a supervisor for Mr Denis Beneka Mwenda.

Signed.....

Associate Professor Dr. Victor Mgomozulu

**SUPERVISOR**

Date.....

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my father, Mr. Alick Beneka Mwenda and my late father in-law, Mr. Albert Chimangiro Mkandawire, for encouraging me to achieve such academic success. Their wise advice enabled me to balance academics and family matters.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

CDSS : Community Day Secondary School

DEM : District Education Manager

EDM : Education Division Manager

EFA: Education for All

IPTE: Initial Primary Teacher Education

JCE : Junior Certificate of Education

M.S.C.E.: Malawi School Certificate of Education

MANEB: Malawi National Examinations Board

MGDS: Malawi Growth and Development Strategy

MoBSE : Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education

MoEST : Ministry of Education Science and Technology

MZUNI : Mzuzu University

NES: National Education Standards

NESP: National Education Sector Plan

ODL: Open and Distance Learning

PEA : Primary Education Advisor

PTA : Parent Teacher Association

SPSS : Statistical Package for Social Scientists

TTC : Teachers Training College

## ABSTRACT

In a bid to achieve EFA goal, Malawi government through MoEST introduced K5, 000.00 as an allowance for teachers teaching in rural schools in the year 2010. The allowance was later adjusted upwards to K10, 000.00 in 2014. Rural allowance was introduced to retain teachers in rural schools and attract teachers from urban schools to migrate to remote areas. This study investigated the extent to which rural allowance helps to retain teachers in rural schools in Salima district. It also explored the extent to which the allowance attracts teachers from urban schools to rural schools. The research further examined competitive capacity of rural allowance in retaining and attracting teachers to rural schools over other non-monetary incentives provided in the rural setting.

Employing quantitative approach, data was collected using likert type questionnaires. One questionnaire which assessed teacher retention was administered to 250 teachers in rural schools. Another questionnaire which was designed to measure attraction of teachers from urban to rural primary schools was administered to 83 teachers in urban primary schools.

The findings of the study indicate that rural allowance retains an approximate 46% of teachers in rural primary schools in Salima District. The allowance attracts about 53% of teachers in urban primary schools to rural primary schools in the district. However there is no evidence of teacher migration from urban to rural schools despite teachers in urban schools registering that rural allowance attracts them. The study reveals that teachers fail to migrate from urban to rural schools because of other critical factors such as poor housing in rural schools. The study also revealed that there are other factors in rural schools that hinder teachers from migrating to rural schools

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **ORIENTATION**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents brief background information on teacher retention and attraction to rural schools using various incentives. In particular, the chapter provides information on the birth of rural allowance scheme as a tool for improving teacher retention in and attraction to rural primary schools in Malawi. It also outlines the problem statement and purpose of the study. This section further presents the research questions, variables, hypotheses, scope and significance of the study. This chapter also presents the theoretical framework that guided the study.

#### **1.2 Background**

Education is the driving force behind socio-economic development of any nation. It is therefore imperative that governments provide equitable access to quality education to all its citizens to enable the majority to participate in national development. Teachers are the human capital that is central in providing the much needed services to run the education system so that availability of quality education is possible. It is however, discomfoting as Wallace and Sartono (2010) note that in most developing countries, rural schools do not have adequate teachers to fulfill governments' obligation to offer education of desired quality. Wallace and Sartono further point out that the impact of teacher shortages is felt disproportionately by the poorest and most marginalized rural societies in sub-Saharan Africa. Similarly, Mulkeen (2005) notes that in many African countries teachers prefer to teach in urban areas where most inhabitants are economically relatively stable. As a result of high preference for urban areas by teachers, rural schools are left with vacant posts and in many cases these rural areas have insufficient qualified teachers. It has been observed that shortage of teachers in rural schools is not only by quantity but also by quality.

For instance, Bennel and Akyeampong (2005) observe that in most low-income developing countries, a low proportion of qualified teachers work in rural schools. According to Malawi National Statistical Office (2008), the poor populous in Malawi reside in rural areas which experiences teacher shortages in view of urban areas. Therefore, poor staffing in rural schools denies the majority of Malawian children access to quality education.

As a signatory to international treaties on campaign towards EFA such as the Jomtien Declaration (1990), Malawi Government strives to ensure balanced allocation of resources to guarantee equitable access to quality and relevant education for both rural and urban students. Therefore, the shortage of teachers in rural primary schools may create serious challenges in the attainment of Education for All (EFA) goals. The rural-urban teacher distribution in-equality also frustrates efforts to achieve Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II (MGDS II) 2011-2016, (Malawi Government, 2012), and 2008-2017 National Education Sector Plan (NESP), (Malawi Government, 2008) priority area to ensure equitable access to quality education for all citizens. The disparity further bears negativity on the commitment of Malawi government to demonstrate that education is a right for all its citizens as enshrined in the Malawi Constitution, Chapter IV section 25 (Malawi Government, 2006). Furthermore, inequitable distribution of teachers derails the first objective of Malawi's 2001-2020 Policy, and Investment Framework which strives to increase access to educational opportunities for all Malawians at all levels of education (Malawi Government, 2001).

In response to conspicuous rural-urban imbalance in the distribution of primary school teachers, the government of Malawi has been compelled to embark on a number of strategies to eliminate the in-equality. Among such strategies is the use of monetary incentives known as rural



allowance. This study focuses on the effectiveness of rural allowance that Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) introduced in order to attract and retain teachers in the rural schools.

The MoEST in Malawi introduced K5, 000 as rural allowance for teachers teaching in the rural areas. According to Malawi Government (2011), MoEST introduced rural allowance as a way of making teachers teaching in the rural schools to remain there and also attract teachers from urban schools. The report also alleges that 37,562 teachers across the country received teachers' rural allowance of MK 5, 000 each, per month. The allowance was initially meant for primary school teachers in rural schools only, but later amendments were made to include secondary school teachers in the rural setting. However, this study only focuses on primary schools. Amendments were also made on the name which initially was hardship allowance, but teachers in urban schools argued that they too face hardships associated with urban life. The amount for the allowance was raised to K10, 000 in January, 2014.

The authority to identify rural and urban schools was vested in the office of the District Education Manager (DEM) for each education district. The criterion for determining a rural school is largely guided by the absence or presence of social amenities such as banks, post office, portable water supply, reliable public hospital and shops at unspecified distance from either city or town. It is therefore evident that defining a rural school is also dependent on the quality of social amenities in the area. The quality of these amenities differs from one area to another depending on the socio-economic status of the area. What is considered poor for a particular district might be good in another district; thus the universal definition of rural is not achievable as evidenced by diverse literature. For instance, Miller (2012) admits that the term rural is challenging to define since rural

communities are not homogenous and further points out that this creates challenges in research.

The difficulty to come up with the universal definition of a rural area for the purpose of identifying beneficiary schools in Malawi created instability during implementation phase of the rural allowance scheme. Due to lack of homogeneity in the country's rural communities, some teachers regarded their schools as 'rural schools' and claimed to deserve the allowance. For example, Kulemeke and Ndalama (2013) report that teachers in Lilongwe boycotted classes to force MoEST to include them on the rural allowance scheme. But the District Education Manager could not decisively indicate whether the schools under question were in urban or rural setting. Since its inception, the program has undergone several revisions to accommodate diverse perspectives of 'rural'. Some teachers still question the objectivity of the criteria used to determine the geographical boundaries separating rural from urban schools.

Before introducing rural allowance, the Malawi Government through MoEST had put in place mechanisms to reduce the inequitable distribution of teachers between rural and urban primary schools. Such mechanisms include:

**(a) Recruitment on bond**

Under recruitment on bond initiative, the MoEST in Malawi trains prospective primary school teachers under Initial Primary Teacher Education (IPTE) programme. This is a 1-1 system in which trainees study at Teachers' Training College (TTC) and sit for Malawi National Examination Board (MANEB) set examinations after one year. This is followed by another year of monitored teaching practice at designated schools before deployment. The system is designed to ensure that its graduates are deployed to rural schools since the trainees sign a bond to teach in rural schools for five years after graduation.

### **(b) Distance Teacher Training Model under targeted recruitment**

Sedere (2005), the then policy analyst for MoEST in Malawi, proposed distance teacher training model as one way of reducing teacher-pupil ratio in Malawi, projected to 2015. The Malawi Government embraced the proposal and implemented the policy from 2010 to 2015. The programme recruited secondary school leavers into primary schools with severe teacher shortages while being trained through open and distance learning (ODL) basis. The prospective teachers with a minimum of Malawi School Certificate of Education (M.S.C.E.) applied for teaching positions through their respective education zones and were deployed within the zones. Although the model reduced teacher-pupil ratio, it had a negative bearing on the quality of service delivery since the recruits started teaching before being trained.

### **(c) The incentive system**

Incentives are either monetary or non-monetary. Non-monetary incentives include promotions, training and housing, among others. However, these non-monetary incentives are not as frequent and easy to access due to limited resource envelop in the MoEST. The monetary incentive system, especially for teachers teaching in rural schools, is of interest in this study. The system has been introduced in many forms. One such monetary incentive is the rural allowance which Bennell and Akyeampong (2005) claim that most African countries have introduced for teachers teaching in rural areas. Bennell and Akyeampong however, point out that the allowances are often not enough to influence teacher's choices to be placed in rural schools. Malawi government introduced the rural allowance for teachers teaching in the rural schools as an incentive to retain them in rural schools and attract teachers from the urban settings.

### **1.3 Statement of the problem**

Ministry of Education in Malawi introduced rural allowance for teachers with the aim of retaining and attracting teachers to rural schools. However, in spite of introducing rural allowance and increasing the amount from K5, 000 to K10, 000 per month, staffing levels in rural schools do not appear to have improved following such an incentive. Furthermore, teachers do not seem to migrate from urban to rural primary schools so as to benefit from the rural allowance scheme.

In 2011, teachers from Chipoka I and Chipoka II primary schools in Salima district marched to the DEM's office to lure the office to consider their schools for the rural allowance. However, the DEM's office insisted that the schools could not be included on the scheme as they were in urban setting. Surprisingly, three years later, a teacher at Chipoka II primary school boasted of reduced teaching load due to increased number of members of staff despite not receiving the allowance. This prompted me to conduct a mini survey to find out the trends in staffing levels in both primary schools; those which benefited from rural allowance and those that were not on the rural allowance scheme in Chipoka Education Zone. Chipoka is one of the twelve education zones in Salima district with eight primary schools.

The survey was conducted by collecting and analyzing data from statistical staff returns for selected schools in Chipoka Education Zone for the month of December from 2009 to 2014. The data from the survey was tabulated and presented as in Table 1.1

**Table 1.1: Staffing levels according to schools' statistical staff returns**

Schools	Year and staffing level					
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Chipoka I*	16	16	15	16	18	21
Chipoka II*	10	10	10	20	23	22
Msumwa	5	7	8	9	9	9
Kambiri	5	8	8	11	14	14
Mtiya	10	12	13	15	15	16

Schools with \* did not benefit from rural allowance scheme

The survey revealed that staffing levels of the non-recipient primary schools had been increasing much faster compared with primary schools on the rural allowance scheme.

The results of this survey portray complexity to attribute the changes in staffing levels to rural allowance only. Furthermore, the results show the difficulty to ascertain the relationship between rural allowance and teacher retention, and attraction to rural schools due to the following observations:

1. Chipoka I and Chipoka II, at the time of the survey did not benefit from the rural allowance scheme but their staffing levels continued to increase instead of getting reduced. It was expected that staffing levels in such schools would decrease due to migration of teachers to rural schools following the allowance.
2. In both rural and urban schools of the zone under survey, the staffing levels had been increasing steadily since 2010, regardless of the rural schools having a perceived pull incentive known as rural allowance.
3. There was no remarkable increase in staffing levels in rural schools between 2009 and

2010 to reflect the incentive that had been introduced. There was equally no significant increase in staffing levels in the same schools between 2013 and 2014 to signify the impact 100% hike of the same allowance.

Bearing in mind that the government also introduced other teacher retention strategies such as open and distance learning and initial primary teacher education, which may also have an effect on staffing levels, it was very difficult to associate the increased staffing levels with rural allowance only. It was therefore pertinent for this study, to be conducted to find out if there is a relationship between rural allowance and teacher retention and attraction to rural primary schools.

This survey may not reflect the general trend in all schools in the district but rather, provide an insight on the complexity of assessing the impact of rural allowance on teacher retention and attraction to rural primary schools. Thus, the study was scaled up to district level by sourcing the opinions of teachers in Salima district, which reflect their perceptions of the allowance.

#### **1.4 Critical Research Question**

This study sought to answer the following major research question;

To what extent do monetary incentives in the form of rural allowance make primary school teachers remain in rural schools, and attract teachers from urban to rural primary schools of Salima district?

The critical research question was broken down into the following specific questions;

1. To what extent does rural allowance make primary school teachers to remain in rural schools of Salima District?

2. To what extent does rural allowance attract teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District?
3. To what extent are other incentives a critical factor in retaining teachers in rural primary schools in Salima District?
4. To what extent are other incentives a critical factor in attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools?
5. What are the suggestions of teachers in rural primary schools on how best rural allowance can be used to improve staffing levels in rural primary schools?

### **1.5 Hypotheses and main variables of the study**

This research was built around four hypotheses;

- 1) Rural allowance makes primary school teachers remain in rural primary schools of Salima District.
- 2) Rural allowance attracts primary school teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District.
- 3) Other incentives are a critical factor in retaining teachers to rural primary schools in Salima District.
- 4) Other incentives are a critical factor in attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District.

Main variables that were measured are retention and attraction, and rural allowance. The presence or absence of rural allowance at a school is an input (independent) variable while retention and attraction to rural school are output (dependent) variables. The hypotheses therefore, suggest that teacher retention and attraction to rural schools in Salima are dependent on the presence of rural

allowance in the schools.

## **1.6 Theoretical Framework**

This study was informed by the Three Cs model which was proposed by Sher in 1983. According to Cowan (2010), the Three Cs Model has three tenets, namely; **Characteristics**, **Conditions** and **Compensation**, which are perceived to determine teacher retention. Cowan (2010) stipulates that one of the Cs in Three Cs Model represents characteristics of an individual. These characteristics are shaped by, among others, social background, training, pre-service and personal experience of an individual. Family background, pre-service orientation, socialization, age and sex have a bearing on perceptions of an individual about working in the rural areas. Some people may be attracted to a rural school due to their personal characteristics while others may detest the setting because of negative perception about the place.

Cowan (2010) further points out that the other C in the Three Cs Model represents conditions of service and working environment. Such conditions may include cultural centres, recreational opportunities, housing, family and friends among others. The model assumes that these conditions determine the willingness of teachers to continue working in a particular school. The model also assumes that less attractive working and living conditions would increase recruitment difficulties, turnover and attrition, thus decreasing retention. In the context of this research, condition of the school was considered in terms of its being situated in the remote area, where life is regarded as hard due to the absence of social amenities. The schools situated in rural areas are perceived to have poor conditions and require incentives to attract teachers. The combined influence of teacher characteristics and working conditions of rural schools are considered to play a significant role in attracting and retaining teachers to rural primary schools.



The third C according to the model represents compensation. Compensation, according to Cowan (2010), includes any financial incentive such as salary, rewards, benefits and opportunity costs such as the ability to make a higher salary in an alternative field. The non-monetary incentives such as housing and promotion prospects are also forms of compensation. The model assumes that the compensation of teachers influences teacher turnover or attrition, attraction and retention.

The study was also informed by tenets of Equity Theory. In this theory, as Kamery (2004) points out, individuals in organizations compare their performance and compensation against their co-workers' performance and compensation, and act to correct any inequalities. Williams (2009) views the Equity Theory as having three components namely; inputs, outcomes and referents. In this study, input is the rural allowance, the outcomes are retention and attraction to rural primary schools, and referent is the perceived value of rural allowance. The interplay among these components forms an interdependent system that contributes to motivation of teachers to remain at or be attracted to a rural school. For compensation to influence retention, the recipient has to value it when weighed against the problems faced. In this case, teachers teaching in rural schools need to appreciate the value of rural allowance. The allowance should outweigh the gravity of the problems they face in remote schools. Rural allowance in this study was regarded as compensation for teachers teaching in the rural schools for being exposed to 'unfavourable' working conditions.

## **1.7 Scope of the study**

The study targeted all qualified serving primary school teachers in eleven education zones in Salima District. Salima is one of the nine districts in the central region of Malawi and covers an area of 2,196 km<sup>2</sup> (Malawi National Statistical Office, 2008). According to the Malawi National Statistical Office, the district has a population of 340,327 with annual population growth rate of 3.2. Malawi Government (2010) indicates that there were 130 primary schools in Salima district, accommodating 85876 students. Dominated by Yao tribe, Salima District makes borders with Lake Malawi on the eastern side, Nkhota-kota District to the north, Dedza District to the south and south west and Dowa District to the west.

## **1.8 Significance of the study**

This is an evaluative study that may give insight to MoEST and other stakeholders in education in and outside Malawi on the successes and flaws of the rural allowance in attracting and retaining teachers in rural primary schools. The study may guide practice, policy formulation and enrich the academic knowledge base. It is hoped that:

1. The research will reveal shortfalls and strengths of the rural allowance in retaining and attracting primary school teachers to rural primary schools in Salima District
2. The study will provide basis for improving the administration of the rural allowance that may increase the capacity of the allowance to retain and attract primary school teachers in rural primary schools.
3. The study will provide ground for further research to assist in revising rural allowance policy by Ministry of Education in Malawi if need be.
4. The study will contribute to the body of knowledge on teacher retention and attraction to

rural primary schools.

### **1.9 Chapter Summary**

Chapter one has depicted highlights of teacher imbalance between urban and rural schools from a general perspective, and narrowed down to Malawi. A brief policy effort by the Malawi government to improve teacher retention in and attraction to rural schools has been outlined. The section has also systematically isolated rural allowance scheme from other incentives designed to attract and retain teachers in rural primary schools. The chapter has further outlined the perceived problem in determining the effectiveness of the allowance in the presence of the other strategies that were introduced to play the same role within the same time frame. The variables and hypotheses in the study have been clearly delineated from the research questions and further presented anticipated significance of the study from both academic and policy practice perspectives. The chapter has also presented a theoretical framework that guided the line of thought in explaining the behaviour of teachers toward rural allowance.

The next chapter provides documented facts and opinions of various researchers on teacher retention and attraction to rural schools, mostly through the use of monetary incentives.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a review of related literature on teacher retention and attraction to rural schools. The concepts ‘teacher retention’ and ‘attraction’ closely link with concepts of ‘teacher attrition’ and ‘turnover’. Thus, the review also highlights the concepts of teacher attrition and turnover, and perceives failed teacher retention to rural schools as directly influencing teacher turnover and attrition rates. This section also explores concepts of teacher retention and attraction in general and in relation to teacher distribution in urban and rural primary schools. Furthermore, a documented cause of disparities in teacher distribution has been factored into the review. The chapter also gives a brief analysis of related monetary incentive programmes for teachers in selected African countries as case studies for comparison with the way MoEST in Malawi implemented the rural allowance scheme.

#### **2.2 Conceptual framework of the study**

The study coherently builds around the concepts of retention, attraction, attrition and turnover with regard to dwindling staffing levels in rural primary schools. The comprehension of these concepts aids understanding of the influence of rural allowance on the decision of teachers to transfer out or remain in rural schools.

##### **2.2.1 The concept of retention**

The concept of retention is defined from various perspectives in different settings, but generally revolves around remaining within a particular labour force and duty station or locality. In education, retention can be viewed from the perspective of learners in relation to students’

dropout from education system as education wastage. This study focuses on teacher retention. In most cases, teacher retention is viewed from the perspective of the whole education system. Limited studies have looked at teacher retention with reference to a particular marginalized section within the system. This study defines retention with respect to the location of a duty station for teachers that fall within the dichotomies of rural and urban.

Sedere (2005), alludes that Malawi Government trains insufficient numbers of teachers which contributes to the problem of shortage of teachers in the education system. Sedere adds that poor teacher retention aggravates the problem of teacher scarcity in rural primary schools. This provides an insight that many trained teachers are either not retained or not deployed into rural primary schools, thus creating teacher shortage. This requires deliberate and strategic policy arrangement designed to improve retention capacity of hard-to-staff rural schools. Martin (2010) asserts that teacher retention is dependent on policies and practices which create working conditions and environment that encourage long term employee retention.

Miller (2012) points out that most literature demonstrate power of wage, opportunity costs, non-wage attributes, and other teacher characteristics in predicting teacher retention. Since wage payment for teachers in public schools in Malawi is centralised and uniform by grade, wages may not have contributed to the existing disparities in teacher distribution between urban and rural schools. However, it is perceived that there are higher chances for other non-teaching jobs and other monetary opportunities in urban areas which put teachers in rural schools at a comparable disadvantage. This entails that teachers in rural primary schools live under stressed conditions and are more likely to migrate to other relatively better schools, thus create imbalance in the distribution of teachers.

Retention is a product of the individual's drive to continue staying in a particular environment, which is largely determined by the person's perception of the setting. The motivation can either naturally originate from internal faculties of the individual or can be created by modifying the environment through the incentives. Armstrong (2006) calls internally generated factors that influence behaviour as intrinsic motivation and external rewards as extrinsic motivation. But Ud Din, Tufail, Shereen, Nawaz and Shahbaz (2012) are of the view that extrinsic motivation influences person's behaviour as such; it plays a major role in retaining the teachers to their job. From the lens of Armstrong (2006) and Ud Din et al (2012), rural allowance is an extrinsic motivation that is intended to retain teachers in schools in the rural setting. When incentives as external motivators are used, it implies that the original setting is not as encouraging. Therefore, the incentive should be valuable to the recipient to arouse their interest and provide hope. The extrinsic motivators should be sustainable and outweigh unfavourable conditions in order to compel individuals to behave in a desired way. Thus, the effectiveness of rural allowance is dependent on the degree to which teachers value it as a compensation for working in the areas with poor social amenities.

### **2.2.2 The concept of attraction**

The principle of attraction derives synonymous connotation in natural and social sciences. In both fields, the term denotes a pull towards a reference section. In the context of this study, attraction means making teachers to like the rural schools and coerce them to willfully migrate from primary schools located in the urban setting.

Wallace and Sartono (2010) argue that attraction to a certain locality results from push and pull factors that exist in comparable settings. In order for teachers to be retained in the system and

indeed in rural schools, pull factors should prevent them from deciding to move away. There are push and pull factors in both rural and urban areas which affect the migration of teachers between schools located in the two areas. Pull factors attract teachers to an area and push factors make people to move away. The pull factors in the rural primary schools should be able to attract teachers from urban schools so that they relocate to rural schools. For teachers to be attracted to a rural primary school, its pull factors should be stronger than pull factors in urban primary schools. Mulkeen and Chen (2008) claim that urban areas have better conditions compared to rural settings, where there are concerns of poor accommodation, poor classrooms and leisure facilities. Honestly, urban regions have many pull factors than rural areas that attract more teachers to urban schools thereby contributing to high preference for urban primary schools by the majority of teachers. The allowance was introduced as a pull factor in rural primary schools to eliminate the pull imbalance between rural and urban primary schools, and possibly increase the strength of pull in primary schools located in the remote areas.

### **2.2.3 The concept of teacher attrition in education**

According to Wallace and Sartono (2010), teacher attrition refers to all permanent losses of teachers from the teaching profession, for various reasons. Bennell and Akyeampong (2005) posit that teacher attrition is either voluntary through resignation and early retirement or involuntary through death, illness, compulsory retirement age and dismissal, among others. Low morale among teachers may influence voluntary attrition. In whichever form it takes, attrition is a form of education wastage as it deprives the education system of the vital human resource. Controlling voluntary teacher attrition requires adjustment of work conditions so that teachers are attracted to the rural schools.

According to Wallace and Sartono (2010), Malawi experiences significant levels of teacher attrition and the few that remain in the profession prefer to work in urban areas, resulting in shortage of teachers in the rural schools. Wallace and Sartono also indicate that attrition rate in Malawi is 5% for primary school teachers. It is however, observed that teacher attrition rate fluctuates from time to time depending on the prevailing working conditions and compensation as viewed in three Cs model. For instance, Mulkeen and Chen (2008) report that the MoEST estimated that in 2008, teacher attrition was around 6% of the primary school teaching force, while in 2010, it was reduced to 5%. This may be an indication that the work conditions can be altered to sustain a minimum level of attrition.

Attrition creates disparities in the distribution of teachers between urban and rural schools, which in turn, affect the teacher-pupil ratio in the schools. Wallace and Sartono (2010) observe that attrition is generally higher among teachers with higher academic qualifications and also higher among schools in urban areas. Teachers in urban areas have a higher chance to secure another job, especially the better qualified teachers, thereby creating a gap in the urban schools, which attracts teachers from the rural. Consequently, rural primary schools suffer the teacher shortages due to attrition that takes place in urban primary schools. Though attrition is mostly associated with the education system in its entirety, it disproportionately affects the rural schools than urban education institutions.

#### **2.2.4 The concept of turnover**

In most literature the terms attrition and turnover are usually used interchangeably referring to an employee leaving a particular job. Fit-enz (1987) and Grobler, Warnich, Carrel, Elbert and Hatfield (2002), define employee turnover as the movement of employees into and out of



organizations. But Jeen (2014) provides a clear distinction between turnover and attrition. Jeen describes turnover as the process through which employees leave an institution and the way they are replaced, and refers to attrition just as gradual reduction of workforce.

The critical aspect of teacher turnover in rural schools is the sustainable replacement mechanism and subsequent retention. Replacement of teachers could be possible through deployment and redeployment only if attraction is high enough to pull the teachers. In a situation where Sedere (2005) posits that Malawi trains insufficient number of teachers to meet its demand, redeployment of teachers within the education system remains an alternative strategy to reduce disparities in teacher distribution between rural and urban schools. Therefore, incentivized teacher attraction to neglected areas is central in instigating teacher-initiated migration from urban to rural schools.

### **2.2.5 Factors that lead to teacher migration, turnover and attrition from rural schools**

A number of studies reveal some of the factors that compel teachers to leave the profession in which rural schools become major victims. Wallace and Sartono (2010) point out that push-pull, personal and demographic factors contribute to teacher turnover and attrition in education systems. Push factors such as poor conditions of schools, living conditions at post, management within the school, management within the education sector, and low job satisfaction, tend to push teachers out of the duty stations or education system.

According to Wallace and Sartono (2010), demographic factors such as retirement age and death, and personal factors that include marriage, family responsibilities and illness, are pivotal in influencing teacher attrition and turnover. It is important to note that what attracts a particular teacher to a job in a certain locality may be of little significance to another teacher. For instance, a

business oriented teacher may easily be attracted to a job that gives them time to do other businesses regardless of location. On the other hand, a teacher who seeks an alternative job in a formal sector would prefer an urban school with an opportune proximity and access to prospective employers in town.

Kadzamira (2006) asserts that teachers in Malawi have low morale due to poor incentives and conditions of service. Factors such as levels of remuneration, location, type of school, lack of appropriate housing and opportunities for further training, reduce the morale of teachers. Among these factors, Wallace and Sartono (2010) note that housing is the major push factor for teachers in schools. Kadzamira further points out that promotion, career path and school quality factors such as availability of teaching and learning materials, contribute to low teacher morale. These factors form push-pull system that determines retention and attraction of teachers in urban and rural schools. The urban schools have comparatively better and more of these factors and are assured of the competitive advantage in attracting teachers.

Policy changes and adoption also have a bearing on teacher distribution in the education system. For instance, Kayuni and Tambulasi (2007) stipulate that the introduction of free primary education (FPE) in 1994 worsened the working conditions for primary school teachers. The introduction of FPE increased enrolment without corresponding increase in appropriate infrastructure development to accommodate all teachers and learners. As Malawi Government (2015) observes in Education Sector Implementation Plan II, teachers are overwhelmed with large classes especially in the rural primary schools. Before the introduction of FPE, most students who failed to attend school were children of poor people in the rural areas, and with the coming of FPE, most rural schools were overwhelmed. When teachers are overloaded with work, they

become stressed up and lose interest in the job, especially if they compare the load with the remunerations.

Mulkeen and Chen (2008) point out that teacher deployment and redeployment approaches also contribute to attrition. The random posting of teachers to subjectively undesirable work locations is one of the major problems expressed by teachers. Kadzamira (2006) also acknowledges that deployment practice in Malawi contributes to increased disparities in teacher distribution between rural and urban schools. There are rural-urban imbalances in the deployment of teachers with respect to gender and qualification, which results in female teachers disproportionately locating in urban schools. The duty station may be classified as undesirable by an individual because of preferences which are determined by a combination of conditions of the place and personal expectations. The duty station that is undesirable to an individual may be desirable to another person since people differ in characteristics, as alluded to in the Three Cs Model. The place is perceived as undesirable if it has many push factors for an individual teacher who finds it inhabitable compared to another location with pull factors. Circumstances of this nature contribute to migration of teachers from rural to urban schools in Malawi. There is also migration of teachers from primary school to secondary school section, which reduces staffing level in rural primary schools. Sedere (2005) attributes shortage of teachers in primary schools to increased number of primary school teachers who are being redeployed to CDSSs. Some teachers upgrade their academic qualifications and move to secondary school section at a higher professional grade and salary.

Hines and Mathis (2007) argue that rural schools are considered hard-to-staff because they are located in isolated areas and do not offer comparative supplements and amenities, or high quality

resources when compared to urban schools. This is consistent with the observation of Mulkeen (2005) and South African Council for Educators (2011), that many teachers prefer to teach in urban settings due to low quality of accommodation and classroom facilities in non-urban schools. Miller (2012) adds that poor social amenities such as shopping venues, fewer cultural avenues and housing make teacher retention a challenge in rural schools.

### **2.2.6 The concepts of attrition, turnover and retention in the context of this research**

In the context of this research, attrition and turnover refer to teachers who permanently or temporarily leave their rural school positions for urban schools, and for other jobs. Therefore, the study regards attrition and turnover as both occupational and locational. Locational attrition is viewed as intra-system in which movement is within the teaching profession. Occupational attrition is inter-system in nature in which teachers move out of the teaching profession. Teacher retention refers to the process of making teachers remain in their rural primary school teaching positions. The motive of rural allowance is to retain and attract teachers into the rural setting. The allowance was introduced after reports that there exists an imbalance in the distribution of teachers who are already in short supply, between rural and urban schools. Rural allowance is therefore thought to be an immediate pull factor to reduce teacher migration from rural to urban, and promote teacher movement to remote areas, from towns.

### **2.2.7 The extent of imbalance in teacher distribution between rural and urban schools**

The term imbalance portrays disparities in the distribution of variables in comparable areas, and in this case, it refers to inequitable distribution of teachers between rural and urban schools. Lewin (2000) observes that in many African countries, the distribution of teachers is uneven, with surpluses in certain areas coexisting with shortages in the other settings. In agreement with

Lewin, Adedeji and Olaniyan (2011), note a widening knowledge gap between the urban and rural school in many African countries, which among others, results from inequitable teacher distribution. Learners in rural areas are falling behind their urban counterparts due lack of enough teachers to effectively handle all subjects and manage the schools.

Sedere (2005) observes that teachers in rural parts of Malawi are overwhelmed with teacher-pupil ratio of 1:77, while their counterparts in the urban, the ratio is at 1:44. The teacher-pupil ratio escalated by 2013 in which Malawi Government (2015) reports an average ratio of 1:99 in rural schools. This is the case because the majority of population in Malawi resides in remote areas. This means that a greater proportion of learners are denied quality education due to the shortage of teachers. The uneven distribution of teachers in Malawi is aggravated by intra-system and extra-system turnover and deployment practices.

The gender characteristics of teacher population entrenches the rural-urban teacher imbalance. For instance, Mulkeen (2005) and Adedeji and Olaniyan (2011), observe that 82% of female teachers in Malawi are in urban schools against 31% in the rural schools. They further point out that out of the few who remain in rural schools, most of them are unqualified. This may be an indication that most teachers in Malawi prefer to teach in urban schools with female teachers taking the lead. Mulkeen (2005) further cites a particular case in Blantyre, the commercial city of Malawi where 90 out 111 teachers were females. Kadzamira (2006) indicates that most female teachers use marriage to negotiate their posting to urban schools, arguing that they follow husbands who work in town. In some cases, it is alleged that female teachers feel that there are better chances of getting married to a 'better' husband in the urban areas.

To reduce teacher imbalance between rural and urban schools, and improve staffing in rural schools, many African countries introduced monetary incentives. The study cites a few cases of African countries that have used monetary incentives to retain teachers in rural areas.

### **2.3 Case studies of monetary incentives in African Countries**

Malawi is not the only country in Africa that introduced monetary incentives for teachers teaching in rural areas. The incentive has been known by different names and employs varying criteria for selecting the beneficiaries in various countries. The other African countries that have initiated a similar programme include; Gambia, Lesotho, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Kenya and South Africa, among others. These countries implemented the rural allowance scheme to ensure retention and attraction of teachers to rural schools. In most African countries, the attraction and retention aspects have targeted qualified teachers to rural schools. This study provides only a brief review of the scheme in Gambia, Lesotho and Mozambique.

#### **2.3.1 Case study 1: Hardship allowance in Gambia**

Developing countries have put in place mechanisms to ensure the provision of quality education for the rural masses through the introduction of monetary incentives to attract and retain teachers in remote areas. In Gambia, this monetary incentive is branded ‘hardship allowance’ and was introduced in 2005. Pugatch and Schroeder (2013) posit that the incentive was introduced in an education system in which primary and secondary schools are managed by the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE).

Growing concern over the wide discrepancies in educational opportunities between rural and urban areas prompted the Gambian Government through MoBSE to introduce hardship

allowance. The lack of qualified teachers was noted to be a serious problem in the remote parts of Gambia. So the allowance was introduced to attract teachers to rural areas. As Pugatch and Schroeder (2013) put it, the Gambian education system recognises a teacher as qualified if they have completed the three-year teacher training course offered by Gambia College. Any teacher below that standard is classified as unqualified. The shortage of qualified teachers is often considered as a potential cause of lower performance in rural schools, and this is also the case in Gambia.

#### **2.3.1.1 Effecting hardship allowance in Gambia**

Pugatch and Schroeder (2013) stipulate that Gambian government provides a salary premium of 30-40% of monthly salary to primary school teachers in remote locations. To identify the beneficiary schools, the policy targets schools that are located more than 3 kilometres from a main road. The allowance received by a teacher is also dependent on distance from the capital city and qualification. The percentages for the allowance increase with increasing distance from city, in the order 30%, 35% and 40%. This means that teachers in the schools that are located farthest from the city receive the largest amount of Hardship Allowance compared with teachers at the same grade near the city. By salary scale, more qualified teachers in a particular locality receive a larger sum since the allowance is calculated as a percentage of the basic salary which varies with grades.

#### **2.3.1.2 Impact of hardship allowance in Gambia**

Pugatch and Schroeder (2013) report that hardship allowance in Gambia registered success in teacher attraction to rural areas. The report reveals that the allowance increased the share of qualified teachers in rural schools by 10%. The hardship allowance as implemented in Gambia

proves to have both attraction and retention power on teachers as the 10% increase is mainly attributed to influx of teachers from urban areas. The increase in the share of qualified teachers is a positive development as it indicates that the hardship allowance is a strong pull factor for teachers in rural areas. The allowance in Gambia is reported to have reduced pupil-qualified teacher ratio by 61% in recipient schools close to the main road on a 3 kilometer range.

Rural allowance implementation in Malawi and Gambia share and differ in a number of ways. Both countries target rural teachers but in Gambia hardship allowance targets qualified teachers. While in Gambia hardship allowance is calculated as a percentage of salary depending on distance from capital city and main road, in Malawi the incentive is a flat rate of K10 000 regardless of degree of rural and qualification of a teacher. The Gambian policy recognises that rural has a degree while in Malawi; it is regarded as being homogeneous. The main determinant for a school to benefit from the scheme in Gambia is distance of the school from the main road and the city. In Malawi, the beneficiary school is selected based on presence or absence of social amenities such as banks, public electricity supply, piped water supply and public hospitals, among others.

### **2.3.2 Case study 2: Hardship allowance in Lesotho**

Lesotho is another African country like Malawi that experiences the problem of teacher shortages in rural areas. Urwick, Mapuru and Nkhoboti (2005) describe Lesotho as a small, independent and mountainous kingdom surrounded by the territory of the Republic of South Africa. The country introduced free primary education (FPE) in the year 2000. This led to increased enrolment in primary education, resulting in corresponding upsurge in pressure on available resources, teachers inclusive.



### **2.3.2.1 The problem of teacher distribution in Lesotho; causes and degree**

Problems that developing countries face with their education systems are common. However there are some hitches which are endemic to a particular country. Lesotho is no exception. The country has both common and unique problems that its teachers face which compromise the quality of education. Mulkeen and Chen (2008) observe that Lesotho has some very mountainous areas where movement is difficult, infrastructure is poor, and the climate is inhospitable. The highlands are sparsely populated and schools are generally few. The conditions in these mountainous areas are perceived not friendly and as such, it is hard to attract teachers to such settings. Mulkeen and Chen (2008) lament the disparities in the distribution of qualified teachers between lowlands and highlands with only 24% of unqualified teachers in lowlands against 51% in the mountain areas.

Mulkeen (2005) reveals that Lesotho has its own unique way of recruiting and deploying teachers. The system is different from the centralised system in Malawi. Lesotho uses local hire system in which the government gives a school the authority to hire teachers of its choice. This implies that teachers have a choice of school where they can apply for a teaching post. This results in less preferred schools being left with limited numbers of qualified applicants. This leads to discrepancy in the distribution of qualified teaching staff between urban and rural schools. In an effort to minimise the inequality in teacher distribution, the government of Lesotho introduced hardship allowance in hard-to-staff mountainous areas.

### **2.3.2.2 Implementation of hardship allowance in Lesotho**

According to Mulkeen and Chen (2008), Lesotho had already introduced hardship allowance for teachers teaching in the rural schools long before Malawi introduced the rural allowance. Urwick, Mapuru and Nkhoboti (2005) point out that the allowances for teachers serving in designated

mountainous areas were introduced in 1994. The allowance was introduced with the aim of encouraging qualified teachers to locate to hilly areas. Like rural allowance in Malawi, hardship allowance in Lesotho is paid on flat rate basis at M275 per teacher per month, regardless of qualification of teachers and degree of rural. The rural area is principally defined in terms of terrain and not distance from the city or social amenities around.

### **2.3.2.3 Successes and challenges of hardship allowance in Lesotho**

Urwick, Mapuru and Nkhoboti (2005) report that hardship allowance in Lesotho assists in reducing transport costs and expenses of other goods and services for teachers in the mountainous schools. However, Urwick, Mapuru and Nkhoboti indicate that there is no substantial evidence indicating retention in and attraction of qualified teachers to the hard-to-staff areas in Lesotho due to the allowance.

Mulkeen and Chen (2008) point out that some people have criticised the program arguing that some schools in very rural lowlands do not receive the allowance, while teachers of mountainous places in town benefit. According to Mulkeen and Mulkeen (2008), other critics are of the view that 275 Maloti is not enough if weighed against the cost of living in rural areas where commodities like fuel are expensive. This reflects that as proposed in Three Cs Model, beneficiaries compare the compensation with the gravity of the problems faced. Like rural allowance in Malawi, hardship allowance in Lesotho has been given little publicity regarding the extent to which it has influenced teachers to locate to rural areas.

### **2.3.3 Case study 3: Location bonus in Mozambique**

While it is rural allowance for teachers in Malawi, in Mozambique, it is known as location bonus

and it was introduced to locate civil servants to remote parts of the country. Unlike in Malawi and Lesotho but like Gambia, Mulkeen and Chen (2008) report that Mozambique pays location bonus based on grade and degree of rural. Since the bonus is calculated as a percentage of salary, it varies with one's grade and within a grade the percentages also vary with location. Areas are classified into four regions as follows; group 1: major cities, group 2: provincial towns, group 3: more remote villages and group 4: most remote schools. Table 2.1 below depicts the location bonus rates as in Mulkeen and Chen (2008):

Table 2.1 Incentive Payment for Teachers, by Location, 2005(Percentage of salary)

Level of qualification	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
UP graduates (secondary)	60	70	80	100
IMAP graduates (upper primary)	30	40	50	60

Source: Mozambique, Ministry of Education data.

Table 2.1 indicates that those at higher grade consistently receive a higher percentage within the same region. It further indicates that teachers teaching in most remote areas get the biggest percentage of the location bonus.

### **2.3.3.1 Reasons for introducing location bonus in Mozambique**

Mozambique introduced the location bonus for similar reasons as in other African countries, to reduce imbalance in teacher distribution between rural and urban schools. Mozambique faces serious inequitable distribution of qualified teachers between schools located in urban and rural areas. For instance, Mulkeen (2005) reports that in Maputo city, only 8% of early primary school teachers were untrained, compared with 62% in a rural area, Niassa.

The country uses provincial system in which each province is responsible for training and recruiting teachers to meet its demand. However, this depends on resource capacity of the province which worsens disparities in teacher distribution between the poor and rich provinces. Provinces in urban areas tend to have adequate resources and have the capacity to train teachers of their demand and surplus. For example, Mulkeen (2005) observes that in Mozambique, Maputo City District trains more teachers than it requires. The system allows teachers to volunteer and request a transfer to another province. However, many teachers do not wish to go to rural districts. Mulkeen provides an example of 2004 when only 107 teachers volunteered to be transferred to rural areas. The distribution is uneven not only between provinces, but also within the provinces in which newly recruited teachers are unwilling to be deployed to isolated remote areas within a particular province. As a strategy to attract more teachers to the less privileged provinces and the remote settings of the provinces, the government introduced location bonus in 2008.

### **2.3.3.2 Impact of location bonus on teacher distribution in Mozambique**

Little literature documentation has been made on location bonus after implementation. This poses a challenge to determine the extent to which the bonus achieves its purpose to locate teachers to rural schools. Unlike many African countries that have introduced monetary incentives for teachers, Mozambique's location bonus received minimal critics regarding the definition of rural schools, probably due to the provincial system of governing the education system.

## **2.4 Chapter summary**

Chapter two has reflected on teacher retention, attraction, attrition and turnover as the conceptual frame of the study. The general meanings of the concepts have been outlined with detailed application of the concepts in the context of this study. The chapter has further provided case

studies of some African countries that implemented similar incentivized system of attracting and retaining teachers to rural schools. The case studies are evidences on how other countries have implemented their systems, what has worked and what has failed. Differences and similarities in implementation of the incentive between Malawi and other countries form the focal point of analyses in the case studies. Generally, most African countries invest insufficient effort to evaluate the effectiveness of the monetary incentives put in place to motivate teachers to locate in the rural schools. This is manifested by lack of information on weaknesses and strengths of the allowances for teachers in rural schools in many countries.

The next chapter focuses on methodology for participant identification and a synopsis of data analysis techniques that were employed in the study.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the research design, study population, research instruments, research procedure and the selected methods of data analysis. The study examined the impact of monetary incentives on retention and attraction of teachers to rural primary schools in Salima District.

#### **3.2 Research design**

This study takes a quantitative approach to investigate the extent to which rural allowance retains primary school teachers in rural schools in Salima District. The study also finds out the extent to which rural allowance attracts teachers from urban to rural primary schools in the district. Cresswell (2003) asserts that in quantitative research, the research questions and hypothesis shape the focus of the study. The quantitative approach was adopted since the study tried to assess the general perception of many teachers on rural allowance and not the deep individualistic views of few teachers.

#### **3.3 Study area**

The study was conducted in selected primary schools in eleven education zones of Salima District. Some schools in Chipoka Zone in the district were used for testing the reliability of the questionnaire to elicit desired responses. The zone was selected since it had both, schools that receive rural allowance and schools that do not benefit from the scheme.

#### **3.4 Study population**

The study population constituted all qualified primary school teachers in the eleven education

zones in Salima District. Only qualified teachers were targeted since all unqualified teachers were not included on rural allowance regardless of where they taught. The EMIS data at Salima District Education Manager's office at the time of study indicated that there were 1825 qualified primary school teachers in all primary schools in the district. The study population comprised 1062 male and 763 female teachers. Therefore, the overall study population constituted 58% males and 42% females.

### **3.5 Selection of institutions and participants**

#### **3.5.1. Selection of schools at zone level**

In each education zone, the primary schools were stratified into two categories; recipient and non-recipient schools. Teachers in recipient schools receive rural allowance while teachers in non-recipient schools do not receive the allowance. There was no education zone with non-recipient schools only.

For the zones in which all the schools were on rural allowance scheme, six schools were selected from a list of all the schools in the zone using stratified random selection. Schweigert (1994) posits that in stratified sampling, the sample is divided into strata based on distinctive characteristics. If participants are randomly chosen from strata, it is said to be stratified random sampling. The schools in each zone were stratified into two groups based on the number of teachers at the school. All schools with more than five qualified teachers were in one group and those with less than five teachers were in a separate group. This was done in order to ensure that the study targeted mainly schools that had more than five qualified teachers since the sample size for each school was a minimum of five. Six schools in each zone were randomly selected for participation in the study. However, some zones had less than six schools with the desired number

of qualified teachers and in such case, the schools in the remotest section of the zone were included regardless of the level of staffing.

In education zones that had some schools which were not on the rural allowance scheme, it was initially planned that six schools in each zone would be sampled. However, it was discovered that there was no zone that had up to six schools which did not benefit from the rural allowance initiative, and only four education zones had some non-beneficiary schools, namely: Msalura, Chipoka, Ngolowindo and Kaphatenga Zones. Since there were very few schools that were not on the rural allowance scheme, all of them were selected to participate in the study.

### **3.5.2 Sample size and sampling procedure**

Quantitative studies use various techniques to determine the sample size to be drawn from the study population. This study determined sample size based on published confidence and precision levels. According to Israel (2003), at precision level of  $\pm 5\%$  and confidence level of 95%, when the study population is 1000 the sample size should be 286. While for the same precision and confidence levels, when the study population is 2000 the sample size should be 333. The sample of 333 comprising 250 from rural schools and 83 from urban schools was used since there were 1825 teachers as the study population and the nearer round figure is 2000. Therefore, sample size of 333 teachers in this study provides assurance of  $\pm 5\%$  precision level and 95% confidence level which creates good generalizability of the results at district level.

### **3.5.3. Selecting participants at school**

The target population in the study was not homogeneous in nature as there were differences in age, sex, work experience, qualifications and personal ambitions. All these attributes are



important as they shape one's personal characteristics which are a tenet of the Three Cs Model. Therefore, stratified random sampling was a relevant sampling procedure for this study. Sex of the participants was used as a sampling frame for strata in the study.

At each school, the head teacher was requested to produce the names of all male and female teachers at their school on separate lists. The head teachers were also requested to number the written names in ascending order, for example 1, 2, 3, 4... up to the last name. From the list of male teachers, three names were randomly selected, and from the list of female teachers, two names were selected as participants. By selecting three male and two female teachers, the study took into consideration the proportionality of male and female teachers in the study population. The study population constituted 58% males and 42% females which translated into the ratio of 3:2. However, in urban schools more females were selected than males as they were in outright majority.

Some schools contributed more than five teachers to cover-up for schools that had less than the required number of qualified participants, but the male to female ratio was maintained in recipient schools. Due to limited number of the schools that were not on the rural allowance scheme, more than five participants were selected from such schools in order to achieve a considerable representation of non-beneficiaries in the study.

### **3.6. Instrumentation**

This research is principally quantitative in nature. Therefore, data was collected through a questionnaire.

### **3.6.1. Questionnaire**

A questionnaire was used in the study because it is easy and cheap to administer to a large sample size. Questionnaires also assist in avoiding researcher bias in data collection. One week was allocated for the administration of the questionnaire in each zone. The first five days were for participant identification, clarifying and issuing questionnaires. The last two days were for collecting the questionnaires.

Two sets of questionnaires were developed. The first questionnaire targeted teachers in the rural primary schools and comprised four sections. These sections included Section A for biographical information and Section B assessed retention of teachers in rural primary schools. Section C examined other factors that may retain teachers to rural primary schools, and Section D solicited the opinion of teachers on improvement of rural allowance scheme. The second questionnaire had four sections as well, was developed for teachers in urban primary schools. Section A was for biographical information, Section B assessed attraction of teachers from urban to rural schools. Section C focused on other critical factors in teacher attraction to rural primary schools.

The participants were briefed on the purpose of the research before they were given a questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed and left with the participants for two days and collected on the third or fourth day so that participants had enough time to think through the items and respond carefully.

## **3.7. Validity and reliability in the study**

### **3.7.1. Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was pilot tested in some schools in Chipoka Zone in Salima District before

actual data collection in the same district to ensure its reliability to elicit the desired responses. The questionnaire was pre-tested to determine its capability to generate consistent set of information. Furthermore, the questionnaire items were administered without alterations to minimize threat to internal validity due to researcher bias. Validity was also ensured through thorough discussion with the research supervisor on the questionnaire items to ensure that they elicited the desired responses to answer the research questions.

### **3.8. Ethical considerations in the study**

It is necessary that every researcher understands and adheres to ethics of research. According to Gravetter and Forzano (2009), ethical issues in research play two major roles. Firstly, research ethics protect participants from either physical or psychological harm and preserve their dignity. Secondly, the ethics protect the integrity of the entire research process. In this regard, the researcher in this study took a bold step to ensure ethical consideration in the following areas:

#### **3.8.1. Participant protection**

To ensure participant protection, the following were observed: the participants took part in the study after consenting to it willfully. Consent was sought from the participants prior to questionnaire administration. The participants were also told of their freedom to withdraw from taking part in the study if they were not satisfied with some elements of the research in the course or after data collection. Furthermore, an explanation was given to the participants regarding the aim of the study. As such, the participants had been provided a written assurance that the information they provided would be used for academic purposes only. No names of the participants were required in the report or on the questionnaire to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

### **3.8.2. Protection of the dignity of the research process**

#### **3.8.2.1. Entry into the study site**

Consent was obtained from gatekeepers. In this context, the gatekeepers refer to those in authority to allow or restrict transactions from taking place in an area. The Education Division Manager for Central East Education Division granted approval for data collection to take place in his catchment area. The DEM was also requested to allow data collection to take place in the schools (See appendix 4, consent letter). Furthermore, the Primary Education Advisors' (PEAs') consent to gain access to the schools in their education zones was sought and granted. The school head teachers were also approached to permit the data collection from their members of staff.

#### **3.8.2.2. Data collection and analysis**

Data was collected only in the area designated in the research proposal. The researcher went around all the selected schools to collect the questionnaires. It took two days to collect all the questionnaires. The data set was analysed by using SPSS as submitted by participants. Data analysis included summarizing the data in a table form followed by descriptive statistics of frequencies and percentages.

### **3.9 Chapter Summary.**

Chapter three has explored the details of research design and procedures that were followed in the study to identify participant schools and teachers. The chapter has also provided information on the physical location of the study and the details of the instruments that were used to collect the required information. Furthermore, necessary information regarding data analysis used and ethical consideration has been laid out in this chapter.

The next chapter is a presentation of findings and brief interpretation and analysis of the responses.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA PRESENTATION**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the data on responses from primary school teachers regarding their perception towards the rural allowance scheme. Data was collected through two sets of questionnaires. One set was administered to teachers who receive rural allowance and another was designed and administered to teachers who do not receive the allowance. Therefore, this section presents data in two segments: first segment presents data from teachers who receive rural allowance and the second segment presents data from teachers who do not receive rural allowance. There were 250 primary school teachers on rural allowance scheme and 83 non-rural allowance recipient primary school teachers who participated in the study, totaling 333.

Please note that in the Likert scale tables that are to follow, responses for ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ are combined into ‘agree’ and the responses for ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ are combined into ‘disagree’ in the analysis and discussion.

#### **4.2 Presentation of data from teachers who receive rural allowance**

##### ***4.2.1 Biographical data of teachers in rural primary schools***

The background of teachers plays a significant role in shaping their attitudes and values. These social perspectives determine the characteristics of an individual which may influence their perceptions towards incentives, the environment they live in and the general interaction with the world around them. The biographical data generated from teachers in the rural primary schools was as indicated in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Background information of teachers in rural primary schools**

<b>Characteristic</b>		<b>Frequency (f)</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	<b>154</b>	<b>61.6</b>
	Female	<b>96</b>	<b>38.4</b>
<b>Age Range in years</b>	20-25	<b>46</b>	<b>18.4</b>
	26-30	<b>72</b>	<b>28.8</b>
	31-35	<b>28</b>	<b>11.2</b>
	36-40	<b>42</b>	<b>16.8</b>
	Over 40	<b>62</b>	<b>24.8</b>
<b>Work experience</b>	Less than 5	<b>121</b>	<b>48.4</b>
	6-10	<b>31</b>	<b>12.4</b>
	11-15	<b>41</b>	<b>16.4</b>
	16-20	<b>31</b>	<b>12.4</b>
	21-25	<b>18</b>	<b>7.2</b>
	26-30	<b>6</b>	<b>2.4</b>
	31-35	<b>1</b>	<b>0.4</b>
	More than 35	<b>1</b>	<b>0.4</b>
<b>Academic Qualifications</b>	JCE	<b>38</b>	<b>15.2</b>
	MSCE	<b>206</b>	<b>82.4</b>
	Diploma	<b>6</b>	<b>2.4</b>

The participants were grouped into the existing male and female gender domains. The study was dominated by male teachers who totaled 154, representing 61.6% of the total number of sampled

primary school teachers on rural allowance; and 96 female teachers, a 38.4% representation of the sample. The anticipated 3:2 ratio was not met since women were very few in the rural schools.

Teachers with varying age ranges responded to the questionnaires. After random issuing of the questionnaires, most of the respondents were teachers in age bracket of 26-30 years who in total were 72 (28.8%). Another significant proportion of the study sample was covered by teachers who were over 40 years who were 62 (24.8%) followed by teachers in the age range of 20-25 years who were 46 (18.4%). Teachers of age ranges 36-40 years and 31-35 years were the least represented groups and were 42 (16.8%) and 28 (11.2%) respectively. There is a strong indication that the teaching pool in the district comprises teachers with varying age groups, dominated by teachers of range 20-30 years. This could be attributed to ODL scheme in which many school leavers with MSCE were recruited between 2010 and 2014. The sample was good as teachers of all age groups were at least represented in the study.

On work experience, primary school teachers with less than 5 years dominated and were 121 in total, representing 48.4% of the sample. The other groups that were significantly represented had the work experience of 11-15 years, 6-10 years and 16-20 years whose representations were 41(16.4%), 31 (12.4%) and 31(12.4%) respectively. There were 18 (7.2%) teachers with work experience of 20-25 years and 6 (2.4%) with work experience range of 26-30 years. The groups with the least representation were teachers, who had worked in the ranges of 31-35years and more than 35 years, each group totaled 1 representing 0.4% of the sampled teachers. This is an indication that a large pool of teachers had been recruited within the last five years (2010-2015) and could as well be attributed to ODL initiative. This could also indicate that most experienced teachers have either moved out of the education system or have migrated to urban schools leaving



few in rural schools. The situation may vindicate Wallace and Sartono (2010) who allege that in Malawi, most teachers prefer to work in urban areas resulting in understaffing in the rural schools.

The experience of teachers in the study was consistent with their ages in that many teachers were youthful and had little work experience. There appears to be high voluntary attrition and turnover rates as reflected by few teachers with over 20 years work experience as compared to those that have just joined the profession. According to Bennell and Akyeampong (2005), resignation and early retirement constitute voluntary attrition, and involuntary occurs through death, illness, mandatory retirement age and dismissal, among others.

The majority of teachers in rural primary schools who participated in the study were holders of Malawi School Certificate Examinations (M.S.C.E) 206 (82.4%) while 38 (15.2%) were Junior Certificate Examinations (J.C.E). Most J.C.E holders were much older than most M.S.C.E holders. There were 6 teachers representing 2.4% of the sample who registered as holders of diploma qualification and no participant indicated to hold a bachelor's degree qualification. Those with diplomas could have graduated from unaccredited academic institutions since teachers usually join secondary school section when they acquire a diploma. The IPTE and ODL system recruited only MSCE holders which may explain the presence of many young and less experienced MSCE holders in primary schools.

**4.2.2 *Hypothesis One: Rural allowance makes primary school teachers remain in rural schools of Salima District.***

The responses on this section provide an insight of the extent to which rural allowance retains teachers in rural primary schools. The section responds to research question one which reads:

*To what extent does rural allowance make primary school teachers remain in the rural schools of Salima District?*

**Table 4.2: Influence of rural allowance on retention of teachers in rural primary schools**

ITEM	Responses										
	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree		
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
1	Rural allowance motivates me remain at my current school	78	31.2	44	17.6	12	4.8	77	30.8	39	15.6
2	Rural allowance has reduced the problems I face at my work place	83	33.2	55	22.0	20	8.0	62	24.8	30	12
3	Other attractions other than rural allowance make me remain in my current rural school	69	27.6	48	19.2	33	13.2	68	27.2	32	12.8
4	Rural allowance makes me not accept a posting to another school that does not receive rural allowance	103	41.2	64	25.6	15	6.0	31	12.4	37	14.8
5	I am satisfied with K10, 000 as an incentive to make me remain in a rural school	161	64.4	63	25.2	9	3.6	13	5.2	4	1.6

The primary school teachers who receive rural allowance were asked a set of questions to establish if rural allowance retains them in rural schools. When asked if rural allowance motivates them to remain at their current rural school, 122 (48.8%) teachers disagreed and some teachers 116 (46.4%) agreed (see Table 4.2, Item 1). This shows that there is some motivational effect of rural allowance on close to half of the teachers teaching in rural primary schools.

The study also sought to find out if teachers felt that rural allowance had reduced the problems they faced at their work place. The majority of teachers 138 (55.2%) disagreed while another group of teachers 92 (36.8%) agreed that the allowance plays a role in reducing the problems they face in rural schools (Table 4.2, Item 2). It appears that a larger proportion of teachers do not appreciate the role of rural allowance in alleviating their problems in the rural setting. The disagreement with this statement may just signify that teachers feel that the allowance has a lower contribution and not necessarily no contribution.

The other perspective of the research focused on establishing if there are other attractions other than rural allowance that also attract teachers to rural schools. According to Table 4.2, Item 3, a larger proportion of the teachers 117 (46.8%) indicated that there was no other significant attraction in their respective schools. On the other hand, their colleagues 100 (40%) agreed that there are other attractions that retain them in their current schools. This demonstrates that a slight majority of teachers feel that their schools have little attraction.

When the participant teachers were asked if rural allowance makes them refuse to relocate to another school that is not on rural allowance scheme, an overwhelming majority 167 (66.8%) disagreed. A total of 68 teachers which represents 27.2% of the sampled teachers in rural primary

schools, agreed (see Table 4.2, Item 4).

The teachers were further asked if they are satisfied with K10, 000.00 as an incentive to make them remain in a rural school. This question was designed to assess the value teachers attach to the allowance. A large section of teachers 224 (89.6%) disagreed compared with 17 (6.8%) who agreed (refer to Table 4.2, Item 5). The data shows that there is a general feeling among most teachers in rural schools that the amount paid as a compensation for teaching in the remote schools is not enough and does not outweigh their problems.

**4.2.3 Hypothesis Three:** *Other incentives are a critical factor in retaining teachers to rural primary schools in Salima District.*

This hypothesis goes along with the research question number three which inquires as follows: *To what extent are other incentives a critical factor in retaining teachers to rural primary schools?*

**Table 4.3: Influence of other incentives on teacher retention in rural schools in comparison with rural allowance**

ITEM		Responses									
		Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	Availability of staff house makes me remain in my rural school more than rural allowance.	130	52.0	61	24.4	7	2.8	37	14.8	15	6.0
2	Availability of land for farming makes me remain in my rural school more than rural allowance.	103	41.2	71	28.4	19	7.6	35	14.0	22	8.8
3	Availability of enough teaching and learning resources make me remain in my rural school more than rural allowance.	113	45.2	72	28.8	20	8.0	34	13.6	11	4.4
4	The hardworking spirit of the teachers and pupils make me remain in my rural school more than rural allowance.	59	23.6	65	26.0	32	12.8	66	26.4	28	11.2
5	Good school management makes me remain in my rural school more than rural allowance.	55	22.0	70	28.0	45	18.0	56	22.4	24	9.6
6	Good relationship with the PTA makes me remain in my rural school more than rural allowance.	77	30.8	76	30.4	30	12.0	48	19.2	19	7.6

The responses provided on this section provide a reflection of competitive power of rural

allowance over other incentives that are found in the rural primary schools.

Teachers in rural primary schools were asked if the availability of staff houses makes them remain in rural schools more than does the rural allowance. Data shows that the majority 191(76.4%) disagreed against 52 (20.8%) who agreed (Table 4.3, Item 1). This implies that most schools in the rural setting do not have decent houses that can attract teachers more than the allowance.

The research strived to ascertain if availability of land for farming makes teachers to remain in rural schools more than rural allowance. Table 4.3, Item 2 shows that a number of teachers 174 (69.6%) disagreed compared with 57 (22.8%) who agreed. This implies that most teachers in the rural schools in the district are not in their respective rural schools because of land for farming.

When asked if availability of enough teaching and learning resources makes teachers remain in the rural schools more than rural allowance, an overwhelming majority of teachers 185 (74%) disagreed, while 45 (18 %) agreed (see Table 4.3, Item 3). It appears that availability of teaching and learning materials does not play a significant role in making teachers remain in the rural schools.

The study found out if the hardworking spirit of the teachers and pupils makes them remain in the rural school more than rural allowance. With reference to Table 4.3, Item 4, most participants 124 (49.6%) disagreed, versus 94 (37.6%) that agreed. However, it is difficult to conclude that all teachers and students in the rural schools are not hard-working. This may explain something about the concern of the teacher for the success of their schools.

Teachers were also asked if good school management makes them remain in the rural schools more than rural allowance. The results show that 125 (50%) disagreed compared with 80 (32.0%) who agreed (see Table 4.3, Item 5). The data portrays that either there is generally poor school management in rural schools, or teachers are not bothered by the nature of management in their schools such that the allowance stands out as more attractive than the nature of school management. Employer-employee relations are usually dynamic and unpredictable regardless of setting, thus it is difficult to associate a particular setting with sustained perfect management.

Considering that work relationship has a bearing on attraction of workers to a particular work place, teachers were asked whether good relationship with the PTA attracts them to remain in their rural schools more than rural allowance. As seen in Table 4.3, Item 6, teachers who disagreed were 153 (61.2%) while 67 (26.8%) agreed. The study exposes that teacher-PTA relationship has lower capacity to attract and retain teachers to rural schools than the rural allowance.

From the responses, generally most teachers rated rural allowance as more attractive than other incentives that are currently available in rural schools. This is evident from a greater percentage of rural teachers who disagreed that the outlined non-monetary incentives attract them to remain in the rural schools more than rural allowance.

#### **4.2.4** *Suggestions of teachers in rural schools on how best rural allowance can be used to improve staffing levels in rural primary schools*

Teachers in rural primary schools were asked to suggest what could be done on rural allowance scheme to make it more effective in retaining teachers in the rural schools. Since it was an open ended question, teachers came up with varying responses. All 250 questionnaires from teachers in the rural primary schools were selected for analysis. Only relevant themes were extracted from the responses and presented as follows:

**Table 4.4: Suggestions of teachers to improve retention power of rural allowance**

	<b>Suggestion</b>	<b>Frequency (f)</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
1	Increase rural allowance	163	65
2	All teachers in rural schools should receive rural allowance	29	12
3	Define the criteria for selecting beneficiary schools	10	04
4	Increase the number of beneficiaries	18	07
5	The allowance be paid fortnightly	10	04
6	Minimise delays in introducing new teachers on the scheme	10	04
7	Include PEAs on the rural allowance scheme	10	04

On what could be done to rural allowance scheme to improve its capability to retain and attract more teachers to rural schools, teachers strongly suggested an upward revision of the allowance. Table 4.4, Suggestion 1 shows that an overwhelming majority of teachers 163 (65%) proposed increasing the allowance. They only varied on how much the amount should be adjusted.

Few teachers 29 (12%) suggested that all schools that are located in the rural areas be considered for the scheme (Table 4.4, Suggestion 2). This group indicates that there are isolated cases of



deserving teachers in the rural schools who do not benefit from the scheme. Furthermore, 18 (07%) felt that the teachers who benefit from the scheme are relatively few and proposed an increase on the number of beneficiaries (Table 4.4, Suggestion 4).

Very few teachers suggested that the criteria for selecting beneficiary zones be made clear 10 (04%) (Table 4.4, Suggestion 3), the allowance be given fortnightly 10 (04%) (Table 4.4, Suggestion 5). Another group suggested that PEAs be considered for the allowance 10 (04%) (Table 4.4, Suggestion 7) and that the introduction of the new teachers be considered for the allowance in good time 10 (04%) (See Table 4.4, Suggestion 6).

#### **4.3 Presentation of data from teachers who do not receive rural allowance**

##### ***4.3.1 Biographical information of teachers in urban primary schools***

Background characteristics of teachers in urban primary schools are central determinants that shape the attitudes and perceptions of teachers towards various incentives as external motivators. These perceptions are fundamental in attracting teachers to certain environments. It is therefore important to know the background information of participant teachers in order explain their behaviour towards rural allowance as a pull factor designed to attract them into rural schools.

**Table 4.5: Background information of teachers from urban primary schools**

<b>Characteristic</b>		<b>Frequency (f)</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Sex.	Male	35	42.2
	Female	48	57.8
Age Range in years.	20-25	9	10.8
	26-30	21	25.3
	31-35	9	10.8
	36-40	11	13.3
	Over 40	33	39.8
Work experience.	Less than 5	28	33.7
	6-10	7	8.4
	11-15	9	10.8
	16-20	19	22.9
	21-25	15	18.1
	26-30	4	4.8
	30-35	0	0.0
	More than 35	1	1.2
Academic Qualifications.	JCE	10	12.0
	MSCE	73	88.0
	Diploma	0	0
	Degree	0	0

There were 83 primary school teachers not on rural allowance scheme who participated in the study, 48 female and 35 male teachers. Many female teachers in urban schools were selected to participate in the study since they were more than male teachers. This is in agreement with the

observation of Mulkeen (2005) that female teachers dominate male teachers in urban schools. The research grouped the sampled teachers from urban schools according to age ranges and the data reveals that teachers who participated were as follows: on the age groups 20-25 years and 31-35 years there were 9 teachers for each group representing 10.8%, and on age range of 26-30 years there were 21 participants which is 25.3% of the total number of participants in urban schools category. The age bracket of 36-40 years had 11 teachers 13.3%, while teachers who were over 40 years outnumbered all other groups with 33 participants standing for 39.8%. The results show that urban schools are dominated by old teachers who might have migrated from the rural schools.

Teachers in urban schools were also grouped according to work experience and it turned out that those who had worked for less than 5 years were 28 (33.7%), and 6-10 years were 7 (8.4%). The second largest group 19 (22.9%) had worked for 16-20 years, followed by another group 15 (18.1%) that had worked for 21-25 years. There were other respondents 9 (10.8%) who had been in the system for 11-15 years, while the others 4 (4.8%) had served for 26-30 years. The least represented groups was 1 (1.25%), a group that has contributed to education sector for more than 35 years. Teachers with 30-35 years' experience were not represented. Surprisingly, there are many less experienced teachers though by age, older teachers dominate the sample. The data may also reveal high voluntary attrition rate in urban schools as reflected by few teachers who have been in the system for over 26 years.

Another set of data was generated regarding the academic qualification of participants and it was found that there were 10 (12.0%) teachers who were holders of JCE, and the majority of teachers 73 (88.0%) were educated up to M.S.C.E level. There was no representation on any academic qualification above M.S.C.E level in urban schools.

**4.3.2 Hypothesis Two:** *Rural allowance attracts primary school teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District.*

This section responded to the second research question which reads as follows: *To what extent does rural allowance attract primary school teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District?*

**Table 4.6: The role of rural allowance on attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools**

ITEM	Responses									
	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1 I wish to be one of the beneficiaries of rural allowance.	5	6.0	1	1.2	4	4.8	12	14.5	61	73.5
2 Rural allowance is the major reason I would accept a posting to a school in remote area.	25	30.1	11	13.3	3	3.6	17	20.5	27	32.5
3 I would accept a posting to any rural school as long as there is rural allowance.	15	18.1	31	37.3	4	4.8	7	8.4	26	31.3
4 Rural allowance is the best strategy to improve staffing levels in rural schools.	18	21.7	11	13.3	8	9.6	20	24.1	26	31.3
5 Rural allowance would make me comfortable to teach in a rural school.	16	19.3	19	22.9	6	7.2	17	20.5	25	30.1

Selected primary school teachers in the urban were asked if they wish to be among the beneficiaries of rural allowance. Very few teachers 6 (7.2%) disagreed while the majority of respondents 73 (88%) agreed (Table 4.6, Item 1). This implies that many primary school teachers in urban schools in Salima district wish to benefit from the rural allowance initiative.

When asked if they consider rural allowance as the major reason they would accept a posting to a school in the remote area, some teachers 36 (43.4%) disagreed while 44 (53%) agreed (see Table 4.6, Item 2). This is an indication that the majority of teachers (53%) are potentially attracted by the allowance and given chance; they would transfer out in order to be on the scheme.

Related to the above question, the participants were asked if they would accept a posting to any rural school as long as there is rural allowance. This statement sounds the same as the above but it is different in that the preceding statement stresses the degree of importance attached to rural allowance. However, the two statements complement each other and this statement particularly affirms the stand in the preceding statement. Table 4.6, Item 3 shows that about 46 teachers 55.4% of the total sample disagreed, and 33 (39.7%) agreed. This is in slight contrast with the preceding question where those who agreed were slightly more than those who disagreed, which implies that there are few individuals with unstable opinion on the matter and can be influenced in either way. Regardless of the inconsistencies of the opinion, the data indicates significant levels of capacity of the allowance to elicit relocation of teachers in search of the allowance.

The study sought the opinion of teachers in urban schools if rural allowance is the best strategy to improve staffing levels in rural schools. A larger section of teachers 46 (55.4%) agreed compared with 29 (35%) who disagreed (Table 4.6, Item 4). Consistent with their opinion on transfers,

teachers continue to express that the allowance has some value and they consider it as the best approach to attract and retain more teachers in the rural schools.

On whether rural allowance would make them comfortable to teach in rural schools, 35 teachers representing 42.2% disagreed against 42 (50.6%) who agreed (see Table 4.6, Item 5). This is consistent with the 53% that agree that they consider rural allowance the major reason they would accept a posting to a rural school and confirms that the allowance has potential to attract a significant proportion of teachers from urban schools to rural schools.

**4.3.3 Hypothesis Four:** *Other incentives are a critical factor in attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District.*

The responses under this section were in line with research question number four which reads: *To what extent are other incentives a critical factor in attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools?*

**Table 4.7: Influence of other incentives on teacher attraction in comparison with rural allowance**

ITEM		Responses									
		Strongly disagree		Disagree		Unsure		Agree		Strongly agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	Availability of a staff house would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.	22	26.5	9	10.8	2	2.4	16	19.3	34	41.0
2	Availability of land for farming would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.	32	38.6	17	20.5	20	24.1	6	7.2	8	9.6
3	Availability of enough teaching and learning resources would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.	22	26.5	33	39.8	9	10.8	8	9.6	11	13.3
4	The hard working spirit of the teachers and pupils would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.	23	27.7	28	33.7	6	7.2	13	15.7	13	15.7
5	Good school management would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.	21	25.3	33	39.8	8	9.6	14	16.9	7	8.4
6	Good relationship with the PTA would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.	27	32.5	25	30.1	10	12.0	12	14.5	9	10.8

Teachers teaching in urban primary schools were asked if the availability of a decent house for accommodation would attract them to go to a rural school more than rural allowance. At least 31 (37.3%) disagreed while a good number of them 50 (60.3%) agreed (Table 4.7, Item 1). By implication, rural primary schools have poor housing conditions and most teachers are attracted to urban primary schools by better housing which, if provided in rural primary schools, would attract many of them than does the rural allowance.

Rural allowance was also compared with the availability of land for farming as regards attracting teachers from urban schools to rural schools. Table 4.7, Item 2 indicates that most teachers 49 (59.1%) disagreed with the statement that availability of land for farming would attract them to a rural primary school more than the rural allowance. Some teachers 14 (16.8%) agreed and 20 (24.1%) were unsure. This may mean that to most teachers in urban schools, farming is not a priority as such. They attribute less value to the presence of land for farming in as far as attracting them to rural schools is concerned.

The study also inquired from teachers in urban schools if availability of enough teaching and learning resources would attract them to a rural school more than the rural allowance. A majority of teachers 55 (66.3%) registered disagreement against 19 (22.9%) who agreed (Table 4.7, Item 3). It seems that there is no comparative advantage for urban schools over rural schools in terms of supply of teaching and learning materials.

Teachers were asked whether the hard working spirit of the teachers and pupils would attract them to go to rural primary school more than the rural allowance. Referring to Table 4.7, Item 4, many teachers 51 (61.4%) disagreed that the hardworking spirit would attract them more than the



rural allowance, while fewer teachers 26 (31.4%) agreed. These results indicate that work relations among teachers have less bearing on their attraction to their duty station when compared to rural allowance.

The research also found out the opinion of teachers in urban schools if good school management would attract them to go to a rural primary school more than the rural allowance. Most participants 54 (65.1%) disagreed, and another group of teachers, 21 (25.3%) agreed (Table 4.7, Item 5). This implies that the quality of school management has less influence on teachers' will to relocate to rural schools than the rural allowance.

Teachers were further asked if good relationship with PTA would attract them to go to a rural school more than rural allowance. Table 4.7, Item 6 shows that many teachers 52 (62.6%) disagreed while a few teachers 21 (25.3%) were in accord with the statement. It appears that quality of teacher-PTA relationship has a smaller impact on teacher attraction to rural schools than rural allowance.

#### **4.4 Chapter summary**

Chapter four has presented data reflecting responses of teachers in the rural and urban primary schools in eleven education zones of Salima District. The responses have been presented hypothesis by hypothesis, while reflecting on every research question being answered.

The next chapter brings forth the discussion of the results based on research hypotheses and research questions in the order they have been presented in chapter four. The chapter further presents challenges, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter is a discussion of major findings of the study. The discussion focuses on the findings in relation to the hypotheses, the research questions and the literature review. The chapter further presents conclusions and the recommendations for further research and improvement on the rural allowance scheme. The chapter first discusses the findings from rural primary schools and later discusses responses from urban primary schools in Salima District. The chapter also lays out a brief overview of the results by merging the opinion of teachers from both rural and urban schools to give a comparable perception.

#### 5.2 Discussion of findings in primary schools where teachers receive rural allowance

The study was designed to determine if rural allowance retains teachers in rural primary schools and further determine whether there are other incentives that play a complimentary role in retaining teachers in rural primary schools.

##### 5.2.1 Hypothesis One: *Rural allowance makes primary school teachers remain in rural primary schools of Salima District.*

The results in this study indicate that rural allowance retains a considerable proportion of teachers (46.4%) to rural schools (Table 4.2, Item 1). The results are in line with the assertion of Vegas and Umansky (2005) that teachers may respond to incentives by deciding to remain in rural schools depending on how the incentive has been designed and implemented. However, the strength of teacher retention may technically not be to the advantage of the policy target as the allowance does not motivate 48.8% of teachers (Table 4.2, Item 1).

The percentage of teachers who disagree that rural allowance does not motivate them is not clearly overwhelming. The opinion of teachers is balanced. With the current gravity of shortage of teachers in rural primary schools, there is need to retain almost all teachers currently located in the rural schools and attract some from urban schools, and deploy fresh graduates from TCCs. There is therefore, a need to make rural allowance retain in and attract as many teachers to rural schools.

The fact that 55.2% (see Table 4.2, Item 2) of teachers indicate that the allowance does not significantly reduce their problems may be a revelation that the allowance has potential to retain more teachers if revised to be valued by the beneficiaries. This is also evidenced by 89.6% (see Table 4.2, Item 5) of sampled teachers who indicated that they are not satisfied with the K10, 000. 00 allowance. Teachers in rural primary schools in Salima District share the view of critiques of hardship allowance in Lesotho that the allowance for teachers in rural schools is not enough as Mulkeen and Chen (2008) report. If recipients perceive the allowance as insignificant compensation, it cannot turn around negative perceptions of their work conditions to make them remain in rural primary schools.

It appears that the allowance is perceived to be of lower value by most teachers. This is the reason why 66.8% (see Table 4.2, Item 4) of teachers in rural primary schools disagree that rural allowance could influence them to leave a school with such an allowance for one without it. Consistent with Vegas and Umansky (2005) that teachers do not always respond to incentives as expected, a slight majority of teachers responded adversely to the expectations of rural allowance policy. On introducing the rural allowance, MoEST anticipated high morale in many teachers and that very few would wish to leave the rural schools. But there is a relatively greater majority of

teachers 48.8% (Table 4.2, Item 1) who indicate that the allowance does not motivate them, with 40% of the teachers (see Table 4.2, Item 3) indicating that other attractions retain them in rural school. There are indications that teachers would still migrate from rural to urban schools given that 66% (Table 4.2, Item 4) of teachers in rural schools registered that the allowance does not make them reject a posting to a non-recipient school.

There are various factors that may influence negative response from some teachers to rural allowance. The value of the allowance could be among the factors. According to Cowan (2010), dissatisfaction with an incentive emanates from compromised value attached to it. As per principles of the Three Cs Model, teachers view rural allowance as insufficient compensation for being exposed to harsh conditions in rural areas. Kamery (2004) supports this view with the Equity Theory and points out that workers compare their compensation to that of their colleagues and act to normalize the situation. It is evident that economic hardships teachers encounter in rural schools are so daunting and outweigh the allowance as compensation. However when compared with 10% retention rate in Gambia, Malawi's 46.4% retention rate in Salima district could be considered remarkable.

Devaluation of the currency may have affected the perceived value teachers attach to the allowance resulting in negative response from teachers. For instance, since the introduction of the allowance, the Malawi Kwacha devalued several times between 2010 and 2015 while the allowance had only been revised once. Such stagnation in revision of the allowance may have reduced its value and consequently, its significance. Thus, the stability of the currency determines its purchase power and depreciation reduces its worth as a compensation for working in areas with poor social amenities.

On a positive note, there seems to be high chances that rural allowance may retain more teachers than its current standing as it already outshines other incentives. This could be deduced from 46.8% (see Table 4.2, Item 3) of teachers who indicated that there are no other incentives other than rural allowance that can make them remain in the rural schools. The position 46.8% of teachers (Table 4.2, Item 3) confirms the stand of 46.4% of teachers who are motivated to remain in the rural schools as expressed in Table 4.2, Item 1.

Although this is the case, there was also a strong view (40% see Table 4.2, Item 3) that other incentives made teachers remain in rural schools. In other words, rural allowance is not the overriding factor for teachers to remain in rural schools. Furthermore, there were other strong views that rural allowance has not reduced the problems teachers face (48.8% see Table 4.2, Item 2). While 66.8% of teachers (Table 4.2, Item 4) were prepared to leave schools with rural allowance and an overwhelming 89.6% (Table 4.2, Item 5) are dissatisfied with the current allowance of K10,000. Given these views, the hypothesis that rural allowance makes primary school teachers remain in rural primary schools is rejected.

**5.2.2 Hypothesis Three:** *Other incentives are a critical factor in retaining teachers in rural primary schools in Salima District.*

A reflection on 40% (Table 4.2, Item 3) of teachers who indicate that other attractions other than rural allowance makes them remain in rural schools, shows that there could be other factors that are critical in teacher retention in rural schools. Miller (2012) alleges that relatively poor community amenities are often cited in surveys with rural administrators and teachers as significant barriers to teacher retention. Among the social amenities that are acknowledged to

attract teachers, is housing. Kayuni and Tambulasi (2007), and Devenport (1999), stipulate that housing has a stronger bearing on teacher retention than financial incentives. Mulkeen and Chen (2008) also identify housing as one of the most frequently used incentive to attract and retain employees to a particular setting. This study reveals that most teachers, 76.4% (Table 4.3, Item1) who teach in rural schools in Salima District, disagreed that staff housing made them remain in rural schools. This however, does not provide conclusive ground that the allowance is more significant. It rather reflects the situation of poor housing in rural schools. Akyeampong and Stephen (2002), Adedeji and Olaniyan (2011), Mulkeen (2005) and South African Council for Education (2011), observe that most rural schools are faced with the challenge of poor accommodation. Furthermore, Kadzamira (2006) acknowledges that housing creates difficulty in retaining teachers in rural schools in Malawi.

For Malawi, rural areas are associated with farming, and the availability of land is expected to potentially retain teachers who are interested in agribusiness. However, when compared with rural allowance, the availability of land for farming accounts for only 22.8% (see Table 4.3, Item 2) teacher retention in rural schools. The majority of teachers 69.6% (see Table 4.3, Item 2) value the allowance more than the land. The most extensively grown cash crop in Salima District is cotton. However, currently the crop fetches relatively low price on the market and teachers who are interested in farming for business are left with fewer options of generating extra income. Lack of interest in farm land could also be attributed to the attitude of some teachers that they cannot be farmers while they are in a white collar job, teaching. This attitude may also make teachers feel that farming is for the less educated.

The results also demonstrate that the availability of teaching and learning resources in rural

primary schools play a little role in retaining teachers. This comes out clear as 74% of the teachers (see Table 4.3, Item 3) declare that availability of enough teaching and learning materials does not make them remain in the rural primary schools. Teaching and learning materials for primary schools in Malawi are distributed from the central government pool based on school enrollment. Therefore, there may be insignificant differences in the availability of materials between urban and rural schools, to create skewed preference in teachers for such dichotomous settings. It is not clear if teaching and learning materials were in abundance in the rural schools, would retain teachers since this depends on whether teachers are result or money oriented. In the case where teachers desperately need money to solve their personal problems, the availability of teaching and learning materials would not matter.

A substantial percentage (49.6%) of teachers (Table 4.3, Item 4) disagreed that the hardworking spirit of teachers and students made them remain in the rural schools. This is a complex situation as the hard working spirit of pupils and teachers in schools should be paramount to teachers and all stakeholders since it reflects the spirit of striving to succeed. If teachers indicate that the hardworking spirit does not attract them, it may indicate either the absence of such hardworking spirit in rural schools, or teachers themselves do not mind about hard work. It is however, encouraging to note that 37.6% (Table 4.3, Item 4) of teachers in rural schools register that hardworking spirit of teachers and pupils encourage them to remain in rural schools. These teachers demonstrate patriotism and selfless desire to produce results regardless of hardships associated with the schools.

Simon and Johnson (2013) assert that school leadership and relationships predict teacher retention. In the lenses of Simon and Johnson (2013), poor leadership and relationships in schools

scare away teachers. Table 4.3, Item 5 indicates that 50% of the teachers disagreed, and 32% agreed that good management made them remain in rural schools in Salima district. Furthermore, findings reveal that 61.2% of teachers disagreed that teacher-PTA relationship made them remain in the rural primary schools. The findings could mean that teachers are more concerned with personal welfare and satisfaction of family needs that require money than work relationships. The findings could also be a revelation that most teachers in schools are left out in decision making and they feel detached from the team that runs the school. This makes it difficult for a teacher to contribute in decision making. In addition, in an ideal situation, PTA and school management team operate hand in hand. Therefore, it is likely that if teachers are in bad terms with management, PTA is also rated negatively and this may explain why teachers are discontented with both. In such an environment, it may prove futile to control teacher migration from rural to urban primary school. This is because teachers may leave when they encounter schools that lack professional support, with poor administration and discipline as Akram and Bilal (2013) put it.

The views of teachers in Table 4.3 were almost unanimous in disagreeing that there were other incentives that made them remain in rural schools. What is not clear is whether the respondents disagreed because either the incentives are available or not. For example, a professional teacher would be happy to teach in a school that has adequate teaching resources, and they would probably remain in such a school. But in the case of many schools, it is unlikely that a school in a rural setting would have adequate teaching and learning resources. In this regard, teachers disagreed with the lack of such incentives. In view of the assumption that other incentives do not exist in rural schools, the hypothesis that other incentives are a critical factor in retaining teachers in rural primary schools is thus rejected.



### *5.2.3 Suggestions of teachers in rural primary schools on how best rural allowance can be used to improve staffing levels in rural schools*

Most teachers in rural schools 65% (Table 4.4, Suggestion 1) propose that the rural allowance should be increased, indicative of the fact that the allowance is not enough. This is in agreement with what was expressed in Table 4.2, Item 5 where 89% of the teachers in rural schools indicated that K10, 000 is not adequate compensation. A similar observation was also made in Lesotho where Mulkeen and Chen (2008) report complaints from the public that 275 Maloti is not enough as an incentive to keep teachers in the mountainous regions. This could create difficulty to induce migration of teachers from urban to rural primary schools as teachers from the urban schools are likely to have the same interest.

Although strong arguments have been made that rural allowance is not enough, it is not clear how much allowance would satisfy everyone. It is thus unlikely that a teacher in an urban school would move to a rural school because rural allowance has been increased, given the many social amenities they are enjoying in urban areas. It would appear that in addition to increasing the rural allowance, additional incentives in rural schools should be put in place. It is surprising that teachers in rural schools did not suggest in a convincing manner, any other way of improving the rural allowance scheme. This may be a result of apathy in that even if they suggested, their ideas may not be taken seriously.

### **5.3 Discussion of findings in urban primary schools where teachers do not receive rural allowance.**

The findings discussed in this section represent the opinion of teachers teaching in urban primary

schools in Salima District. The findings were sourced using a questionnaire which assessed if rural allowance makes teachers in urban primary schools migrate to rural primary schools.

**5.3.1 Hypothesis Two: *Rural allowance attracts primary school teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District.***

MoEST in Malawi introduced rural allowance as a pull factor in rural primary schools to attract more teachers from urban primary schools. The incentive was expected to be a compensation that modifies the perception of teachers and make them disregard the negatives of teaching in the rural schools. The rural allowance as a compensation should outweigh the negatives associated with living in the rural area so that it attracts many teachers from urban schools.

The study reveals that rural allowance has the potential to attract teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima district. The majority of teachers in urban schools wish to be the beneficiaries of the allowance which is an indication that they do recognize the incentive. If 88% (see Table 4.6, item 1) of sampled urban teachers expressed interest to be on rural allowance scheme, the understanding is that they are interested in receiving rural allowance, which means that they can go to rural schools. Table 4.6, item 2 indicates that 53% of the same teachers consider the allowance as the major reason they would relocate to schools in the remote location. Attracting such proportion of teachers is a significant step and could increase staffing levels in rural schools. These statistics are much higher than in countries such as Gambia, where success in attracting teachers to rural schools using monetary incentives has been registered. According to Mulkeen (2010), Gambia is on success record with hardship allowance which increased staffing level in rural schools by 10%.

It however appears that a considerable number of teachers 43.4% (see Table 4.6, Item 2) do not consider the allowance as the major reason for them to move to schools located in the rural area. Furthermore, some teachers 55.4% (Table 4.6, Item 3) indicate that they cannot accept a posting to rural schools on condition of benefitting from the allowance only. These statistics also imply that a section of teachers either have other incentives in mind which would attract them to the point of accepting a posting to rural schools, or would like to have other conditions in rural schools addressed in addition to the allowance. Going by the principles in the Three Cs model, teachers weigh the allowance against the hardships of teaching in rural schools and decide whether to relocate or not.

Despite some teachers declaring resistance to accept a posting to rural schools in pursuit of the allowance, it is encouraging to note that 55.4% (Table 4.6, Item 4) of teachers consider rural allowance the best strategy to improve staffing levels in rural schools. This group agrees with 53% of the teachers (Table 4.6, item 2), that considers the allowance as the major reason they would wish to relocate to schools in the remote location. The group also agrees with 50.6% (Table 4.6, Item 5) of teachers who declare that they would feel comfortable in rural schools because of rural allowance. The statistics could be an indication that rural allowance attracts above 50% of the teachers from urban to rural primary schools.

It should however, be pointed out that in addition to 55.4% of teachers who would not accept to go to a rural school on account of rural allowance, significant percentages in other statements supported this view. For instance, 35% of teachers (see Table 4.6, Item 4) disagreed that rural allowance is the best strategy. Furthermore, 42.4% of the teachers (see Table 4.6, Item 5) disagreed that rural allowance would make them comfortable to teach in a rural school. In general

terms, it seems teachers in urban schools attach some value to rural allowance, but a significant others do not. But based on the statistical evidence, the hypothesis that rural allowance attracts primary school teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District is valid.

It is important to note that some urban school teachers may have responded to these questions without adequate information about the state of staff housing in rural schools, the buying power of the allowance and the availability of teaching and learning resources. If the teachers had known in clear terms that housing and teaching and learning resources are poor, and that the allowance is almost valueless, they would have been more categorical in their responses. It is also possible that teachers who are willing to go to rural schools are attracted not only by the allowance but also by other opportunities they may be seeing in the rural locations.

**5.3.2 *Hypothesis Four:*** *Other incentives are a critical factor in attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District.*

Rural allowance seems to influence greater attraction of teachers to rural schools than any of the possible attractions it was compared with, except housing. The majority of teachers 60.3% (Table 4.7, Item 1) in urban schools of Salima District indicated that staff housing would attract them to rural schools more than rural allowance. This is consistent with the findings of Adedeji and Oleniyan (2011) that housing is the major incentive for teachers located in rural areas. Kadzamira (2006), Wallace & Sartono (2010) share the view that poor housing is the major push factor for teachers in rural schools. Blending rural allowance with appropriate staff housing would make a strong pull factor that could attract many teachers from urban to rural primary schools.

Many teachers 59.1% (See Table 4.7, item 2) from urban primary schools registered that they would not be attracted to the rural area by land for farming more than does rural allowance. The majority sees no big significance in farming and would not be attracted to remote schools by the farm land more than rural allowance. Teachers in urban schools may lack interest in farming which could be attributed to the attitude of teachers that farming does not suit their white collar job. The findings may also reflect the absence of entrepreneurial attitude in teachers which makes them fail to venture into farming as an additional source of income.

Kadzamira (2006) claims that availability of teaching and learning materials determines the level of morale in teachers. She thinks that when teaching and learning materials are available, teachers are attracted to the school. Contrary to the claim of Kadzamira (2006), 56.3% (Table 4.7, Item 3) of teachers in urban primary schools in Salima District feel that availability of teaching and learning resources would not make them relocate to rural school. Teaching and learning resources in Malawi are distributed from supplies unit into schools based on enrolment. This means that there are minor differences in availability of the resources among schools as such; teachers find the situation to be the same in the rural and urban schools.

Surprisingly, there seems to be a common stand in teachers from both urban and rural primary schools on working spirit of the teacher and students, schools management and relationship with PTA. Teachers in both schools generally express low rating on these parameters when compared with rural allowance. For instance, the hardworking spirit of teachers and students registered 61.4% disagreement (Table 4.7, Item 4) on whether it would attract teachers from urban to rural primary schools. This may demonstrate lack of concern for commitment to improve quality of teaching and learning on the part of teachers which is a recipe for good academic performance.

Wallace and Sartono (2010) believe that good school management would attract teachers to schools. However, findings demonstrate the contrary as 65.1% of teachers in urban primary schools (Table 4.7, Item 5) declare that good school management would not attract them to rural schools. While 62.6% (Table 4.7, Item 6) of teachers in urban primary schools have an opinion that relationship with PTA would not make them migrate to rural schools. These findings collaborate with the findings in rural primary schools where the majority of teachers expressed that school management and good relationship with PTA, do not retain them. The findings can as well be attributed to lack of participation by teachers in school decision making which makes them feel that school management is none of their business. The findings can as well signify lack of concern on the part of most teachers for relationships and school administration.

Though most factors outlined in the study seem not to attract teachers from urban to rural primary schools, housing features highly as a potential factor for attracting teachers. This is the basis for accepting hypothesis number four that; other incentives are a critical factor in attracting teachers from urban to rural primary schools in Salima District. Imploring Equity theory, the findings suggest that after comparing rural allowance with other incentives, teachers find other incentives such as housing to be more valuable. Since rural allowance also demonstrated to attract a significant number of teachers (Table 4.6), blending the allowance with housing would effectively stimulate the working conditions in rural primary schools. Thus the blend would make a better compensation.

#### **5.4 Recommendations of the Study**

Based on the findings, recommendations pertaining to both further research and alteration of the rural allowance scheme for the prospects of improving the capacity of the allowance to retain and attract teachers to rural schools were made. These recommendations are as follows;

- (a) The allowance should be revised in response to economic changes. The upward revision of the allowance, especially when the currency depreciates, will assist to maintain the perceived value of the monetary incentive. Devaluation of currency results in upward adjustment of prices for commodities which in turn affects the purchasing power of the money. Therefore, upward adjustment of the allowance in response to currency devaluation is necessary in order to maintain its purchasing power and help in retaining teachers in and attracting teachers to rural schools.
  
- (b) The allowance must be blended with non-monetary incentives such as housing. Currently, it appears that rural schools face housing challenges that scare away teachers regardless of introducing rural allowance. Housing has been singled out by respondents in this study as a critical factor for teacher retention in and attraction to rural schools. Kadzamira (2006) also supports the view that housing stands out as a significant incentive for teacher retention in rural schools.
  
- (c) There is need to scale-up the study to national level in order to get a broader perspective of teachers' views and impact of the allowance on teachers retention and attraction to rural schools. This study was conducted only in one of the twenty eight districts of Malawi. Therefore, it might be unjustifiable to generalize the results to national level since the

districts lack socio-economic homogeneity that affects teachers' perception. The national level study will accommodate diverse opinions from teachers with varying social backgrounds.

### **5.5 Limitations faced in the study**

There were a number of challenges faced during various stages of the research process, from literature review through data collection to data analysis. Some of the critical limitations were dealt with in the course of the research while others still affected some sections of the study and are shared in this paper.

- (a) The information regarding how rural allowance was conceived before implementation of the programme is scarce and not available at various levels of MoEST. With the absence of this information it was very difficult to produce comprehensive background information regarding the conceptualization of the rural allowance scheme in Malawi.
- (b) The study did not come across any known published research on the rural allowance scheme in Malawi since its inception in 2010, as such; there was no previous research base for the study.
- (c) The data collection process for the study was smooth except in some cases where participants refused to respond to the questionnaires demanding payment for the information to be collected.



(d) The process was also hampered by inaccessibility of some schools as data collection was done during the rainy season. For instance, schools in Kanongola Zone did not participate in the study as the place was not easily accessible by the researcher due to heavy flooding in the area.

## **5.6 Chapter Summary**

The study sought to find out the impact of rural allowance on retention and attraction of teachers to rural primary schools. The research revealed that rural allowance could attract a considerable number of teachers from urban primary schools and retain some teachers in rural primary schools. However, some conditions within and outside the education system hinder teacher migration from urban to rural primary schools, in response to the provision of the allowance. The system has no proper mechanisms which could encourage teachers who are attracted by the allowance to relocate from urban to rural schools. The provision of the allowance should be responsive to fluctuating economic conditions to cater for changing prices of goods and services.

The study also revealed that there are other incentives such as housing, which have strong influence on teacher attraction and retention to rural primary schools. This provides ground for the researcher to suggest that blending rural allowance with other incentives would elicit improved teacher attraction and retention in rural schools.

## **5.7 Concluding Remarks**

In this research, an attempt has been made to interrogate the impact of monetary incentives on teacher retention in and attraction to rural primary schools in Salima district. It has been

established that rural allowance is not the overriding attraction that would make teachers remain in rural schools.

It was also established that rural allowance attracts some teachers in urban schools to go to rural schools. This may be because teachers in urban schools are not fully aware of the hardships the rural environments can present.

Although teachers in urban schools are willing to move to rural schools, they also indicated that rural schools would be much more attractive if they had other accompanying incentives such as decent staff housing. Teachers in rural schools shared the same sentiments.

The concerns of teachers in both urban and rural schools are true. However, one cannot fail to question the spirit of sacrifice they ought to display if they are indeed patriotic. By the way, President Peter Mutharika keeps on reminding us that we should love and be ready to serve our country-Malawi. The words of Nelson (n.d) come to mind that “the ultimate test of man’s conscience may be his willingness to do something today for future generations, whose words of thanks will not be heard”. It is not too much to expect teachers in urban and rural schools to take heed of these wise sentiments.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1:

#### CONCENT LETTER TO TEACHERS

**TITLE OF STUDY: IMPACT OF MONETARY INCENTIVES ON TEACHER RETENTION AND ATTRACTION TO RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS: CASE OF RURAL ALLOWANCE IN SALIMA DISTRICT.**

Dear Respondent,

You have been selected to participate in the above indicated study, which is being done in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Masters of Education in Educational Leadership and Management offered at Mzuzu University. I therefore kindly request you to take part in this study.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to solicit information on views of primary school teachers in Salima about **Rural Allowance**. Please rest assured that the information you will provide will be used for academic purposes only and will be used with highest confidentiality.

I appreciate your participation in this study.

Denis Beneka Mwenda

**Consent of the participant in the study**

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(Signature of respondent)



## APPENDIX 2:

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS TEACHING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS WHICH RECEIVE RURAL ALLOWANCE

#### SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

**Instruction:** Tick against the appropriate biographical information indicated below:

1. Your gender	
Male [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	Female [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
2. Your age range	
20-25 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	26-35 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
36-40 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	Over 40 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
3. Your work experience	
Less than 5 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	6 – 10 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
11 – 15 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	16 – 20 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
21 – 25 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	26 – 30 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
31 – 35 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	More than 35 years [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]
4. Your highest qualification: J.C.E. [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] M.S.C.E. [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] Diploma [ <input type="checkbox"/> ] Degree [ <input type="checkbox"/> ]	

#### SECTION B: RETENTION OF TEACHERS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

**Instruction:** Using the key given below, tick the alternative that best fits your opinion on the influence of rural allowance on your stay in the rural schools as follows:

**Strongly Disagree =SD, Disagree =D, Unsure=U, Agree =A, Strongly Agree =SA**

	<b>Influence of rural allowance on retention of teachers to rural primary schools</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
<b>5</b>	Rural allowance motivates me to remain at my current school.					
<b>6</b>	Rural allowance has reduced the problems I face at my work place.					
	Other attractions other than rural allowance make me remain in my current rural school.					
<b>7</b>	Rural allowance make me not accept a posting to another school that does not receive rural allowance.					
<b>8</b>	I am satisfied with K10, 000 as an incentive to make me remain in a rural school.					

**SECTION C: OTHER ATTRACTIONS OF TEACHERS TO REMAIN IN RURAL SCHOOLS**

Using the key given below, tick the alternative that best fits your opinion on other incentives other than rural allowance that attract teachers to remain in rural school as follows:

**Strongly Disagree =SD, Disagree =D, Unsure=U, Agree =A, Strongly Agree =SA**

	<b>Other incentives</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
<b>9</b>	Availability of a staff house makes me remain in a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>10.</b>	Availability of land for farming makes me remain in a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>11.</b>	Availability of enough teaching and learning resources makes me remain in a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>12.</b>	The hard working spirit of the teachers and pupils makes me remain in a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>13.</b>	Good school management makes me remain in a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>14.</b>	Good relationship with the PTA makes me remain in a rural school more than rural allowance.					

**SECTION D: SUGGESTIONS OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TEACHING IN  
RURAL SCHOOLS ON IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL ALLOWANCE SCHEME**

**15.** What should government do to improve the rural allowance scheme so that more teachers are attracted to and retained in rural schools? (Write as many points as you can).

**APPENDIX 3:**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS TEACHING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS WHICH  
ARE NOT ON RURAL ALLOWANCE SCHEME IN SALIMA DISTRICT**

**SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

Instruction: Tick against the appropriate biographical information indicated below:

1. Your gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Your age range 20-25 years [ ]                      26-35 years [ ] 36-40 years [ ]                      Over 40 years [ ]
3. Your work experience Less than 5 years [ ]                      6 – 10 years [ ] 11 – 15 years [ ]                      16 – 20 years [ ] 21 – 25 years [ ]                      26 – 30 years [ ] 31 – 35 years [ ]                      More than 35 years [ ]
4. Your highest qualification: J.C.E. [ ] M.S.C.E. [ ] Diploma [ ] Degree [ ]

**SECTION B: ATTRACTION OF TEACHERS FROM URBAN TO RURAL SCHOOLS**

Using the key given below, choose or tick the right alternative that fits your opinion on the influence of rural allowance on your attraction to the rural school as follows:

**Strongly Disagree =SD, Disagree =D, Unsure= U, Agree =A, Strongly Agree =SA**

	<b>Influence of rural allowance on attracting teachers to rural schools</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
<b>5</b>	I wish to be one of the beneficiaries of rural allowance.					
<b>6</b>	Rural allowance is the major reason I would accept a posting to a school in the remote area.					
<b>7</b>	I would accept a posting to any rural school as long as there is rural allowance.					
<b>8</b>	Rural allowance is the best strategy to improve staffing levels in rural schools.					
<b>9</b>	Rural allowance would make me comfortable to teach in a rural school.					

**SECTION C: OTHER ATTRACTIONS OF TEACHERS TO RURAL SCHOOLS**

Using the key given below, tick the alternative that best fits your opinion on other incentives other than rural allowance that may attract teachers from urban to rural schools as follows:

**Strongly Disagree =SD, Disagree =D, Unsure=U, Agree =A, Strongly Agree =SA**

	<b>Other incentives</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
<b>10.</b>	Availability of a staff house would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>11.</b>	Availability of land for farming would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>12.</b>	Availability of enough teaching and learning resources would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>13.</b>	The hard working spirit of the teachers and pupils would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>14.</b>	Good school management would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.					
<b>15.</b>	Good relationship with the PTA would attract me to go to a rural school more than rural allowance.					

**I thank you for participating in this study**

**APPENDIX 4:**

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO EDM AND DEM FROM MZUZU UNIVERSITY  
RESEARCH COMMITTEE**

Dear Sir,

**PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA FROM THE LISTED PRIMARY  
EDUCATIONAL ZONES IN SALIMA**

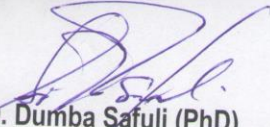
I am writing on behalf of the Dean of Education of Mzuzu University seeking permission for **Mr. Denis Mwenda** who is our Master of Education (MEd.) Degree student here at Mzuzu University. Mr. Mwenda has finished **Phase One** of his programme and is in **Phase Two** which requires him to conduct a research study which will be followed by Thesis writing.

Mr. Mwenda has chosen to conduct his research using some of the schools in the Primary Educational Zones listed above and is asking your office to grant him permission to use the schools to collect his research data.

On behalf of the University Registrar, the Dean of Education and on my own behalf I would like to thank you for the assistance you will provide to Mr. Mwenda

By copy of this letter The Primary Education Advisors in the Zones listed above and The District Education Manager for Salima District are being requested to take note of the development and to assist Mr. Mwenda in his work of data collection.

Yours Sincerely,

  
**Sam D. Dumba Safuli (PhD)**  
**COORDINATOR MED. PROGRAMME**

Cc: The University Registrar,  
The Dean of Education  
The Head, Education and Teaching Studies Department



**APPENDIX 5:**

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO PEAs FROM DEM**

REF NO: SA/DEM/9/1/VOLV

20/10/14


FROM : THE DISTRICT EDUCATION MANAGER,  
P.O BOX 98,  
SALIMA

TO : WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

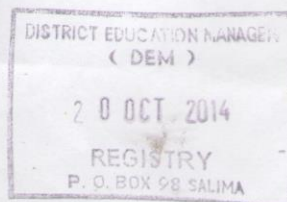
**INTRODUCTORY LETTER: DENIS MWENDA**

The bearer of this letter is a Master of Education Degree student at Mzuzu University. He has been granted authority come to your zone to collect research data from your schools as per attached letter.

Please assist him accordingly.

  
E Malongo

For: **DISTRICT EDUCATION MANAGER**



**APPENDIX 6:**

**PARTICIPANT IDENTIFICATION FORM**

RESEARCH TITLE: IMPACT OF MONETARY INCENTIVES ON TEACHER RETENTION  
AND ATTRACTION TO RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS: CASE OF RURAL ALLOWANCE  
IN SALIMA DISTRICT

Name of Education Zone \_\_\_\_\_

Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_

No	Names of male teachers	Serial No	No	Names of Female teachers	Serial No
1			1		
2			2		
3			3		
4			4		
5			5		
6			6		
7			7		
8			8		
9			9		
10			10		
11			11		
12			12		
13			13		
14			14		

Signature of the head teacher: \_\_\_\_\_