

**Motivational Strategies for Teacher Retention in the Rural Junior High Schools
in the Jirapa District of The Upper West Region of Ghana**

Eliasu Alhassan

Department of Social Political & Historical Studies
University for Development Studies, Wa Campus, Ghana

aeliasu@uds.edu.gh

&

Libanus Susan

Ghana Education Service
Wa Municipality, Upper West Region, Ghana

Libanus20015@gmail.com

Abstract

Motivation propels teacher retention in rural areas of Ghana according to Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015. The paper examines how motivational strategies retain teachers in the rural JHSs in the Jirapa district of the Upper West Region of Ghana. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory and Alderfer's ERG theory anchored this study. Cross-sectional design, Simple random, cluster and purposive sampling were used to select the 142 respondents at different levels and questionnaires were used to collect the quantitative data whilst semi-structured interview schedules and interview guide were used for the qualitative data. The quantitative data were analyzed with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and presented in frequencies and percentages whilst the qualitative data were used to support the quantitative data in many cases. The study found that recruitment of rural teachers from rural areas to teach in the rural areas in the district does not retain teachers in rural areas. It is therefore a weak strategy, whilst enhancement in study leave and sponsorship programmes, enhancement of teachers' accommodation and improvement in social amenities in rural areas were effective strategies by which teachers are retained in the rural areas in the Jirapa District. Contrary, the study further found that poor training of teachers and lack of promotion opportunities for teachers, poor and inadequate accommodation and poor social amenities in rural areas affected teacher motivation which made many teachers lived outside the communities they teach and commuted 5-7 and more kilometers daily to teach in their respective schools. Notwithstanding, the study revealed that motivation enhanced teacher attraction and retention, improved performance and reduced teachers' absenteeism. Inadequate funds, corruption and politicization of posting of professional teacher were identified as teacher motivational challenges. It can, therefore, be said that, lack of targeting, enforcement and adequate motivation for the rural teachers perpetuated the teacher retention challenges

requiring government to target, enforce and provide adequate motivational policies to retain trained teachers in rural JHSs in the Jirapa district of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

Keywords: Motivation, Strategies, Retention, recruitment and Teacher.

Background

The paper is structured around the background, theoretical bases of the study which include Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth needs theory. It also structured around the methodology, findings and discussions as well as conclusions and recommendation. Education is the key to the development of skilled workforce of any nation. It is critical and important to restore long-term growth tackling illiteracy, unemployment, inequality, poverty and promoting cohesive societies and for this to be achieved, education must offer equal opportunities for both urban and rural people (OECD, 2014).

Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2015) explained that the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) adopted in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990 mandated countries to vigorously develop and implement policies on education. The report further explained that universal access to primary education became the foundation for developing the individual; therefore, in 2000, the World Education Forum adopted the Dakar Framework for Action that is **Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments**. This was for participants to reaffirm their commitment to the World Declaration on Education for All adopted in 1990 (Education for All Global Monitoring Report, 2015).

UNDP statistics cited in Segun and Olanrewaju (2011) explained that nowhere in the world do teachers work in more challenging circumstances than in African rural areas and that sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) would have increased its rural population from approximately 470 million in 2005 to 552 million in 2015. Educating this large population on the continent requires motivating teachers to attract and retain them in rural areas (Segun and Olanrewaju, 2011).

Despite the increase in pupils' enrolment in Africa, there is still a shortage of 1.6 million trained teachers which can increase to 3.8 million, if teacher retirements are taken into consideration (Segun and Olanrewaju, 2011). These authors noted that trained teacher shortages are more severe in African countries, and collectively, they will need to raise their stock of teachers from 2.4 million in 2006 to 4 million, so that every child whether rural or urban will be covered by adequate numbers of trained teachers.

Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2015) further explained that worldwide, primary education systems employed more than 29 million teachers in 2012, with 82% of that in developing countries. The total primary teaching staff increased by 17% between 1999 and 2012, or by about 4 million teachers. The largest increase occurred in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States and yet 23.9 million teachers are required between 2012 and 2030 across the world. The need for trained teachers in rural areas is not about just the numbers but equally important in ensuring that they are motivated and retained in rural areas. Well motivated teachers will be willing to be posted and be retained in rural areas where their services are most needed. The shortage and inequality in trained and experienced teacher

deployment is not confined to only rural areas of Ghana alone but in South African, Mexico and other countries across the world (Education for All Global Monitoring Report, 2015).

There can be several educational reforms and policy interventions but if these are not teacher, centered to promote a high sense of teacher motivation, dedication and commitment to duty, the issue of teacher attraction and retention in the rural areas will not be achieved. It is argued that the Ghanaian rural teacher today is grappling with many motivational challenges which adversely affect them to accept postings to rural areas (GES, 2014). The challenges facing teachers who teach in rural areas of the Jirapa district present a particularly difficult situation for teachers. The poor social amenities, poor and inadequate teachers' accommodation, poor further training and promotion opportunities, inadequate job opportunities, poor occupational recognition and status, poor working and living conditions and the poor community support in rural areas of the district affect teacher retention and influence teachers' experience as educators which hurts students' learning.

Global Campaign for Education (2012) said the right to education in rural areas cannot be realised without motivated trained teachers and yet, there exist these crucial motivational gaps of teachers for retention in rural areas of the district. Why has the rise in enrolment in schools not led to same scale in teacher motivation in rural areas? So what has gone wrong? The paper believed that if governments and all stakeholders do not develop, implement and properly finance the right policies on teacher motivation, then we can never achieve Education for All, and this is non-negotiable.

The fundamental reason for the gap in quality education between urban and rural areas is the severe lack of motivated trained teachers. It is the presence of quality teachers that determines whether children have learnt and how many children have learnt. The author explained that there is ample evidence that having enough teachers to avoid large class sizes is a strong determinant of students learning.

The importance of teachers is recognized by parents, learners, education specialists and governments yet huge gaps in the trained teachers and their motivation in rural areas remained unaddressed. Despite the efforts of both developed and developing countries' governments efforts such as the International Task Force on Teachers for EFA established in 2009 in recognition of the trained teacher crisis, we are still millions of teachers away from guaranteeing sufficient trained teachers for all children. The author explained that UNESCO Institute for Statistics estimates that more than 1.7 million additional trained teachers are needed, irrespective of the gains in many countries in addressing the trained teachers' gap. The right to education necessarily implies both equity and quality: everyone has a right to education, and that education must amount to something substantial. One major way to guarantee this is to ensure that there are enough trained and motivated teachers for every child, and therefore, if the right to education is to mean anything at all, it must at least mean this (Global Campaign for Education, 2012).

Teachers are essential players in promoting quality education, whether in schools or at the community level since teachers are both the advocates for, and catalysts of change. Therefore, it is undeniable fact that the motivation of teachers for retention must take a center stage in any educational reform, if rural folks are to have universal and equal access to educational opportunities. Rural teachers should be respected and adequately motivated; have enhanced salaries, access to training for their professional development through

enhanced study leave and sponsorship programmes, access to decent accommodation, and have opportunities for social amenities and community support to participate locally and nationally in decisions affecting their professional lives and working environments (World Education Forum, 2000). This assertion was confirmed by Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2015) that teachers are the most critical resource in any level of education in every country. The presence of trained and motivated teachers is vital for students learning because teachers are the determinants of what and how much students achieve in school.

Theoretical Bases of the Study

The paper adopted Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory which is commonly depicted in a pyramid of five levels, with the bottom four consisting of basic needs and the topmost as higher needs (Rollinso, Broadfield and Edwards, 1999). The theory proposes the satisfaction-progression assumption of human needs if people are to be motivated (Crooks, 1997). One must satisfy lower level basic needs before progressing to meet higher level growth needs and may be able to reach the highest level called self-actualization. The desire to progress through Maslow hierarchy to the level of self-actualization is often disrupted by failure to meet lower level needs. Maslow acknowledged that only one person out of a hundred people reaches self-actualization (McLeod, 2007).

Redmond (2010) explained in relation to the theory that one of the strengths of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is its intuitive nature which creates the awareness of emotional differences among people. Every rural teacher has individual motivational needs which differ from person to person and even for an individual from time to time. This allows educational management to understand the flexible, individualized Maslow's theory as a dynamic way to motivating their rural teachers differently.

However, McLeod (2007) cited in Redmond (2010) re-enforces the weaknesses of the theory where it failed to point out that security service like police, military and fire service personnel risk or sacrifice their needs for the well-being of others, though they may not have satisfied their lower needs, thereby falsifying the theory. For example, the police are constantly under the attack from armed robbers yet they continue to provide security to the general public. Therefore, in rare circumstances, teachers can defy the norm and bypass one or more of these levels of needs to achieve higher ones. There is no clear evidence that human needs are classified in five distinct categories, or that these are structured in special hierarchy. Teacher needs are not rigidly ranked as Maslow postulated which management have to vary teachers' motivational packages to be responsive to each teacher's needs. Crooks (1997) said addressing the weaknesses in the Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory culminated in the modification of the theory to propound the Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory. These two theories were, therefore, used to guide the study of teacher motivational strategies in the Jirapa District of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory collapses Maslow's five level hierarchy of needs into three categories with Existence as the lowest, followed by Relatedness and Growth needs as the highest. The theory proposes both the satisfaction-progression assumption and the frustration-regression assumption. The satisfaction-progression assumption is of the view that when an individual progresses from existence

needs through relatedness needs to growth needs the individual experiences satisfaction. Contrary, the frustration-regression assumption is where a person (rural teachers) will reverse to a lower level need for satisfaction if the achievement of a higher need is frustrated (Crooks, 1997). The theory is of the view that employees including teachers do not need to satisfy completely lower level needs before pursuing higher level needs, since teachers have multiple needs that are both lower and higher order needs which they want to achieve concurrently to motivate them to be retained in rural areas (Redmond, 2010). Thus, the theory is more flexible and reflects the reality of how fluid needs emerge among rural teachers which require simultaneous redress to motivate them to be retained in rural areas in the Jirapa district. Wright and Noe (1996) noted that Alderfer's theory has greater empirical evidence than Maslow hierarchy of needs theory. The theory entreats management to simultaneously satisfy needs of teachers rather than focusing exclusively on a particular need at a time. So, needs should be satisfied in back and forth movement from one need to another (Redmond, 2010).

Methodology

The study was conducted in the Jirapa district of the Upper West Region of Ghana with about 85.6% of the population live in rural areas (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). The district has 38 public Junior High Schools clustered into 9 circuits with a total of 163 trained and 71 untrained teachers (District Education Office, 2015). The study adopted cross-sectional design to examine the motivational strategies for teacher retention in the rural JHSs in the Jirapa District of the Upper West Region of Ghana. Though the design is often associated with quantitative research, it does allow triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The design is cost effective as it requires no repeated data collection and tracking of respondents (Alhassan, 2012; deVaus, 2001).

Cluster sampling was used to group the various JHSs into nine clusters called circuits. From the circuits, each school was further considered as a cluster and four schools (clusters) sampled using simple random sampling technique. However, circuits with exactly four or less JHSs had all the schools sampled where a total of 35 schools were sampled. Cluster sampling is inexpensive (Alhassan, 2012) and for administrative convenience (Nsawah, 2005). Also, using simple random sampling, a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 4 trained teachers were selected from both urban and rural JHSs for their balanced views on the motivational needs. Seidu (2015) said this sampling is economical and unbiased for its equal chances given to respondents during the sampling process. A sample size of 142 was used for the study which comprised 122 trained teachers representing 75% of the total 163 trained teachers in the public Junior High Schools in the district. Despite the homogenous trained teachers' population, the 122 was chosen for representation purposes across the schools. The rest (20) of the sample were purposively selected as key informants for their in-depth information (Creswell, 2008 cited in Kusi, 2012). Furthermore, trained teachers were purposively selected due to the problem of retaining them in rural areas (Seniwoliba, 2013). The following table shows the breakdown of the sample size.

Table 1. The breakdown of sample size

TYPE OF RESPONDENTS	SAMPLE SIZE
An Official of the Regional Education Office	1
Jirapa District Director of Education	1
An Official of the Jirapa District Assembly	1
An official of World Vision	1
Circuit Supervisors	6
Head teachers or Headmistresses	10
Trained teachers	122
Total	142

Source: Fieldwork, 2016.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently within one month. Questionnaires were used to solicit mainly quantitative data and whilst semi-structure interview schedules and interview guide were used to collect qualitative data. Respondents were given the option to decline if they so wish. Research Assistants were identified in each circuit to collect the completed questionnaires for the researcher. Questionnaires allow for wider coverage, easy comparison of responses, anonymity and confidentiality of responses whilst semi-structured interview schedule allows flexibility in the interview process (Kusi, 2012). The quantitative data were analyzed using Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS) which generated the frequencies and percentages in tables whilst the qualitative data used to anchor the quantitative findings.

Findings and Discussions

The study showed that 11.5% of the respondents held teachers' certificate "A", 46.7% held diploma, 41.8% had first degree and no respondent had postgraduate degree. The 11.5% Certificate "A" category of teachers were gradually fading out since all the Colleges of Education were now diploma awarding institutions and the least entry certificate into teaching in the public sector was becoming a diploma. Also, the proliferation of tertiary institutions and the expansion of distance learning and sandwich courses by various tertiary institutions offered many certificate "A" and the diploma teachers the opportunity to upgrade. Unfortunately, when teachers obtain their degrees, they prefer teaching in Senior High Schools and working in the education offices to teaching in Junior High Schools. Confirming the study, one of the JHSs headmasters who now teaches at a Senior High School said:

"Education is a ladder where one moves through steps and hoping to reach the apex. Teachers who have acquired degrees, I don't think moving them from Junior High Schools to Senior High Schools affects teacher retention in rural areas at the Junior High level. There will be replacement for the vacancies created. However, it is not always a guarantee that all such vacancies will be replaced...."(Fieldwork, 2016).

The respondent at the beginning disagreed that the movement of degree teachers from Junior High School of rural areas to Senior High Schools does not negatively affect teacher retention in rural areas. However, he admitted not all such teaching vacancies will be replaced. Teachers who moved to Senior High Schools saw that to be an elevation as almost all the positions at this level they were privileged to be appointed to such as assistant headmasters, form masters, housemasters or mistresses, et cetera, attracts a monthly extra duty allowance on the said teachers' basic salary paid through Controller and Accountant General Department. Also, there is still teacher motivation allowance approved by government which is retained from the fees of students for all staff at the Senior High Schools as additional incomes. Unfortunately, only headmasters' or headmistresses' positions at the Junior High Schools are paid this extra duty allowance from government.

The Junior High Schools' assistant headmasters, form masters, library masters and other positions are not entitled to this extra duty allowance. It was explained that the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy had made students at the public JHSs not to pay fees aside levies approved by PTA. Therefore, teachers at the Junior High level are not privileged to this motivation allowance retained from the fees of students at the Senior High level. Until government provides such incentives at the Junior High level particularly for rural teachers, those with degree qualification would continue to prefer teaching at the Senior High level. The study confirmed Bennell and Acheampong (2007) who observed that training enhances the growth of employees since the teachers with degree preferred teaching at Senior High Schools to the Junior High Schools.

Coincidentally, none of the respondents held any postgraduate degree and the respondents might have left the rural schools or even the teaching profession for greener pastures. Also, the study revealed that when the respondents were asked about the number of years they served in their most recent rural school in the Jirapa district, 63.9% of the respondents served less than three years, 27.9% served 3-5 years, and 4.9% served 6-8 years whilst only 3.3% served above 9 years. Transfer of teachers contributed to this 63.9% of respondents serving less than three years in their most recent rural school. However, experienced teachers with social network would have lobby education authorities to transfer them to Jirapa town. This was in tandem with Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2015) finding that trained and experienced teachers preferred teaching in urban schools to rural ones.

When respondents were asked on the distance between where they stay to where they teach, 11.5% had their distance less than 3 kilometers, 15.6% of respondents had their distance to be between 3-5 kilometers, 26.2% of respondents distance was within 5-7 kilometers and 46.7% of respondents had their distance above 7 kilometers. This confirmed that 26.2% and 46.7% of rural teachers in the Jirapa district commuted 5-7 kilometers and above 7 kilometers distances respectively on a daily basis from different communities with majority from Jirapa town to their respective rural schools where they teach. Therefore, one can imagine the amount of money these teachers spend monthly on fuel alone, as the distances are so long become recipe for absenteeism. Not only were these teachers not paid maintenance allowances but the bureaucracies involved in accessing such allowance disqualified many teachers as a headmaster in an interview said:

Currently, the schools received application forms to fill for maintenance allowance to where you work. Meanwhile the criteria is too cumbersome, the teacher should have licensed the transport in his or her name and the said means of transport whether motorbike or car should be insured in the name of the teacher. These bureaucracies disqualified many teachers for this allowance and not even me as the headmaster. The process should have been made simple without these conditions, even though the license and insurance are necessary (Fieldwork, 2016).

As the teachers commute, what happens when there is a breakdown? The lack of maintenance allowance to support teachers to repair their own motorbikes reflected in the risky nature of the motorbikes that often resulted in breakdown. No doubt these teachers bear the brunt of fuel cost, repairs of their motorbikes and when there was a breakdown on the road, instructional time was wasted. Therefore, when any of these teachers had no money on any day particularly towards the end of the month, how can he or she afford fuel to go to school? It becomes a total absenteeism and until successive governments take teachers' motivation to be important, no amount of supervision could stop absenteeism. Despite the bureaucracy teachers complained about in accessing the allowance, such conditions were unavoidable once public funds were involved. The conditions became the standard and criteria for assessing and selecting qualified beneficiaries and even for accountability purposes. Otherwise some teachers would use other dubious means to benefit. The study confirmed Bennell and Acheampong (2007) who revealed that the long distances rural teachers commuted from towns to teach in these rural schools left them arrived late, tired and even missed their first lessons at school.

When respondents were asked whether they would prefer to remain and teach in rural areas, only 2.5% and 13.9% of the respondents chose strongly agree and agree respectively. Majority of 39.3% and 44.3% respondents chose disagree and strongly disagree respectively to remain to teach in rural areas and yet in their condition of service, they were to accept posting to anywhere their services were needed. If government had no deliberate and adequate motivational packages for rural teachers, what do you expect? More teachers would continue to lobby and bribe their way into already choked urban schools in Jirapa town leaving the rural schools vacant. The study confirmed Segun and Olanrewaju (2011) that urban schools were choked with trained teachers who were underemployed whilst rural schools had inadequate trained teachers.

Table 2 Motivational Strategies for Retention in the JHSs of Rural Areas in the Jirapa District.

MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES	TEACHER RETENTION				TOTAL	Frequency	%
	STRONG	FAIR	WEAK				
		(%)					
Enhancement in salary linked with qualification	86.9%	9%	4.1%	122	100		
Enhancement in study leave and sponsorship	87.7%	8.2%	4.2%	122	100		
Improvement in further training and promotion	89.4%	7.4%	3.3%	122	100		
Enhancement of teachers' accommodation	89.3%	4.1%	6.5%	122	100		
Recruitment of rural teachers from rural areas	27%	28.7%	44.3%	122	100		
Enhancement in community participation in school management	81.2%	10.7%	8.2%	122	100		
Improvement in social amenities	89.3%	7.4%	3.2%	122	100		

Source: Fieldwork 2016

Table 2 shows motivational strategies for retention of teachers in the rural JHS. It can be seen that enhancement of salaries linked with qualification was one fundamental motivational strategy for the retention of teachers in rural areas of the Jirapa district. The study revealed 86.9% of the respondents deemed the strategy strong, 9% of the respondents noted it to be fair and 4.1% of the respondents said it was weak in motivating teachers to be retained in rural areas. The 86.9% endorsement signified that salary is the basic source of livelihood. A headmaster in an interview said:

If rural teachers are paid rural allowance in addition to the salary monthly through Controller and Accountant General Department, teachers including me will be willing to stay in rural areas (Fieldwork, 2016).

This was particularly important where secondary jobs besides farming that could complement the monthly earnings of teachers in rural areas were not easily available, leaving the expenditure of rural teachers on the salary alone. As such, raising the salary scale through rural allowance for rural teachers would have retained the teachers.

Respondents were asked whether GES salary was linked to qualifications except masters' degree, 41.8% respondents strongly agreed, 36.9% agreed, 15.6% disagreed and 5.7% strongly disagreed. The 41.8% and 36.9% of respondents agreeing means they believed that GES salary scale was linked to qualification except masters' degree. The highest certificate with salary scale in GES was first degree as a circuit supervisor in an interview who remarked:

GES has no salary scale for Masters' degree except that if you hold that qualification particularly in Education related course, you are qualified to apply to attend an interview for your promotion to the next rank two years ahead of your colleagues without such qualification, who will have to wait for five years or more. Also, if there is a position to be appointed to, the one with Masters' degree will have an added advantage. However, this also depends on the appointing authorities (Fieldwork, 2016).

This implies that after first degree, Masters' degree had no salary scale in GES but when a teacher obtained a Masters' degree, the teacher might serve half of the years and qualified to attend interview for his or her next promotion. Despite Masters' degree has an added advantage for teachers holding such qualifications to be appointed as Directors of Education, Headmasters of Colleges of Education or Senior High Schools but the applicants still need to hold a minimum of Deputy Director Rank in the Ghana Education Service. It is, however, difficult for teachers who served less than fifteen years in the teaching profession to be promoted to such ranks and hence when teachers obtain such qualifications and found jobs elsewhere that pays them on such certificates, they quit the service. The lack of salary scale in GES for such higher degrees did not motivate teachers to enroll on such courses. Particularly among the older teachers who were about to go on retirement or if the said teachers did not want to leave the service.

Another question on whether government pays teachers 15% of their basic pay as premium (allowance) for retention in the profession revealed that 20.5% of respondents strongly agreed, 43.4% of respondents agreed, 13.1% disagreed and 23% of the respondents strongly disagreed. This implied that majority of teachers represented in the 20.5% and 43.4% of respondents were aware that government pays them monthly 15% of their basic pay for them to be retained as teachers whilst 13.1% and 23% of the respondents were not aware of this allowance they had been receiving as part of their salary ever since the Single Spine Salary Structure was introduced in the year 2010. Even though this premium was not meant for rural teachers alone, the 13.1% and 23% of the respondents who were not aware of receiving this amount, require regular sensitization on their conditions of service to forestall teachers complain that government did not pay teachers any allowance for which they would not be retained in rural areas. However, the premium was woefully inadequate to entice the teachers to be retained in rural schools.

Respondents were asked that besides the retention premium, other allowances for teachers such as the transport grant, transport and travelling grant, et cetera, due them were not often paid regularly. The study revealed 67.2% of respondents strongly agreed, 13.1% agreed, 1.6% disagreed and 18% strongly disagreed. The 67.2% for strongly agreed and 13.1% for agreed respondents means that these allowances embedded in the conditions of service for teachers were often not paid by government as a headmaster in an interview remarked:

After completing training college, I have since been teaching in this district for over ten years now. I have been transferred over five times but nothing is paid to me even as I applied for transfer grant in all the instances I was transferred (Fieldwork, 2016).

The narration of this respondent impugned lack of commitment by the government to pay such allowances and or misappropriation of such funds when the monies get to the Jirapa Education Office. However, the District Director of Education in an interview remarked that the funds the district education office receives from government are woefully inadequate and these monies are not even released on time.

This explains that not only did government delay in releasing funds to the education office but the funds were also inadequate to pay all teachers who applied and qualified for such allowances. This might be a genuine challenge the education office faced in the district, except that they often failed to sensitize the teachers. Even how long could the education authorities continued to sensitize teachers as the problem was said to be a perennial one? Also, in instances where government released the funds and they were inadequate to serve all the qualified applicants, the education authorities would use their own discretion to spend the money on themselves or hand pick their favourite applicants to benefit. Allowances incentivized teachers so when they were not paid, one could imagine the motivational levels of these teachers in rural areas. It could not be surprising that teachers used all lawful and foul means to impress upon education authorities for transfers to schools in the Jirapa town or even quit the profession for better paid jobs. These created more vacancies in the rural schools and the consequences included but not limited to students' poor performance, high dropout, illiteracy and teenage pregnancies. The study confirmed Akuoko, Dwumah, and Baba (2012) findings that teachers advocated for improvement in salary and allowance.

Enhancement in study leave and sponsorship programmes as one of the motivational strategy revealed 87.7% of teachers indicated that it was strong, 8.2% agreed that it was fair and 4.2% of respondents answered it was weak in retaining teachers in rural areas. The endorsement of 87.7% signified that if the process was transparent and the quota increased for many teachers, they would be willing to be retained in rural areas. Once teachers knew that after the specified period of time they would be offered study leave or sponsorship for further studies, they would take up rural teaching vacancies. Supporting the findings a headmaster explained that when you (beneficiary teacher) are granted study leave for further studies...this motivates you to serve Ghana Education Service particularly in rural areas after completing the training.

It implies that government must either increase the study leave quota or absorb if not all but at least half of the fees of teachers teaching in rural areas whilst pursuing the distant learning programmes as a reward for their sacrifices as shared by Darvas and Balwanz (2014) study. When respondents were asked whether the district sponsorship was available and adequate for teachers and teacher trainees, 9% of the respondents strongly agreed, 13.1% said agreed, 27.9% disagreed and 50% strongly disagreed. The 27.9% disagreed and 50% strongly disagreed was an indication that the sponsorship was not adequate and available. A headmaster in an interview confirmed this when she said:

The district no longer sponsors teachers in the name of lack of funds. The assembly does not sponsor teachers on salary. Even for teacher trainees, it is pathetic and what is offered them cannot even cover a quarter of the fees these teacher trainees pay.... the assembly is interested in sponsoring students entering Nursing Training Colleges and Medical Schools (Fieldwork, 2016).

Corroborating this revelation, an official from the District Assembly in an interview explained that the assembly departed from bonding teacher trainees because the assembly only supports them but not total sponsorship. We give total sponsorship to only medical and nursing students.

The absence of total district sponsorship coupled with government's cancellation of teacher trainees' allowance to increase intake at the Colleges of Education has made these teacher respondents bitter which has dire consequences on teacher retention in rural areas of the district. This was an injustice when the teachers compared their teacher trainees with the nurse trainees who still receive allowances. Meanwhile the Assembly still found it expedient to give total sponsorship to these nurses at the expense of the teacher trainees whose allowances had been cancelled. This left parents to bear greater cost of the training of their wards alone which further made retention of such trainees after training difficult in rural areas without any motivation. Interpreting the revelation further, meant the Assembly had shifted from total sponsorship for teacher trainees because teachers were no more a priority and not entirely due to financial constraints as the Assembly's official alluded to. Thus, the assembly and government paid little attention to the plight of the teachers when compared to the nurses. The study confirmed Darvas and Balwanz (2014) study that poorer districts may not have the financial muscle to give even the meager sponsorship to teachers as other districts are able to do.

Improvement in further training and promotion was one motivational strategy for the retention of teachers in rural areas. On this strategy, 89.4% of the respondents said it was strong to retain teachers in rural areas, 7.4% said it was fair and 3.3% of the respondents indicated that it was weak to motivate teachers to be retained in rural areas. The 89.4% endorsement signified that teachers in rural areas aspired for higher educational and professional attainment and would accept postings and transfers to rural areas provided these places would not impede their desire for academic and professional progression. Confirming that training and promotion opportunities would make teachers to be retained in rural areas, a headmaster in an interview said:

Promotion comes with increase in salary and training as well after obtaining the required certificate. So no doubt that some teachers will take advantage by staying in the rural areas to teach, if indeed, rural teachers are promoted within two years as stated and can access study leave with pay within two or three years. If training and promotion opportunities are available, why can I not stay in rural areas? (Fieldwork, 2016).

From this assertion, enforcement of the two year period for rural teachers to qualify for study leave and promotion provide motivation as beneficiaries are prioritized. This would retain teachers in rural areas because training offered teachers the opportunity to reach Maslow's top-most hierarchy of needs called self-actualization. This affirmed Hitt, Black and Porter (2009) revelation that self-actualization, Maslow's top-most hierarchy of needs included the search for personal fulfillment, achievement and accomplishment which corresponds with Growth needs in Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory (Redmond, 2010).

Enhancement of teachers' accommodation was another motivational strategy for retention of teachers in rural areas of the Jirapa district. The study showed that 89.3% of respondents saw the strategy to be strong, 4.1% of respondents were of the view that it was fair and 6.5 % of the respondents said it was weak in motivating teachers to be retained in rural areas. The 89.3% affirmation emphasized that decent teachers' accommodation was essential need for getting teachers to stay in rural areas. This was emphasized by a headmaster in an interview said:

If the teachers' quarters is decent, teachers will stay...., quarters in the schools make teachers readily available. When commuting from town to school in rural areas, there could be a breakdown affecting instructional time (Fieldwork, 2016).

Teachers taking up accommodation in the communities they teach would enable teachers have shorter time to reach their schools to use instructional time judiciously. As teachers channeled the time they spent on commuting into lesson delivery, it would contribute to improve performance and foster collaboration with the community. An interview with an official of World Vision, an NGO into education in the Jirapa district corroborated the importance of teachers staying in the communities they teach when he explained that staying of teachers in the communities they teach help in the improvement of performance. After school, children can run to teachers for clarification on class work, teachers get to appreciate individual differences of children and that also improve relationship between teachers and the community

The significance of accommodation for teachers was supported Rollins, Broadfield and Edwards (1999) when they explained that shelter was one of the physiological needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs which Alderfer's Theory termed as Existence needs (Redmond, 2010).

Despite the fact that 89.3% of the respondents supported accommodation to retain teachers in rural areas, an interview with an official from the Jirapa District Assembly revealed otherwise. He said:

There is weak monitoring system in GES compared to the Ghana Health service. Teachers will make all the noise for teachers' quarters in rural schools but in many instances, when the assembly puts up these accommodations, teachers do not stay in them. The number of rural schools and the number of teachers in each school makes it financially difficult for the assembly to have the resources to provide quarters in almost all rural schools compared with only few nurses say, two per health facility (Fieldwork, 2016).

Interpreting the official narration indicated the usual excuses of successive governments and people in authority where the huge numbers of teachers are used as a hiding ground for failing to provide the conditions of service for teachers. The continuous construction of classrooms without the corresponding construction of teachers' accommodation was one of the reasons for inadequate teachers' accommodation in the rural areas. There must be a deliberate effort from policy makers to attach at least two bedroom teachers' quarters to every new three unit classroom block to be constructed in rural areas.

The study affirmed Mulkeen (2005) that the assembly and government do not have adequate finances to build and rehabilitate enough accommodation for all rural schools in the district.

Moreover, recruitment of rural teachers from rural areas was one of the motivational strategies for teacher retention. The study revealed 27% respondents deemed the strategy to be strong, 28.7% respondents saw it to be fair and 44.3% of respondents indicated that it was weak to motivate teachers to be retained in rural areas. Despite the low support of 27% for this strategy corroborated the wisdom of a headmaster in an interview who lamented that when a teacher comes out fresh from college without salary and teaches in his or her community, the parents and other relatives will come to his or her aid.

Teachers could draw on communal properties such as family land and house but could take it for granted in acquiring these on their own and could remain backward when compared with their counterparts who do not teach in their hometowns. Irrespective of this support, greater number of respondents representing 44.3% indicated that the strategy was weak to motivate teachers to be retained in rural areas. This explained that not all teachers would be blessed with such families' support as the key informant narrated, particularly when the family background is so poor. Also, some illiterate rural family members would not appreciate that one might be working without receiving pay and such relatives would still be making demands on such teachers. Also, teachers who want to run away from family burden would never take solace to this motivational strategy.

As such, educational authorities should not post or transfer teachers to their own hometown as a way for teachers to stay in rural schools. It should be based on the request of the teacher. These findings were confirmed by the headmasters when they said that both Kunkyene and Tampala communities needed ten teachers. If ten people are qualified, trained and recruited as teachers in Kunkyene community and only five are qualified, trained and recruited as teachers in Tampala community. What it means is that Tampala community will have five teachers less than that of the Kunkyene community. Can this ensure fair distribution of teachers between the two communities? To teach in my district, no problem but not to teach in my hometown because a prophet is not honoured in his own hometown

From this explanation, it is true that some rural communities do not have applicants with the requisite qualifications to be selected, trained and recruited as teachers in their hometowns. So, would such communities never get the teachers required in their schools if government adopted the policy of recruitment of rural teachers from rural areas? However, the key informant failed to note that volunteers from adjoining or even distant rural communities would come to the aid of such communities struggling to recruit their own natives.

Also, when teachers remained to teach in their hometowns, their respective families would make a lot of demands on them such as providing monies for school fees and hospital bills. As customs demand, these teachers would also be required to attend social gatherings such as funerals and weddings and in some instances which may conflict with the instructional hours of their schools. This could further create conflict between the affected teachers and education management. These responsibilities drained such teachers' meager salaries and they might not be able to cater for their immediate families. The study contradicted Monk (2007) "grow-your-strategy" and Segun and Olanrewaju (2011) study that recruiting rural teachers from rural areas was an antidote to retain teachers in rural areas.

Enhancement in community participation in school management was one of the motivational strategies for retention of teachers in rural areas. The study revealed that 81.2% of respondents attested the strategy to be strong, 10.7% of respondents took it to be fair whilst 8.2% of respondents noted it to be weak for retention of teachers in rural areas. This emphasized the important roles of Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and School Management Committees (SMC) as a headmaster in an interview said:

My school's community donated one hundred and ten dual desks, a set of jersey, volleyball and two footballs from the PTA dues. In another school, Ganaa Memorial JHS's PTA in Jirapa town built primary school block to feed the Junior High School since the JHS has no primary school (Fieldwork, 2016).

This 81.2% of the respondents attesting the strategy as strong for teacher retention implied that schools that had effective PTA and SMC to provide school infrastructure would entice and retain teachers in rural communities in the Jirapa district. This required the communities to support to provide teachers' accommodation, teaching and learning materials and visit the schools regularly to partner teachers to instill discipline. This affirmed Mulkeen (2010) findings which said PTAs and SMCs had important roles to play in developing the schools for teachers to be retained.

Contrary, rural communities in the districts charge Gh ₵1.00 PTA levy per term and even with this, more than three-quarters of parents were in arrears at the time of visit to these schools for the study. Could such schools undertake projects similar to that of the PTA of Ganaa Memorial JHS alluded to earlier? Poverty is so endemic among the rural parents compared to Ganaa Memorial JHS that had urban parents with better paid jobs in the Jirapa town. Parents' difficulty in rural areas to raise adequate PTA levies for the schools supported Bennell and Acheampong (2007) findings that communities' contributions in school management left much to be desired.

Improvement in social amenities in rural areas was one of the motivational strategies to retain teachers in rural areas. It was found that 89.3% of respondents endorsed the strategy to be strong, 7.4% said it was fair and 3.2% of respondents noted it to be weak to motivate them to be retained in rural areas of the district. Thus, rural communities became competitive for teachers to stay when government or the district assembly in collaboration with other development partners vigorously expand and extend social amenities to many of these rural communities. This was confirmed by the headmasters who explained that social amenities are part and parcel of our lives. If there is health center in the community I teach, I can bring my family to stay with me in the rural area also, electricity is as important as it helps teachers to power television, laptops, fridges and mobile phone.

Table 3 Factors Affecting Teacher Motivation for Retention in the JHSs of Rural Areas

DE-MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS	TEACHER RETENTION				TOTAL SAMPLE	%
	STRONG	FAIR	WEAK			
	(%)					
Poor further training and promotion opportunities	90.1%	5.7%	4.1%		122	100
Poor and inadequate teachers' accommodation	89.3%	4.1%	8(6.6%		122	100
Inadequate job opportunities	80.4%	9%	10.7%		122	100
Poor community support	73%	17.2%	9.9%		122	100
Poor social amenities	89.4%	4.9%	5.8%		122	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From table 3, poor further training and promotion opportunities was one factor that affected the motivation of teachers for retention in rural areas of the district. The study revealed 90.1% of respondents viewed this factor as strong in de-motivating teachers for retention in rural areas, 5.7% of the respondents noted it to be fair and 4.1% took it to be weak in de-motivating teachers for retention in rural areas of the district. The 90.1% of respondents indicated the difficulties rural teachers had in upgrading their knowledge and skills because of the lack of tertiary institution in those rural areas of the Jirapa district. A rural teacher who even enrolled on distant learning would likely not have course mates to engage in group studies compared to colleagues in the Jirapa town. The study confirmed Segun and Olanrewaju (2011) findings that tertiary institutions were not easily located in rural areas.

In a question that the study leave and promotion processes were not fair and transparent, 63.9% of respondents said they strongly agreed, 24.6% indicated agreed whilst only 4.9% and 6.6% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. One of the headmasters in an interview said:

“Promotions and study leave are marred with nepotism, favoritisms et cetera in that deserving teachers do not get” (Fieldwork, 2016).

This findings can be interpreted that the study leave quota had been narrow, making it impossible to grant all applicants and even those granted were not based on merit. Urban teachers having been interacting with education authorities quite often tend to lobby or bribe their way through in securing study leave at the expense of their rural colleagues. Also, the guidelines for rural teachers to qualify for study leave and promotion within two years had not been adhered to, despite the findings at the Regional Education Office where the study leave officer explained that applicants who had served in a designated deprived (rural) area for two (2) years may be considered for the grant of study leave with pay. Notwithstanding, the officer further lamented that more often they approve study leave with pay based on critical subject-areas rather than the fact that a teacher is teaching in a rural area.

The Regional Education Office confirmed that rural teachers were not given adequate priority to be granted study leave with pay, rather the priority for approving study leave was on subject areas. The 2014/2015 approved subjects and their percentages for the granting of Study Leave as the most current guideline, showed that applicants who were to study any of the category “A” subjects (Mathematics, English, French, Science, ICT, Laboratory Technician, Technical or Vocational) in tertiary institutions were offered 75% of the study leave quota for the region. Applicants who were to study any of the category “B” subjects (Agriculture Science, Ghanaian Language, Religious Studies, Accounting or Business Education, Physical Education or sports, Home Economics, et cetera) were offered 20% of the study leave quota for the region and those applicants who were to study any of category “C” subjects (Library or Archival Studies, Purchasing and Supply, Human Resource Management and Secretarial) were given 5% of the study leave quota for the region.

Even though the categorization of subjects allowed GES to prioritize subject areas for the study leave, it perpetuates the disincentive of serving in rural areas. A teacher who served the minimum four years of satisfactory service for urban areas and going to read any of the category “A” subjects in tertiary institutions would easily get study leave. However, a teacher who taught in a rural area for over ten years, far beyond the minimum two years of satisfactory service in rural areas and wants to read any of the category “B” subjects and at worst any category “C” subjects was more likely not be granted study leave. This was because the high 75% for category “A” subjects offered many applicants to be granted study leave compared to the low 20% for category “B” subjects applicants and as little as 5% for category “C” subjects' applicants. The study confirmed GES (2014) findings that the Ghana Education Service is unable to grant study leave to all applicants particularly teachers who teach in rural areas due to the quota system per region and per subject.

Poor and inadequate teachers' accommodation was one of the factors undermining motivation for retention of teachers in rural areas of the Jirapa district. The study revealed 89.3% respondents saw this factor as strong in de-motivating them to be retained in rural areas of the district, 4.1% and 6.6% of the respondents said it was fair and weak respectively in de-motivating teachers for retention in rural areas of the district. The 89.3% signified the deplorable nature of rural accommodations for teachers as a headmaster in an interview remarked:

Rural people build family houses and making it difficult to get rooms for renting. Many of the houses are built with mud, not cemented, roofed with thatch and leaking, with poorly ventilated rooms which have small windows and doors. Even the few local houses or teachers' bungalows roofed with zincs... have broken louver blades, doors and windows have no secured locks and the ceiling fallen off” (Fieldwork, 2016).

This description of the deplorable accommodation in rural areas of the district was not different in almost all communities. A teachers' bungalow in Kogri community showed it all where there were deep cracks on the wall, fallen ceilings, no doors and the solar panel for the bungalow had been stolen. This made it difficult for teachers to stay in them besides the two national service personnel. It was noticed that poor maintenance had left the facility to rot and the community had turned portion of the apartment into a place of convenience.

Meanwhile, when respondents were asked that because of accommodation problem, they lived outside the community they teach with their families, 65.6 % of them said they strongly agree, with 27% choosing agree. Only 5.7% opted for disagree and 1.6% indicated strongly disagree which signified that majority of the teachers stayed outside the communities they teach. They lived mainly in the Jirapa town or in somehow urbanized communities like Han, Sabuli or Ullo and commute long distances to their respective schools in the rural areas. As teachers did not stay in the communities they teach, after closing, it became difficult for teachers to organize extra classes for the students. Teachers would not have enough time to know the family background of the students to appreciate the individual difficulties of the students. This confirmed Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) findings that the poor housing in rural areas compelled teachers to commute long distances from towns to teach in rural schools.

Inadequate job opportunities was another factor that negatively affected teacher motivation for retention in rural areas of the district. The study showed that 80.4% of respondents saw it to be strong in demotivating them, 9% took it to be fair and 10.7% of respondents took it to be weak in demotivating them to be retained in rural areas. The overwhelming 80.4% signified that job opportunities were scarce in rural areas of the district. A key informant in an interview noted that:

In rural areas, poverty level is high parents are not ready to pay for extra-classes for their wards for a teacher to own a shop, the community will tell you that you earn salary and the shop businesses should be left for them for white colour jobs they are very scarce in rural areas.

This emphasizes that in rural areas of the district besides farming, teachers had difficulties to secure other jobs for their family members or themselves. Teachers who stayed in Jirapa town were privileged to private teaching, own stores and other businesses than those in rural areas of the district. This affected the inflows of income to supplement the salaries of rural teachers particularly those who were residents in these rural areas. The study supported Alhassan (2012) who noted that job opportunities for school leavers in rural areas were fewer than in urban areas.

Furthermore, poor community support in rural schools was one of the factors affecting motivation of teachers for retention in rural areas of the district. The study revealed that 73% of respondents agreed that this factor was strong in de-motivating teachers, 17.2% of the respondents said it was fair and 9.9% of respondents agreed that it was weak to demotivate them to be retained in rural areas. The findings of 73% of respondents were evident that rural teachers received limited support from the rural communities to manage the schools affecting teacher retention. It was revealed that hardly do parents visit their wards in school, how much more of paying PTA levies. Nambeg JHS PTA levy is GHc1.00 per term but less than quarter of them have paid for the first term as at the second term. You discipline a child and you are attacked by parents using words like when were you born? We have seen better teachers before.

The poor parental support could be caused by parents' poverty, illiteracy and ignorance of the significance of education. In some instances, the communities cannot be blamed entirely for the low support to the school but due to teachers' own rude behaviors to

the school and community. The commuting of teachers from Jirapa town or elsewhere to these rural schools resulted in teachers' absenteeism, lateness and early departure from school. There were reported cases of sexual harassment on female students by the male teachers which were some of the problems that caused the weak cordial relationship and support from the communities to the schools. These confirmed Mulkeen (2010) assertion that parents' support to schools in rural areas is inadequate.

Poor social amenities was other fundamental de-motivational factors in rural areas of the district. The study showed 89.4% of respondents took this factor as strong de-motivator for teacher retention, 4.9% of the respondents took it as fair de-motivator and 5.8% of respondents deemed it as weak de-motivational factor for teacher retention in the rural areas. The 89.4% respondents' endorsement as strong de-motivator indicated that poor social amenities in rural areas of the district made retention of teachers difficult. A key informant in an interview said:

Teachers who stay in rural areas commute to Jirapa town to seek banking, postal, internet and health care services... therefore, teachers take transfer to the town schools where these amenities are readily available (Fieldwork, 2016).

This confirmed that many teachers' zeal for transfer to Jirapa town could be influenced by poor social amenities in rural areas which made these rural areas unattractive and isolated for teachers to stay. This upheld Acheampong and Asamoah (2015) study that poor and inadequate social amenities accounted for teachers' reluctance to accept postings to rural.

Table 4 Outcomes of Teacher Motivation for Retention in the JHSs of Rural Areas

OUTCOMES OF TEACHER MOTIVATION	TEACHER RETENTION			TOTAL SAMPLE	
	STRONG	FAIR	WEAK	Frequencies	%
	(%)				
Enhanced attraction and retention of teachers	84.4%	9.8%	5.7%	122	100
Improved performance	91%	5.7%	3.3%	122	100
Reduced teachers' absenteeism	85.3%	9.8%	5%	122	100
Fostered collaboration among teachers, education, management and parents	84.4%	13.1%	2.5%	122	100

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

One of the outcomes of teacher motivation for retention in rural areas of the district was enhanced attraction and retention. The findings revealed that 84.4% of respondents confirmed that motivation had a strong power to attract and retain teachers in rural areas, 9.8% believed that motivation had a fair influence to attract and retain teachers and only 5.7% of respondents said motivation was weak to attract and retain teachers in rural areas. As such motivation enticed teachers not only to be willing to teach in rural areas but be retained. This was confirmed by a circuit supervisor in an interview who said:

If rural teachers receive some incentives like motorbikes, solar lamps and some allowances in addition to what the urban teachers are privileged to have such as enhanced social amenities, there will be no need for rural teachers wanting to be in town schools” (Fieldwork, 2016).

Teachers' works go beyond the classroom and if motivated, would be an antidote to bridge the trained teachers' retention deficit in rural areas of the district. The study confirmed Darvas and Balwanz (2014) findings that motivation would entice teachers to take up rural teaching.

Another outcome of motivation was improved performance as 91% of respondents said motivation was strong to improved performance, 5.7% of them said motivation had fair improvement in performance whilst only 3.3% noted motivation as weak to improve performance. This emphasized that motivation was bait for teachers to give out their best. Seniwoliba (2013) study supported the view that teachers' performance was tied to what they perceived as benefits from motivation in return but contradicted Akuoko, Dwumah and Baba (2012) findings that only 5.6% of respondents opted for academic performance of students as the source of their motivation compared with 91% of respondents in this current study.

In addition, one of the outcomes of motivation was reduced teachers' absenteeism. On this outcome, 85.3% of respondents attested that motivation was strong in reducing teachers' absenteeism, 9.8% of respondents agreed that motivation had a fair and 5% of the respondents said motivation was weak in reducing teachers' absenteeism. The implication was that when the basic needs of teachers were met, they would be enthused to be regular in school as an appreciation for the motivation offered them.

This corroborate Muhammad et al (2010) view that motivation was associated with decreased absenteeism if the motivational packages in rural areas overcame the benefits of staying in town. However, it must be stressed that not all absenteeism of teachers were unlawful. There was a movement book in each school where teachers entered their names, time, purpose to the area and the destination they were going, when they were in school and wanted to go elsewhere. This was for a day's movement and upon return the respective teachers entered the time of arrival. This was permitted and not treated as absenteeism. Except that teachers deliberately did not often enter their names into the movement book for fear of being queried by authorities for frequent movement out of the school. Also, teachers were entitled to be granted three days leave by the headmaster or headmistress of the school and when the leave was beyond three days, it was granted by the District Director of Education. These leaves could be for sick leave, maternity leave, exams leave and others. If the leave was granted by the headmaster or headmistress or the District Director in such

instances, no matter the motivation teachers would continue to be absent. Once the teachers had their leaves fully approved by the authorities on such days, the teachers were physically absent in school lawfully.

Fostered collaboration among teachers, education management and parents was one of the outcomes of motivation of teachers in rural areas. On this outcome, 84.4% of respondents chose that motivation was strong to foster collaboration, 13.1% of respondents were of the view that motivation had a fair influence on the collaboration and only 2.5% of respondents stated that motivation was weak to foster collaboration among teachers, education management and parents. This implied that when the needs of teachers were met, they became satisfied and cooperative when relating with their colleague teachers, education authorities and the community people. The study confirmed Ghana Education Service (2010) findings that motivated teachers cooperated and learned from the experience of others.

Challenges of Teacher Motivational Strategies for Retention in the JHSs of Rural

Inadequate funds was one of the challenges of teacher motivational strategies for retention in the JHSs of rural areas. The study revealed 81.2% of the respondents indicated inadequate funds was strong, 8.2% respondents said this challenge was fair and 10.7% of respondents were of the opinion that inadequate funds was weak challenge to retain teachers in rural areas. The 81.2% confirmation emphasized the funding deficit for teacher motivation as the Jirapa District Director of Education lamented that inadequate funds stalled the district best teacher award over six years now. Also, the District Assembly Common Fund is erratic and the assembly internally generated fund is very weak. When the common fund is not given, the assembly becomes empty.

Lack of awareness among teachers on their own conditions of service was one of the challenges of teacher motivational strategies. The study showed 73.7% of respondents attested that inadequate awareness among teachers on their own conditions of service was strong, 17.2% said it was fair challenge and 9% of the respondents deemed this challenge to be weak on teacher motivation for retention in rural areas. The 73.7% affirmation meant that many of the teachers were not in the know of the benefits they were entitled to, in the profession. This confirmed Muhammad et al (2010) study that teachers were not in the know of the different benefits they were entitled to and could be unsatisfied and not willing to be retained to teach in rural schools.

Another challenge to teacher motivational strategies was corruption. On this challenge, 93.4% of respondents attested that corruption had strong debilitating effect on the motivation of the teachers, 4.9% respondents indicated that corruption was fair challenge and only 1.6% respondents said corruption was weak to undermine teacher motivation for retention in the rural JHSs. The highest 93.4% support of respondents signified corruption diverted resources for teachers' motivation to wrongful hands affecting teacher motivation for retention. This re-echoed Chapman (2003) cited in World Bank (2007:33) assertion that "corruption has damaging consequences in that, resources are wasted".

Moreover, exercise of excessive powers by management was one of the challenges of teacher motivational strategies. The study showed 77.9% of the respondents agreed that this challenge had strong negative effect on motivation of teachers, 15.6% of respondents said

this challenge was fair, and 6.6% indicated this challenge was weak to undermine the motivation. The 77.9% respondents emphasized that management whether at the school, district, regional and national levels over exercise their powers in supervising and managing teachers which infuriate and demoralizes teachers to be retained in rural areas of the district. This confirmed Adelabu (2005) that the autocratic way some educational authorities related with teachers left much to be desired.

The last challenge attested by respondents was politicization of the teaching profession. In the study 82% of respondents noted that the challenge had strong debilitating effect on teacher motivation, 6.6% of respondents endorsed that it had fair effect and 11.5% of respondents affirmed this challenge as weak for teacher motivation for retention in rural areas of the district. A headmaster in an interview said:

The ruling government...influence or determine who becomes a...Director of education. Hence these appointees come and dance to the rhythm of the music of the politicians. The frequent changes in educational policies by successive governments, is a challenge for teachers, even postings and transfers of teachers are all influenced by politicians” (Fieldwork, 2016).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the education authorities and teachers kowtowed to the dictates of political heads in implementing educational policies and reforms such as posting, transfer and study leave. This upheld World Bank (2007) that even transfers in Ghana Education Service were under political influence and making education authorities not independent.

It is worth noting that motivation is very important to ensuring retention of trained teachers in JHSs of rural areas in the Jirapa district. This would not only guarantee the right to education for the rural children but contributed to the achievement of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and the Education for All goals.

Although, motivational strategies had stronger inducement on teacher retention in rural areas of the district hence, it behooves on the government to develop, implement and enforce adequate extrinsic motivational policies that targeted retention of teachers in rural areas. Otherwise, the achievement of the right to education, Education for All and Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education for rural folks would be a mirage.

Teachers who were teaching in rural areas of the district were not willing to be retained in the rural schools without any form of motivation. They would find every reason to stay in Jirapa town or teach in the town schools if nothing was done to entice them to rural schools. Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory proposition that needs are pursued simultaneously. Modification of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory would be necessary since the theory does not completely address human needs in the society.

Retaining trained teachers in rural areas required right targeting of strategies, enforcement and adequate motivational packages and policies. Thus, the lack of targeting, enforcement and adequacy of motivational strategies resulted in teacher motivation for retention in JHSs of rural areas in the Jirapa district to remain in a chronic state of decline as cited in Bennell and Akyeampong (2007). Further studies can look at the unintended outcomes of teacher motivation and a comparative studies can be done on teacher motivation between rural teachers and urban teachers in the district.

Recommendation

Government and educational management should not recruit rural teachers from rural areas or post teachers back to their hometowns in rural areas in the Jirapa district on a basis of teacher retention unless that is requested by the said teachers. This is because empirical evidence of this study did not support the strategy in rural areas in the Jirapa district.

There is the need for government, NGOs and philanthropist to support vigorous expansion and extension of social amenities to rural communities to make rural schools competitive for teachers to be retained. Therefore, the rural electrification, CHPS policies and other social amenities projects should be vigorously pursued.

Also, there is the need for government to implement policy in rural areas that building of any three unit classroom block should come with teachers' accommodation connected with electricity and water. This is because teachers need to stay in those communities and teach the children in such new classrooms.

Government should properly target, enforce and increase motivational packages for rural teachers so that the benefits reach the deserving beneficiaries and be significant enough to outweigh the advantages of teaching in town schools. The two year period for rural teachers to qualify for study leave and promotion should be adhered to.

There is urgent need for regular and timely allocation of the District Assembly Common Fund and subvention to the District Education Directorate. These will make funding available to organize the district best teacher award and for payments of allowances due teachers in their condition of service, in-service training and fuel allowance for circuit supervisors.

Government has to institute and implement rural teachers' allowance which should be paid through Controller and Accountant General Department to attract and retain teachers in rural areas of the district. This will compensate for the hardships rural teachers go through.

GES should create a salary scale for Masters' Degree within its salary structure. This will help retain teachers who gained skills for pursuing such higher qualification.

Government in collaboration with education authorities should sensitize politicians to eschew politics in education, rural communities to support schools in their localities and teachers on their conditions of service.

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