EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON TEACHER MOTIVATION AND TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

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Approval of the Thesis

EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON TEACHER MOTIVATION AND TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

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Abstract

EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON TEACHER MOTIVATION AND TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

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Teacher motivation and retention are critical factors in determining the quality of education in Nigerian secondary schools. Unfortunately, these issues persist and continue to undermine the development of the educational sector in the country. Even though some level of teacher turnover is beneficial and unavoidable, excessive, and frequent turnover can be detrimental to the overall performance of a school. When a substantial percentage of teachers leave in quick succession, it disrupts the school's operations and creates a chaotic learning environment for students. This not only affects their academic progress but also their emotional well-being. Moreover, poor teacher motivation directly translates to poor productivity. Teachers who are demotivated are unlikely to invest the required energy or enthusiasm needed to provide quality education to their students. Consequently, schools with low teacher motivation are likely to experience a decline in their educational standards.

This mixed-methods study delves into the impact of leadership styles on teacher motivation, and teacher turnover intentions in secondary schools, and offers insights that are useful to educators and policymakers alike. Using two well-known theories - the Self-Determination Theory and the Transformational Leadership Theory - the study sheds light on

how school principals' leadership behaviours affect the motivation of teachers and teachers' inclination to leave their teaching jobs. It also highlights the impact of teacher motivation on the link between teachers' intention to leave their jobs and leadership styles. In this research investigation, qualitative data was gathered from 23 teachers through semi-structured interviews while quantitative data was obtained from a sample of 472 teachers through a self-report questionnaire. The study focused on educators in government-owned (public) secondary schools situated in Lagos State, Nigeria.

The research results disclosed that the adoption of a transformational leadership style in schools enhances teacher motivation and reduces turnover intentions. Conversely, the transactional leadership style exerts an opposing influence. Furthermore, it was observed that the connection between turnover intentions and leadership styles is not moderated by teacher motivation. Instead, leadership styles influence teacher motivation, which in turn affects teacher turnover decisions.

The research has significant implications for the Nigerian educational system, calling for urgent action to train secondary school leaders to use transformational leadership styles and for principals to increase their support for teachers regarding autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Moreover, the study highlights the need for better compensation for teachers, aligning their salaries with inflation rates and the standards of other professions.

This study's recommendations for further research highlight the need to incorporate school principals' perspectives in similar studies and the need to investigate the distinctive impact of each element of transformational leadership on teachers' basic psychological needs.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where stated otherwise by reference or acknowledgement, the work presented is entirely my own.

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I confirm that I retain the intellectual property and copyright of the thesis submitted. I also allow Unicaf University in Zambia to produce and disseminate the contributions of the thesis in all media forms known or to come as per the Creative Commons BY Licence (CC BY).

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Chapter 1: Introduction

There has been a noticeable shift away from conventional, teacher-centric methods of knowledge delivery in contemporary education and curriculum design. Instead, there is a growing focus on student-centred teaching methodologies, active learning, and the principles of constructivism, which integrate both cognitive and social dimensions (Mayer, 2004). Although these forward-looking educational models are centred on empowering students to assume an active role in their educational journey, it is crucial to acknowledge that teachers remain central to the process of knowledge dissemination within educational institutions. Shuls and Flores (2020) contend that the importance of teacher experience and quality has been consistently demonstrated as teacher characteristics consistently account for a higher degree of variability in student achievement than any other school resource (Borman & Dowling, 2008). It is the teacher, for instance, who ensures that the instructional content is covered. The teacher also assesses students' progress in attaining the designated learning objectives across all educational levels.

Secondary education follows primary schooling and precedes tertiary education. It caters to students in the 11-17 age range (Nanbak, 2020). This level of education in Nigeria is divided into two - Junior Secondary School (JSS) which lasts for three years and another three years of Senior Secondary School (SSS). Students are exposed to vocational training during the JSS period, while in the SSS phase, students are prepared for tertiary education (Egugbo & Salami, 2021). The purpose of Nigerian secondary education is to provide primary school leavers with opportunities for higher education while offering a diverse curriculum suited to individual talents

and future roles. It aims to train individuals in applied sciences, technology, and commerce, inspiring a desire for self-improvement and excellence and raising a generation capable of independent critical thinking. Ultimately, the primary purpose of the Nigerian secondary school system is to equip learners with the skills necessary for productive engagement within society and to prepare those who are inclined and capable of further academic pursuits (Nanbak, 2020). Hence, secondary education serves not only as a transitional phase between primary and tertiary levels but also as a means for individuals to integrate effectively into society, regardless of their aspirations for further education (Nanbak, 2020; Egugbo & Salami, 2021).

A substantial body of literature exists concerning the pivotal role of teachers in shaping students' academic achievements and character development in secondary schools. This consensus is reflected in the works of Gage et al. (2018), Duze & Ogbah (2013), Donley et al. (2019), and Hanushek et al. (2004). Retaining experienced, motivated, and highly qualified teachers in the school is the foundation of improved student achievement and the panacea for effective curriculum implementation and attainment of educational objectives (Kadtong et al., 2017; Bentil et al., 2019; Mohammed & Jumare, 2020; Donley et al., 2019).

However, it is widely noticed that attracting and keeping effective teachers in the school system is a concern to many developed and developing nations globally as evidenced by the exit level of teachers reported in various parts of the globe (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016; Den Brok, et al., 2017; Ingersoll, 2017). In the USA, the annual teacher attrition rate can be as high as 16% (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). Philadelphia alone recorded a 27% teacher turnover from 2006 to 2016 (Dillon & Malick, 2020). Carlsson et al. (2019) attested that Sweden had up to 14.6% teacher attrition rate recently. Likewise, the rate of

teacher turnover in Canada is reported to be as much as 30% in the early years of teaching (Karsenti & Collin, 2013) while Kenya and Tanzania average a 7% teacher turnover rate annually (Mulei et al., 2016). The story is not different for Nigeria which has recorded a secondary school teacher turnover rate of more than 10-15% in the southern states and 15-20% in the Northern states in recent years (Oke et al., 2016; Mulei et al., 2016; Wushishi et al., 2013).

Teacher turnover, equally referred to as teacher attrition occurs when educators leave their positions as classroom teachers to take up other jobs either within or outside the educational system (Okeke et al., 2019). Based on existing literature, employee turnover intentions typically correlate with actual employee turnover rates (Wang & Wang, 2020). This is substantiated by the planned behaviour theory which claims that the best determinant of actual human behaviour is an estimate of the person's intention to carry out that act (Ajzen, et al., 2009 cited in Räsänen et al., 2020). Turnover intention reflects an employee's overall expression of discontent with their job, contemplation of resigning, readiness to switch jobs, and active exploration of alternative job prospects (Mobley et al., 1979 cited in Wang & Wang, 2020; Alifuddin & Widodo, 2021; Belete, 2018; Alias et al., 2018). In the same vein, teacher turnover intention is regarded as a teacher's conscious plan and effort to leave classroom teaching for other kinds of jobs (Imran et al., 2017). In general, academics have discovered staff turnover intention has a statistical connection with actual turnover. It marks the last phase before employees decide to exit their current job (Wang & Wang, 2020). This pre-supposes that where the turnover intentions of employees are high, the rate of turnover would most likely be high.

Chronic teacher turnover in schools results in the drainage of experienced and effective teachers from the schools occasioning diminished teacher outcomes and teacher burnout due to work

overload on the few available teachers (Ingersoll, 2010; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). When teachers depart a school, they take with them the skills and experience from the profession and knowledge of instructional practices they have accumulated from training throughout their career. Most importantly, they also go away with their awareness of the educational requirements of the students. This has a detrimental effect on student achievement as well as school operations and atmosphere (Ingersoll, 2001; Donley et al., 2019). Additionally, it causes disruptions of instructions; and financial burdens on the schools and the government since hiring and training replacement teachers are expensive (Ige, 2019). Furthermore, it causes complications in class tasks and school operations; and ultimately results in poor student performance (Duze & Ogbah, 2013; Egu et al., 2011; Guin, 2004; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ronfeldt et al., 2013; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Carlsson et al., 2019). Persistent teacher turnover also negatively affects the culture of a school by exacerbating student disciplinary issues. Collegiality is harmed, operations across the school are made more complex and chaotic and fresh turnover cycles are continually reinforced. The necessary teacher collaboration for improving instruction is often hampered by high turnover rates (Guin, 2004). In alignment with this viewpoint, Newberry and Allsop (2017) asserted that sustaining stability in school operations and fostering effective collegiality among teachers, as well as cultivating meaningful connections with students, becomes challenging when a significant portion of the teaching staff consistently exits.

There are a plethora of reasons proffered for the high rate of teacher turnover in schools. Research investigations from various parts of the globe recognised poor remuneration, poor learning environment, inadequate infrastructure, absence of administrative support, a dearth of

opportunities for growth, inadequate motivation, job dissatisfaction, and school leadership styles as the main considerations causing high turnover among teachers (Dabo & Azi, 2016; Wushishi et al., 2013; Clandinin, et al., 2015). Of these suggested reasons, low salaries, inadequate motivation, and school leadership styles are adjudged by researchers as the major determinants of teacher turnover (Wushishi et al., 2013; Dabo & Azi, 2016).

Some scholars theorise that motivation reduces employee turnover intentions and actual attrition because turnover intention goes down as employee motivation is boosted. Conversely, as employee motivation reduces, the inclination of employees to leave their positions rises (Imran et al., 2017; Hussain et al., 2018). Previous research equally suggested that the quest for job hopping will be minimised when principals create the right atmosphere in schools to adequately motivate teachers (Dillon & Malick, 2020; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017) by adopting appropriate leadership styles which not only inspire teachers to perform at their best but also provide adequate support to them. In this manner, teachers can enhance their professional development and find fulfilment in their work (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016; Oke et al., 2016; Duze & Ogbah, 2013).

According to Northouse (2019), leadership entails influencing a group of individuals towards a common goal. The school principal bears the responsibility of overseeing teachers and offering guidance to both teaching and non-teaching staff, as well as students. He, therefore, can influence the teachers through his leadership style. If a principal understands what it takes to be successful with students and how best to organise the school, then teachers will be able to do their job effectively. This understanding enables them to provide the required support to teachers,

allowing them to grasp the most vital intrinsic motivation which is ensuring the success of the students (Darling-Hammond, 2013; Williamson & Blackburn, 2017).

During this investigation, it was discovered that only a small number of research projects on the subject had been conducted in Nigeria. These studies concentrated on the influence of incentivizing teachers and enhancing infrastructure as critical elements impacting teacher motivation and retention (Ogbonna & Chionye, 2011; Oke et al., 2016; Uyanne et al., 2020). However, despite prior government initiatives to increase the minimum wage and refurbish public secondary schools, the desired results were not realised, underscoring the need for more research into other successful strategies for motivating and retaining teachers. This research, therefore, aimed to discover how various leadership styles could enhance teacher motivation and reduce intentions to leave the teaching profession in Lagos, Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

The Nigerian education system is currently facing the significant challenge of motivating and retaining experienced and effective teachers in secondary schools. Many secondary school teachers in Nigeria perceive teaching as a means to an end and subsequently abandon the profession in pursuit of more financially rewarding employment once an opportunity arises. This situation has resulted in a severe shortage of essential teaching personnel, particularly in the fields of Science and Mathematics, areas that are fundamental to the nation's scientific and technological progress. Additionally, a UNESCO-IIBA report highlights a significant shortfall in the number of teachers needed to ensure optimal educational quality within Nigerian secondary schools attributing this deficiency to the inadequate motivation of teachers. The lack of teacher motivation is evident in declining educational standards, increased truancy, moonlighting, and

inadequate assessment of students' achievement, further contributing to a deterioration in students' performance in major examinations.

These issues, along with the increasing rate of teacher turnover, led to the worsening of students' performance in major examinations. Students' results in major examinations like the West African Examination Council (WAEC) continued to deteriorate from 52.3% credit passes in English Language and Mathematics in 2016 to 48.15% in 2018 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2019). The elite are sending their children to foreign countries and expensive private secondary schools to seek a more reliable education. The situation is a cause for concern and necessitates research to identify enduring solutions.

To address these issues and improve educational standards, it is imperative to focus efforts on improving the leadership of school principals, boosting teacher motivation, and decreasing teacher turnover intentions. This challenge requires the attention of stakeholders in the Nigerian educational system, as the consequences of inaction could be dire, particularly for less privileged students who lack access to alternative educational opportunities. While studies from other countries suggest that effective leadership styles enhance teacher motivation and reduce teacher turnover, it is essential to recognise that these connections may not be universally consistent across all contexts. A review of the literature reveals a notable gap in research on the influence of leadership styles on the motivation of teachers and their intent to leave the profession in Nigeria, specifically in Lagos State. Prior research has predominantly concentrated on the impact of infrastructure enhancements and incentives for teachers as crucial factors influencing teacher engagement and retention.

Hence, in the context of Lagos State, Nigeria, this study aims to empirically evaluate how secondary school principals' leadership styles affect both teacher motivation as well as teacher turnover intentions.

Research Purpose and Objectives

The principal goal of this mixed-method study is to investigate how leadership styles influence teacher motivation and intentions to leave secondary schools in Lagos State, Nigeria. Additionally, the study aims to determine whether teacher motivation influences the association between leadership styles and intentions to leave the teaching profession.

According to Imran et al. (2017), when teachers are adequately motivated, they are more committed and stay longer in the teaching profession. High-level worker motivation can promote high employee productivity, customer satisfaction, loyalty, long-term organisational well-being, as well as the organisation's financial success (Deci et al., 2017). Furthermore, leadership styles (transactional and transformational) are effective in reducing premeditated turnover decisions (Wells & Peachey, 2011).

The fundamental objectives of this study therefore are:

a) To analyse the influence of transactional and transformational leadership styles on the motivation of teachers in government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos State.

b) To look into how teachers' intentions to leave the profession are impacted by transactional and transformational leadership philosophies.

(c) To ascertain if motivation moderates the association between teachers' intentions to leave their jobs and the leadership styles of their principals.

Research Questions and Research Hypotheses

To carry out this research successfully, three research questions were formulated and hypotheses were employed to test the theories emanating from existing literature in response to these research questions. Hypotheses provide a guide for the study, aiding the researcher in discerning between pertinent and extraneous information to prevent the unnecessary expenditure of time and resources. Below are the research questions and hypotheses:

RQ 1: What is the impact of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on the motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State? The null and alternate hypotheses testing this research question are stated thus:

H01: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha1: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H01a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha1a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transactional leadership style.

RQ 2: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on secondary school teacher turnover intentions in Lagos State? The following hypotheses assisted in answering the research question:

H02: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha2: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H02a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha2a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transactional leadership style.

RQ 3: What is the impact of teacher motivation on the relationship between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions? Below are the hypotheses testing the research question.

H03: The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is not moderated by teacher motivation.

Ha3: The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is moderated by teacher motivation.

Nature and Significance of the Study

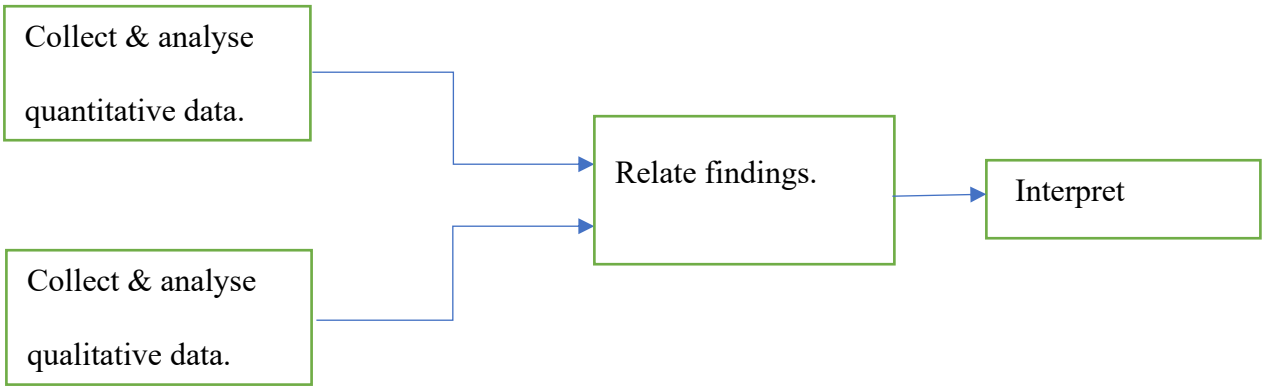
This research employed a mixed methods strategy to investigate how the leadership styles of school principals impact both teacher motivation and turnover intentions. Furthermore, an attempt is made to determine whether teacher motivation serves as a moderating factor in the connection between leadership styles and turnover intentions.

The researcher collected and analysed data using both quantitative and qualitative methods. This research methodology is widely recognised by esteemed authors as a valuable tool that complements quantitative and qualitative methods ((Bryman & Bell, 2015). The key thing about mixed method design is the emphasis on gathering, evaluating, and blending qualitative

and quantitative data at a certain point in the same study (Creswell et al., 2003; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Figure 1.1 shows the study's research process.

Figure 1. 1

The research process of the study



According to scholars, the focal premise in opting for a mixed methods strategy is that it can address the shortcomings of the two traditional approaches – (qualitative and quantitative approaches). By combining these two methods, researchers can obtain more reliable and comprehensive information that otherwise cannot be obtained through the use of either approach alone (Almeida, 2018; Bryman & Bell, 2015). The value of mixed methods research is considerably high because it integrates qualitative and quantitative information in one research (Creswell et al., 2018; Bryman & Bell, 2015). This design aims to get differing but complementary information on the topic being studied in a bid to attain a superior comprehension of the research topic (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

A survey method (self-completion questionnaire) was adopted to gather quantitative data. Generally, researchers find the self-completion questionnaires very apt for collecting data from

large populations (Bryman & Bell, 2015), such as secondary school teachers in a state. In addition, it is an effective, relatively cheap, and easy-to-use technique which gives a snapshot of the target population. The technique is associated with the deductive approach and is often used in educational research (Saunders et al., 2016). The confidence to generalise the findings of the study is boosted when data is gathered from a large sample size.

Quantitative data were gathered using four instruments: (a) A leadership questionnaire adapted from the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire of Avolio and Bass (2004) was utilised to gather data on the independent variable. This instrument assesses the principal's leadership behaviour (transactional and transformational) from the perspective of the teachers. (b) The Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work scale proposed by Ryan and Deci (2000) was used to measure teacher motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence). This instrument has been extensively used to measure these variables (Tiwari & Garg, 2019; Deci et al., 2001). (c) The Turnover Intention Scale also known as TIS-6, developed by (Jacobs & Roodt, 2007) but revamped by Bothma & Roodt (2013) was used to collect data on teacher turnover intentions. (d) A form designed by the researcher was used to gather information on the demographics of participants.

To augment the quantitative data gathered from surveys, in-depth interviews were conducted. Interview participants were selected from other schools outside the 55 originally selected for the survey sample. The selection of teachers for the interview process was based on their voluntary participation.

The rationale for adopting this design is to combine the divergent strengths of a large sample size and generalisation of the quantitative methods with the extensive information

associated with qualitative methods to obtain a more robust understanding of how leadership styles affect teacher motivation and teacher turnover intentions. Again, the results of the qualitative interview will further validate the numerical results from the quantitative method (Almeida, 2018; Dawadi et al., 2021; Arias Valencia, 2022).

The teaching staff at 799 public senior secondary schools in the six educational districts in Lagos State served as the study's target population. Concerning this study, each district was regarded as a sampling cluster and schools were chosen randomly from each cluster to participate in the study.

Significance of the study

In the traditional teaching setting, a teacher is equated to a spring from where knowledge flows to the tutees. Even in a student-centred learning environment, the teacher is still the symbol of authority, guiding and encouraging the students and ensuring a conducive atmosphere for students' expression (Moustafa et al., 2013). Through their position, teachers exert a great influence on the children under their care (Hanushek et al., 2004; Donley et al., 2019). Indeed, they assume a fundamental role in helping their tutees transform into creative, innovative, and dynamic individuals. This underscores the need to retain highly motivated and experienced teachers in every school (Asuzu, 2019). A low teacher retention rate undoubtedly impacts negatively on all stakeholders including the school, the students, the teachers, the parents, and the entire nation (Guin, 2004). Teachers who leave the school take with them the knowledge and experience they gained to their new jobs. The most damaging impact of teacher turnover is the negative effect on student performance (Guin, 2004; Ronfeldt et al., 2013). According to Guin, (2004), studies indicate that schools experiencing higher rates of teacher turnover are associated

with lower student achievement. Ronfeldt et al. (2013) discovered that student performance in subjects like English Language, Arts and Mathematics was negatively affected by teacher turnover in elementary schools in New York City. Therefore, schools that succeed in reducing voluntary teacher turnover are better positioned to outperform those that struggle to retain teachers. With experienced and dedicated teachers, a school can build a stable and cohesive learning environment, which is conducive to the success of its students. Besides, motivated and committed teachers are more likely to make extra efforts to ensure their students receive a high-quality education (Hussain et al., 2018).

All stakeholders have a vested interest in minimising teacher turnover rates and retaining quality educators to enhance student performance. Therefore, considerable efforts should be directed towards identifying sustainable solutions to address this issue. Literature is rife with studies that associate worker motivation with increased performance, commitment, and retention (Armstrong, 2021; Göktürk et al., 2021; Owodunni & Obalalu, 2015; Imran et al., 2017). Since motivated teachers would stay and produce motivated learners, more studies should be carried out to fathom the most effective ways to motivate teachers. Along these lines, a substantial correlation between teacher motivation and leadership styles presents an excellent opportunity for effective school principals to enhance their schools by fostering teacher motivation. Likewise, if leadership styles directly impact teacher turnover intentions, school leaders should intensify their efforts to retain teachers through their distinct leadership approaches.

The results of this study could bring about substantial enhancements to the educational system in Lagos State and could be used as a valuable reference for other regions across the country. This study will enhance the understanding of teacher motivation and turnover

intentions, especially in Nigeria by providing valuable insights to secondary school principals in Nigeria on how to comprehend the intricate link between leadership, teacher motivation and teacher turnover intentions.

The likely social impact of this investigation centres around the merits of school administrators and policymakers having a robust knowledge of effective school leadership approaches that inspire teachers, culminating in the creation of the right kind of school atmosphere that fosters improved teaching and learning and ultimately better student performance. These implications are not only vital for principals and educational administrators in Nigeria but may likewise be useful to principals and other educational stakeholders in other parts of the world.

Furthermore, an enhanced teaching-learning process in secondary schools will likely lay a good foundation for the students' positive contributions to the nation's economic growth since it has been established that a basic driver of employee productivity (which boosts economic development), is the quality of the educational output, or more specifically, the school system's capacity to influence the cognitive capability of the students (Awan, 2012).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

School leadership has generated a lot of attention in recent times. Studies have demonstrated the significance and necessity of the role of principals in the success of a school (Gougas & Malinova, 2021; Bamire & Adelabu, 2018; Kotirde et al., 2014). Leadership is crucial in shaping a school's characteristics. The effect may be moderate, but it is essential for the success of any school improvement initiative (Leithwood et al., 2020). Academics have been conducting countless studies on varied facets of school leadership and its connection with variables like teacher work commitment, teacher job satisfaction, and teacher motivation in different contexts because of the need to have better and more credible student outcomes. However, high teacher turnover is fast becoming a global problem which is gradually eroding the quality of school outcomes. This menace requires specific and deliberate attention to ensure it is curbed before more damage is done to the educational system of countries, particularly in developing economies.

In conducting the literature review, the chapter first provides explanations of the theoretical framework adopted for the study, before providing a critical analysis of key study concepts, namely leadership, motivation, and turnover intentions, along with associated ideas. Some of the most popular leadership and motivation theories are discussed in this chapter. Literature on the theories is organised chronologically to demonstrate the evolution of leadership and motivation theories over time. Again, the review examines the interrelationships between these concepts to give readers a thorough understanding of leadership and motivation concepts and how each of the concepts developed through the years. This serves as the backdrop and

context necessary for understanding and interpreting the study's research findings. Finally, a summary of the reviewed literature is presented to conclude the chapter.

A wide variety of sources were considered in this review, including peer-reviewed articles, books, journal articles, and dissertations. The search was carried out using keywords such as leadership theories, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, teacher motivation, turnover intention, teacher attrition, teacher retention, leadership styles, school principal leadership, theories of motivation, employee motivation, and self-determination theory in various databases like Google Scholar, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Database, Sage Journals, ResearchGate, Academia.edu, Emerald Publishing, Elsevier, ScienceDirect and JSTOR.

Theoretical Framework

This research is underpinned by two prominent theories: the Self-Determination Theory of motivation which was proposed by Ryan and Deci in 1985 and 2000, and the Transformational Leadership Theory proposed by Burns in 1978. These theories will be elaborated further in the ensuing paragraphs.

The Self-Determination Theory

The self-determination theory is a motivational theory that has significantly enhanced the understanding of self-regulated behaviours (Deci et al., 2017). Two renowned psychologists, (Deci and Ryan) came up with the theory in 1985. The theory seeks to explain various psychological aspects of human motivation. According to this theory, the nature of motivation a person possesses influences the degree to which the person will participate in, and continue with, certain behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000), and this nature of motivation is determined by

individual psychological needs and motives (Fischer et al., 2019). The theory believes that human beings inherently tend to move towards growth and integration. This psychological growth does not happen automatically, it entails continuous nourishment. SDT identified three needs – the need for competence, the need for relatedness and the need for autonomy as the main conditions which enable that growth (Ryan & Deci, 2020; Kaplan et al., 2022). Autonomy refers to the need to view behaviour as deliberate and voluntary and to feel like a person has control over his behaviour and choices (Legault, 2017; Kaplan et al., 2022). The competence need involves the desire to experience confidence, efficacy, productivity, and mastery of tasks (Kaplan et al., 2022). Individuals who are efficacious about their capabilities for success are bound to make moves that will help them accomplish their objectives (Kaur & Noman, 2020). According to Ryan and Deci (2020), the need for competence is fulfilled when individuals work in a well-structured environment that offers stimulating tasks, constructive feedback, and chances for growth. They also suggest that relatedness involves the desire to interact with others, build connections, and receive support and affection from them. These three needs have to be satisfied to gain a sense of well-being and optimal productivity (Legault, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2020). Therefore, if a person's current circumstance addresses some needs without meeting others, their well-being will still be affected negatively (Ryan & Deci, 2020).

Self-determination theory further classifies motivation into amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Amotivation portrays an absence of intention and a state of no motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It could arise from a person not valuing a task or the person having a perception that the task will not yield the desired outcome (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation involves doing something because of the enjoyment and satisfaction

in the activity itself. In contrast, extrinsic motivation encompasses engaging in a behaviour because it leads to rewards or because of the fear of repercussions (Deci & Ryan, 1985). While intrinsic motivation can result in more volitional productive and sustained engagement with a creative pursuit, extrinsic motivation can enhance commitment in monotonous, dreary, and uninteresting tasks that are not intrinsically rewarding or give people the impetus to attempt behaviours they have not done before (Cameron et al., 2001; Deci et al., 2017). Supporters of SDT argue that enhancing intrinsic motivation results in higher achievement and welfare (Fischer et al., 2019). Intrinsically motivated behaviour is viewed as the model of self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

After three decades, the introduction of SDT moved the focus from the intrinsic and extrinsic dichotomy to controlled and autonomous motivations (Roth et al., 2007; Gagné & Deci, 2005). The distinction between these two types of motivation mirrors people's reasoning or purposes behind participating in activities based on whether the individual considers the activity or behaviour as supportive of their psychological needs (Gagné & Deci, 2005). While autonomous motivation is described as performing a task because the task is perceived to be congruent with intrinsic objectives and develops from self, “controlled motivation" in contrast, reflects engaging in behaviours for externally referenced reasons such as to gain rewards or perceived approval from others, to avoid punishment or feelings of guilt” (Hagger et al., 2014, p. 566). According to the Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT) meeting the fundamental requirements of employees in the workplace results in an increase in their autonomous motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Contrarily, when these basic requirements are unsatisfied,

autonomous motivation reduces, and controlled motivation becomes prevalent. The research suggests that controlled motivation has detrimental effects on performance (Fischer, et al., 2019).

Intrinsic motivation is considered the best type of autonomous motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Autonomous motivation refers to when individuals are motivated to engage in activities or behaviours due to their interest and enjoyment, feeling a sense of personal choice and endorsement. Consequently, they are more likely to persist with the behaviour without needing extrinsic reinforcements (Hagger et al., 2014).

Ryan and Deci suggest that autonomously motivated people are self-regulated and self-determined (Hagger et al., 2014; Gagne´& Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In contrast, people who perform an act for controlled reasons feel pressured and will act due to external demands and social pressure. Such people are likely to persist with the action only as far as the external inducement lasts. Once the inducement is no longer present, the activity is most probably going to cease (Deci et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2020). While people with controlled motivation may still invest significant effort in their jobs, they may experience emotional challenges due to the pressure they feel which can manifest as burnout (Abós et al., 2018). It is therefore concluded that individuals who are extrinsically or control-motivated are less inclined to be self-regulated because the behaviour is not considered to support psychological needs, rather it is probably viewed as ‘need-thwarting’ (Deci & Ryan 1985; Hagger et al., 2014).

Proponents of SDT further postulate that attempts to control achievements directly through external incentives or rewards, punishments, and appraisals are likely to backfire causing low-quality motivation and productivity (Ryan & Deci, 2020; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Other parallel studies by different scientists corroborate that external rewards especially those linked to

high-interest tasks diminish intrinsic motivation (Cameron et al., 2001). Almost in all types of expected task performance contingent and tangible incentives undermine intrinsic motivation, the same as deadlines, orders, threats, rivalry, and pressure since individuals consider them to be regulators of their conduct (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Again, if a reward is introduced for a behaviour that people already find motivating, intrinsic motivation for that behaviour will likely diminish over time. The individuals cease to perform the assignment for its own sake instead the individuals will consider the assignment a means of earning external rewards. Consequently, by moving the explanation for accomplishing something from intrinsic to extrinsic, the activity becomes less fascinating as the purposes for doing it currently originate from outside oneself (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Nevertheless, when extrinsic motivation is internalised, it becomes self-regulating. Internalisation is the process of adopting external regulations and integrating them into one's values (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This process of internalisation is segregated into four different forms, namely external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation, based on the prevalent contextual factors (Deci et al., 2017; Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The SDT continuum spans from amotivation, which denotes a complete deficiency in self-determination, to intrinsic motivation, which signifies unwavering self-determination. Between these two endpoints lie four types of extrinsic motivation. The nearer an individual is to the intrinsic end of the continuum the more self-determined he/she is. Among these categories of extrinsic motivation, external regulation is regarded as the least autonomous as indicated by studies conducted by Deci et al. (2017), Howard et al. (2017), and Slemp et al. (2020).

External regulation epitomises the perfect form of control regulation and involves engaging in a behaviour to fulfil an external obligation or reinforcement like receiving an incentive or avoiding a reprimand. Much as external regulation can strongly motivate certain behaviours, it frequently results in a long-term reduction of autonomous motivation and psychological flourishing (Deci et al., 2017).

Next to external regulation on the continuum is introjected regulation. This is somewhat more autonomous than external regulation. Introjected regulation is controlled motivation because the behaviour is coerced by internal contingencies like the pressure to avert sentiments of blame or nervousness, boost ego or pride, or preserve self-esteem. Though the individual has acknowledged the objective of the behaviour as important, and the intention is internal, the behaviour is still not self-directed (Hagger et al., 2014; Deci et al., 2017). This behaviour is not experienced as part of oneself, but as externally influenced. Identified regulation is a less controlling type of extrinsic motivation. It includes performing an activity because the individual consciously appreciates the act and attaches personal importance to it. The most mature and self-directed category of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation which happens once an individual has evaluated the identified regulators and has fully aligned them with his values and needs. Then the behaviour becomes self-directed, autonomous, and not controlled by an external influence (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Slemp et al., 2020). This implies that strictly controlled behaviour can eventually become internalised over time, leading to a shift in motivation (Slemp et al., 2020). The conventional perception of extrinsic motivation as a simplistic, single-dimensional concept has been called into question by the Self-Determination Theory. According to Fischer et al. (2019), the theory indicates that the contradictory findings on

the effects of extrinsic motivation in previous research may be due to differing perspectives and contexts.

Evidence from current studies indicates that individuals are more prone to internalise external regulations when their fundamental psychological needs are fulfilled (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Slemp et al., 2020). Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that a workplace that is autonomy-supportive positively influences the fulfilment of basic psychological needs and therefore enhances workers' motivation and welfare (Abós et al., 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In the opinion of Ryan and Deci (2000), autonomy support in a work environment involves supervisors giving workers meaningful justification for the tasks they are expected to do, being approachable and receptive to their opinions, enquiries, and initiatives, recognizing worker's emotions concerning tedious and boring assignments, and providing workers with choices on the tasks they do, when to do them, and how the tasks are to be accomplished (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2002). Studies abound in the educational setting indicating that when teachers provide an autonomy-supportive learning environment, (by considering the students' views, providing them with choices, reducing demands on the students, and considering their feelings), it positively impacts students' achievement (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Recent studies suggest that a similar relationship exists between principals and teachers and that teachers will thrive where the principal provides an autonomy-supportive environment (Power & Goodnough, 2019; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). One could argue that persistence and success are more likely to occur when workers (such as teachers) are guided by supportive leaders rather than controlling or commanding ones.

Numerous studies conducted in this area have concluded that autonomous regulation brings about positive results for the individual and the organisation (Gagné, et al., 2015). Employees (teachers) who are autonomously motivated are happier, more energised and experience less burnout (Gagné et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2020). In the workplace, autonomously motivated employees are more productive, show greater persistence and commitment to their work and are more likely to meet the requirements of their jobs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It has also been argued that autonomously motivated employees record reduced truancy and have lesser turnover intentions (Gagné et al., 2015; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

In brief, according to proponents of SDT, meeting the competence, autonomy, and relatedness needs in the workplace (school environment) can have a positive influence on school outcomes including teacher motivation (Kaur & Noman, 2020). Empirical evidence is increasingly supporting the tenets of SDT in various fields such as sports, education, health, and psychological economics (Gagné et al., 2015). When individuals feel their fundamental psychological needs are fulfilled, they become autonomously motivated to perform and achieve excellent results. (Roth, 2014). Ryan and Deci argue that teachers' optimal performance is linked to their autonomous motivation, effective involvement, emotional and social adjustment, and positive impact on their surroundings. To attain optimal professional efficacy, teachers must have their psychological needs fulfilled (Kaplan et al, 2022; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Understanding the different degrees of autonomous and controlled motivations for behaviours could contribute knowledge on the extent to which people (teachers) will persevere or discontinue a behaviour for an extended time (Hagger et al., 2014). With teacher turnover, Kaur and Noman (2020) suggest that school principals can sustain teachers' interest in the

teaching profession by creating a work climate that enhances and supports the fulfilment of their fundamental needs (Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

Self-determination theory was selected as one of this study's foundational frameworks based on its significant contribution to the understanding of motivation in the workplace. SDT is widely adopted in work-related contexts, and research consistently shows a strong correlation between fulfilling the three fundamental psychological needs and achieving positive outcomes in work settings (Olafsen, 2016). This concept serves as a valuable tool for both employers and employees, offering insights into how to motivate and cultivate their workforce effectively while also promoting success in the workplace (Olafsen, 2016).

Unlike many other humanistic theories that primarily focus on identifying the triggers of motivation, SDT goes a step further by addressing both the triggers and the various types of motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). SDT's credibility is bolstered by its extensive use of empirical evidence to substantiate its claims, a practice that has endured for more than three decades (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Furthermore, it has been suggested that leadership approaches and workplace support play pivotal roles in nurturing the three essential psychological needs of employees, thereby amplifying their sense of autonomous and self-directed motivation (Slemp et al., 2018; Kaur & Noman, 2020; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Burns's Leadership Style Theories

In the quest to identify ideal leadership styles for motivating followers to optimal productivity in organisations, a significant growth in leadership research was recorded in 1980 resulting in the emergence of new forms of leadership styles. Notable among these contemporary leadership styles is the Transformational Leadership Theory of Burns (1978). The leadership

styles advanced by Burns in this theory and later widened by Bass and Avolio (1991) form the second major underlining theories for this study.

Burns (1978) maintains that leadership is defined based on the effect it has on others. He identified two leadership concepts – transactional and transforming leadership**.** 'Transforming leadership' as it was initially called was later changed to transformational leadership by other researchers though the basic concept remained as Burns proposed. Burns argued that transactional leaders lead through an exchange of values; transforming leaders nurture the development of their followers, motivating and inspiring them to attain exceptional outcomes. Bass added Burns' initial ideas in 1985 and suggested an integrative theory of organisational leadership. Avolio and Bass further worked on the theory, and it was from there that the Full Range Leadership emerged.

Transformational leadership. A transformational leader is described by Burns (1978) as one who inspires subordinates to put in additional effort and perform beyond their expectations (Yukl, 2015). In agreement with this assertion, Money (2017) noted that transformational leaders are those who motivate their adherents to accomplish extraordinary outcomes while also improving their leadership skills. Burns also proposed that transformational leadership emerges when leaders and their adherents encourage themselves to attain higher ethical and motivational standards. Transformational leaders possess the capacity to influence their followers through the strength of their vision and character, into redefining their goals, expectations, and motivations, and work towards a shared objective (Burns, 1978). As explained by Bass and Avolio (1995), followers of a transformational leader revere, trust, appreciate, admire, and are loyal to the leader.

Leaders using transformational leadership empower followers, respond to followers' needs, and align the followers' goals with the organisational goals. Such leaders foster the growth and development of their followers into leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2008). These leaders are described as charismatic people who lead by motivating, encouraging, energizing, and enabling their followers (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2002). A transformational leader comes up with transformative vision and ideas that transcend what others are thinking, with the energy and enthusiasm to convey the vision and to support followers in manners that will invigorate them and ingrain a feeling of importance towards the vision and ideas. Transformational leaders influence their followers' standpoints, inclinations, and aspirations to align with the goals of the group or organisation (Bass, 1985).

Leaders who adopt this type of leadership are visionary (Bass, 1990). They create a vision for the organisation and use inspiration to entice their followers to embrace it. They are known as positive role models, and many of their admirers look up to them. They equally inspire by stimulating follower self-efficacy so supporters believe that they can exceed expectations (Burns, 1978). By their visionary qualities and exemplary character, transformational leaders alter the perceptions, morals, values, expectations ambition, and motivations of their followers and influence them to pursue shared objectives (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). They assist their followers to develop into leaders and in the process, advance their leadership competencies (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leadership has become a focal point for scholars in various fields, such as public and private sectors, health, sports, military, politics, and education, as it is considered a powerful approach to leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2008; Bass, 1985). In a study conducted by

Bass and Riggio (2008), it was found that employees flourished when workers believed their employers had more transformational leadership traits. As claimed by Bass et al. (2003), a transformational leader creates social and personal ties with the followers whilst maintaining the mission and objectives defined by the organisation. Commitment, engagement, and productivity are improved when the leader forms a bond with the followers (Bass et al., 2003).

In their everyday interactions with employees or followers, transformative leaders can move followers beyond personal interest through the display of four attributes: (i) inspirational motivation, (ii) individualised consideration, (iii) intellectual stimulation, and (iv) idealised influence. These four attributes are considered as transformative leadership characteristics (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 1991).

Inspirational motivation is described as giving subordinates challenges and providing a rationale for taking part in the shared objectives of the organisation, promoting team spirit and teamwork which ultimately enhance institutional goal accomplishment (Money, 2017). A leader can convincingly communicate his vision enough to inspire the followers to work towards accomplishing the vision (Almintisir et al., 2013; Bass & Riggio, 2008; Eyal, 2011). Leaders' actions encourage people around them by giving meaning to their work and introducing stimulating challenges (Bass et al., 2003).

According to Yukl (2015), leaders demonstrate individualised consideration by offering support, mentoring, coaching, and counselling in a respectful and dignified manner. This involves considering the unique needs of each follower and treating them based on their capabilities, which in turn can contribute to the evolvement of followers into future leaders (Almintisir et al., 2013; Eyal & Roth, 2011). Transformational leadership involves giving

followers feedback in a way that is suited to each person's needs as well as encouraging them to achieve goals that are of interest to organisations and followers alike (Bass, 1985). The constructive feedback the leaders provide helps to elevate the follower's self-confidence (Almintisir et al., 2013). Through mentoring, followers' competencies and potential are developed.

Leaders' ability to encourage followers to think critically and challenge presumptions is known as intellectual stimulation. Leaders inspire their followers to analyse problems directly to arrive at innovative solutions to challenges (Eyal & Roth, 2011). Intellectual stimulation sees transformational leaders challenging perceptions, taking risks, and seeking the ideas of adherents. Through stimulation, they identify and recognise creativity and innovation in followers. As followers try out new methods and creative ways of solving problems, the leader encourages and works with them (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Kark et al., 2018). Empirical data back up the premise that transformational leadership fosters creativity and enhances organisational success (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Followers are not ridiculed or criticised publicly if they make a mistake. A transformational leader inspires supporters to solve problems on their own and encourages them to think for themselves. This boosts supporters' autonomy (Bass et al., 2003).

Finally**,** idealised influence alludes to the leaders who exhibit charismatic traits towards their followers. A leader portrays idealised influence by gaining his follower's admiration, respect, and trust. Bass (1985) contends that when the adherents develop trust in the leader, they ultimately commit to the vision of the leader. His behaviour makes his followers consider him a role model (Yukl, 2015; Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders achieve this by prioritising the

interests of the followers over their interests, sharing risks with them, being consistent in making the best decisions, and showing high ethical standards of moral and good conduct. The behaviours of these leaders resonate with their followers, and they are inspired to emulate them.

These four characteristics define a transformational leader. The more attitudes the leader shows that correlate with these four dimensions, the more the leader is viewed as a transformational leader.

However, transformational leadership has drawn criticism from some academics. Yukl (1999 cited in Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013) opined that the transformational leadership theory lacks an adequate description of situational variables. It assumes that leadership practices and effects remain constant across all situations. Bass (1990) proposed that transformational leadership benefits both followers and organisations, irrespective of the situation. However, research has demonstrated that situational factors can determine how transformational leadership affects followers and work outcomes (Yukl, 1999, cited in Odumeru and Ifeanyi, 2013). Yukl further decried the dearth of research on how transformational leadership affects teams, work groups, and organisations, and stressed that it was unclear what the fundamental mechanism of leader influence at work in transformational leadership was. Along with other writers, Yukl observed that the concepts of idealised influence and inspirational motivation overlap.

There is an ongoing debate on the efficacy of the four dimensions as proper representations of transformational leadership. According to Alatawi (2017), these four elements may not be exclusive to transformational leadership and may not fully capture the impact of this leadership style due to their correlation with other styles, such as transactional and laissez-faire.

There is little theoretical evidence to differentiate between the four factors or describe how leaders use them to influence their followers (Alatawi, 2017).

It is worth noting that many of these criticisms are subject to debate and interpretation and that transformational leadership remains a popular and widely studied leadership style despite these critiques.

Transactional Leadership. Structure, monitoring, control, teamwork, and trade-offs between leaders and followers are all key components of transactional leadership, often known as managerial leadership (Dwibedi, 2016). This style of leadership concentrates on task performance and motivates followers via rewards and penalties (Xenikou, 2017). The transactional leadership style is concerned with organising and supervising group and organisational productivity. Arnold (1998, cited in Omoankhanlen et al., 2014) opined that "Transactional leaders conduct their business by identifying the needs of their followers and bestowing rewards satisfying these needs for certain appropriate performances" (p. 16). This form of leadership implies that followers agree to a contract to perform tasks at defined standards in return for incentives, resources, appreciation, or avoidance of punishment. Rewards and appreciation were granted to followers who performed their roles and tasks effectively (Bass, 1985). A transactional leader ensures that things are kept on track by monitoring individual success, promoting group activities, and providing rewards when targets are met. Clarifying goals and giving recognition whenever targets are met may contribute to the accomplishment of expected levels of productivity by individual workers and teams (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leadership encourages followers to be obedient to and reliant on the leader and his or her decisions and does not necessarily motivate them to devise novel ways of

resolving challenges (Kark et al., 2018). In transactional leadership, employees work best when the hierarchy of authority is clear and unambiguous; where rewards and penalties serve to motivate staff; when obedience to the leader's orders and commands are the main objective of the adherents; and when the adherents must be closely watched to guarantee that expectations are accomplished (Sultana et al., 2015). Under transactional leadership, rewards and punishments are determined by the performance of the followers. The relationship between leaders and workers is viewed by the leader as a trade: The leaders provide workers with something in exchange for output. Employees who perform successfully receive rewards. If they perform poorly, they are penalised in some way. Rules, regulations, and standards are essential elements of transactional leadership (Sultana et al., 2015).

Transactional leaders enforce rules, recognise achievement, and penalise failure. They can achieve this through close observation of their followers' performance (Bass & Bass, 2008). Transactional leaders, however, do not operate as catalysts for growth and change inside an organisation. Their focus, rather, lies in preserving the current situation and defending the existing rules and regulations. The efficacy and productivity of a company are enhanced by the norms and expectations set by these executives. Sultana et al. (2015) opine that such leaders routinely give followers constructive feedback on their performance, allowing them to improve their productivity and get better feedback and rewards.

Three dimensions characterise transactional leadership. They include (i) contingent rewards (ii) active management-by-exception (iii) passive management-by-exception (Sultana et al., 2015).

A contingent reward is described by Xenikou (2017), as a constructive activation and a contract-based method where leaders explain task expectations and success criteria for meeting targets, as well as what the follower stands to gain (reward) for accomplishing those targets. In agreement with this, Bass (1990) stated that in contingency reward, subordinates are assured of fitting compensations by their leaders if an assignment is effectively finished and likewise will be criticised or penalised for disappointing performance or inability to complete a task. Transactional leaders who demonstrate the contingent reward dimension explicitly set targets and standards for accomplishing the goals (Breevaart et al., 2014; Sultana et al., 2015).

Contingent reward implies that for a leader to maintain the trust of the follower he/she must be ready to provide the agreed rewards when the follower accomplishes the specified task as required. Contingent compensation aims at motivating employees to successfully carry out assigned tasks as required and within a specified time limit (Sultana et al., 2015; Breevaart et al., 2014). In the opinion of Xenikou (2017), when it comes to organisational results, the contingent reward performs better than the other two dimensions of transactional leadership because it reflects the commitment required to build and sustain organisational culture, workers' sense of having what they merit, as well as motivation to work hard for their objectives.

The leader practising active management by exception keenly monitors workers' performance for errors and deviations, anticipating potential challenges, and taking proactive measures to address them before they escalate into significant issues (Omoankhanlen et al., 2014). These leaders do not motivate people to go above and beyond what is required of them. Both managers and staff would be satisfied if the goal is met and the system is under control (Kark et al., 2018).

Passive Management by Exception describes a leadership style where leaders primarily observe from the sidelines and only step in when errors occur, established guidelines are disregarded, or performance falls below anticipated standards Omoankhanlen et al., 2014; Sultana et al., 2015). According to Bass (1990), relying heavily on this type of transactional leadership approach can lead to mediocre results especially if a leader intervenes solely when significant deviations from established procedures and task standards are evident (Bass, 1990). The underlying principle of passive management by exception is that only substantial variations, whether positive or negative, warrant managerial intervention.

The literature stresses that transactional leadership serves best when problems are clear-cut and precise and it is regarded as ideal in emergencies and stressful circumstances where the completion of certain duties must be prioritised (Richards, 2020). By assigning defined tasks to particular individuals, leaders can ensure that things get done (Sultana et al., 2015; Bass, 1985). Before transformational leadership theory was introduced to the literature, experts believed in the efficacy of transactional leadership and adjudged it the best leadership style for businesses because transactional leadership is results-oriented, follows an organisation's current structure, and evaluates performance using the organisation's incentives and penalties scheme (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). In an organisation, transactional leaders have formal authority and responsibilities.

The most popular method of evaluating employee performance is by using performance appraisals. Competent employees, who are inspired by incentives, perform better under transactional leaders. Transactional leadership ensures that an organisation's status quo is preserved (Kark et al., 2018). This type of leadership can be advantageous when prompt action is

required. As opined by Omoankhanlen et al. (2014), “transactional leadership is better embraced in crisis and emergencies, as well as when work needs to be carried out in a specific fashion” (p. 16).

While this type of leadership style can be advantageous in some circumstances, it is often regarded as ineffective in promoting sustainable motivation and may limit the potential of both leaders and followers. For instance, transactional leadership is viewed as neither fostering innovation in followers nor encouraging followers to come up with fresh solutions to issues. (Bass, 1985). Bass (1990) stated that in many cases, transactional leadership is a recipe for mediocrity, especially where the leader uses mostly passive management by exception, intervening with his or her team only when there are deviations from procedures and standards for completing tasks. Burns' (1978) theory states that transactional leadership strategies encourage followers to interact with the leader in brief exchanges. These relationships typically include transient, fleeting displays of pleasure and frequently end in resentments between the individuals. Transactional leadership is criticised for placing less emphasis on fostering relationships with co-workers and team members and for frequently not considering the emotional needs of members (Richards, 2020). Numerous academics have criticised this leadership theory for disregarding the situational and cultural elements related to organisational difficulties. It employs a universal perspective for the development of leadership theory, which is believed to be unsuitable for all situations (Yukl, 1999, cited in Odumeru and Ifeanyi, 2013).

Table 2. 1

Comparison: Transformational vs. Transactional Leadership Styles

Aspect	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
Definition	Relies on formal authority, strict regulations, and incentives/penalties. Emphasises monitoring, organisation, and productivity (Abun et al., 2022).	Focuses on motivating followers to support a common vision, think creatively, and develop leadership potential (Bass & Riggio, 2008).
Motivation Approach	Emphasises value exchange and compliance with established standards and contracts (Burns, 1978). Leaders offer rewards for achieving agreed objectives (Bass, 1985).	Goes beyond value exchange, aiming to increase motivation and improve performance and fulfilment (Bass, 1985).
Leadership Characteristics	Leaders maintain strict control, monitor the quality of work, and appraise individual and team performance (Eyal & Roth, 2011). Followers are expected to adhere to regulations and execute their duties (Eyal & Roth, 2011).	Leaders set examples for followers, encourage responsibility, and foster innovation (Abun et al., 2022). They inspire change, communicate clear visions, and set challenging objectives (Abun et al., 2022).
Outcome on Followers	This may result in a productive and efficient workplace. Followers primarily follow instructions and are not necessarily encouraged to be innovative (Eyal & Roth, 2011).	Fosters innovation, and creativity, and aligns individual goals with the team's objectives. Encourages personal development (Abun et al., 2022).
Relationship Duration	Typically built on contractual commitments, may be short-term (Bass, 1990).	Built on loyalty and trust, often leading to longer-lasting relationships (Bass, 1990).
Motivation Emphasis	Relies on extrinsic motivation, such as rewards and penalties (Northouse, 2016).	Inspires individuals to exceed expectations, relying on intrinsic motivation (Northouse, 2016).

In summary, while the two leadership styles have their merits, they differ in their approach to motivation, leadership characteristics, and outcomes for followers. Transactional leadership focuses on value exchange and compliance, often resulting in efficiency but lacking

innovation. In contrast, transformational leadership goes beyond value exchange, fostering innovation and personal growth, and building longer-lasting relationships based on loyalty and trust. Therefore, it seems plausible that transformational leadership would likely have an impact on employees' behaviours and motivation by encouraging innovation, trust, and honesty while transactional leadership would impact behaviour through incentives.

The Concept of Leadership

Researchers have had differing interpretations of the concept of leadership over time. There is not a generally acknowledged meaning of leadership among scholars, with some definitions being more objective than others (Yukl, 2015). From the past belief that people were born with inherent leadership qualities, the definition of leadership has progressed to current times, where diverse definitions of leadership have emerged alongside differing views on what constitutes effective leadership largely due to the complexity of leadership itself (Daft, 2018).

A leader has been defined as one who envisions the future, unites followers with that vision, and encourages and motivates followers to overcome challenges and realise the future goal (Kotter, 2001). Leadership involves a process in which a person influences other people towards attaining a shared goal (Northouse, 2019). Armstrong (2021) argues that leadership is focused on inspiring and directing human beings towards the right direction to accomplish their goals. Leadership is alternatively described as the capacity to inspire individuals, encouraging them to work collectively towards shared goals (Kouzes & Posner 1991, cited in Abun et al., 2022). Daft (2018) explains that leadership is an association of influence between leaders and their subordinates intending to achieve tangible results that align with their common objectives.

From these varied opinions, it becomes apparent that any leadership situation is composed of three essential elements. These components are the leader, the follower(s), and the situational aspect of their environment, the three are intricately connected and interact dynamically (Dinibutun, 2020). A competent leader understands how to leverage the inherent potentialities of their personality, their followers, and the prevailing circumstances. Thus, one can interpret leadership as the capability to engage others in pursuing a goal within a broader system or environment (Dinibutun, 2020).

Making a distinction between management and leadership is a key issue for leadership studies because management is frequently used interchangeably with 'leadership', but it is distinct from "leadership" (Northouse, 2019; Bass & Bass, 2008).

Leadership and Management

There is constant discussion about the differences between management and leadership in literature. People often assume that anyone in a management role automatically qualifies as a leader, but this is not usually the case. Kotter (2001) noted that certain individuals may excel in managerial roles but struggle to demonstrate good leadership abilities while some possess strong leadership potential but encounter difficulties in developing robust managerial skills. Although managers and leaders both influence people to accomplish specific goals, there are some notable differences between the two roles (Northouse, 2019; Bass & Bass, 2008). The contention is usually the extent of the overlap (Yukl, 2015).

Management can be defined as the achievement of organisational objectives proficiently and productively through organizing, planning, staffing, directing, and regulating resources within the organisation (Daft, 2018). The goal of management is to deal with complexities

(Kotter, 2001). Without proper management, complex companies frequently devolve into a state of chaos that jeopardises their survival (Kotter, 2001). Effective management helps to bring important aspects of the business, such as product quality and profitability, into some degree of order and consistency. According to Kotter, leadership entails (i) creating a vision for the company, (ii) communicating with employees to get them to align with the goal, (iii) emancipating individuals and addressing their basic needs to motivate them into performing. The distinctive behaviours of management and leadership are shaped by two unique tasks - dealing with change and dealing with complexity (Kotter, 2001).

Abraham Zaleznik was the first academic to take a position on this subject, as stated by Lunenburg (2011). As per Zaleznik, leaders and managers both make major contributions to a company, albeit in different ways. Leaders advocate innovation and new approaches, while managers favour consistency and maintaining the existing state of affairs. In other words, leaders aim to accomplish long-term goals while managers seek to achieve short-term objectives (Lunenburg, 2011; Yukl, 2015). Further, managers carry out duties, wield authority, and are concerned about how tasks get done, whereas leaders are interested in understanding people's values and winning their support (Lunenburg, 2011).

In the opinion of Gardner (1990, cited in Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013), managers are depicted as occupying a leadership role within an organisation, overseeing its resources, wisely distributing these resources, and optimising the utilisation of personnel to achieve the best performance. The initial steps that organisations take to manage complexity include planning, budgeting, goal setting, and defining objectives for the future (often for the upcoming month or year). Alternatively, deciding on a course of action and developing a long-term vision together

with strategies for implementing the necessary changes to actualise that vision is the first step in leading an institution to positive change (Kotter, 2001). Kotter further stated that management increases its capacity to carry out its plan by staffing and organising. This entails establishing an organisational structure and a set of job roles to carry out the plan, recruiting competent and qualified individuals for those positions, informing those individuals of the plan, delegating responsibility, and developing systems to monitor execution. However, a comparable leadership activity is aligning individuals, which requires talking to people who can build coalitions of supporters committed to actualising the vision.

Lastly, management ensures the plan is accomplished through controlling and problem-solving. This involves detailed monitoring of results against the set plan using various tools like reports and meetings while ensuring that identified deviations from the plan are addressed and resolved promptly. But for a leader, inspiring and motivating others is essential to realising a vision. This is accomplished by appealing to basic but frequently disregarded human desires, ideals, and feelings to keep individuals moving forward on the right track irrespective of any obstacles to change (Kotter, 2001).

In sum, successful organisations need excellent management and strong leadership. Both management and leadership play a crucial role and need to be integrated efficiently to achieve optimal performance. This means that leadership should not be viewed as a replacement for management, but rather as a supplementary element to it (Daft, 2018). To keep up with the constantly evolving workplace, leaders who can question the status quo, inspire, and exert influence on team members are required (Lunenburg, 2011). Furthermore, managers are required to establish and maintain a productive workplace. Hence, as institutions struggle to develop

strong leadership, they should keep in mind that good leadership without effective management is often worse than the opposite. The major problem is combining excellent management with effective leadership to counterbalance each other (Lunenburg, 2011).

Leadership Theories and Models

Several scholars have made varied contributions to leadership studies, striving to uncover the most effective approaches to leading and attaining desired results. These contributions gave rise to countless theories, ranging from Great Man Theory to Contemporary leadership theories (Khan et al., 2016). Each of the theories has contributed to the understanding of the concept of leadership. The subsequent paragraphs will delve into the various theories and approaches.

Great Man Theory of Leadership. The idea that leadership is an innate quality is one of the first theories of leadership, and it remains prevalent in some areas today. The Great Man Theory originated from Thomas Carlyle in 1847 (Khan et al., 2016). This theory contends that great leaders inherently possess the ability to lead, they are not made (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Khan et al., 2016; Daft, 2018). These ideas frequently present leaders as heroic, mythical, and destined to assume leadership roles as circumstances demand. The phrase "great man" was employed because, at the time, leadership (particularly in the military) was viewed as being essentially a masculine trait (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Khan et al., 2016; Daft, 2018; Dinibutun, 2020).

Leaders are born with leadership abilities; they do not have to take any leadership training to acquire them. Leadership propensities run in the family and are therefore innate. In other words, they are inborn, or something that is passed down through the family from one generation to the next. Thomas Carlyle contended that great leaders stood apart from the general

population of mortals because of something about their anatomy, physiology, and personalities. They were compelled to take charge out of a natural desire for greatness and success. They were the first source of motivation, comfort, and support for people. Leaders like Mahatma Gandhi, Mao Tse Tung, Kamal Ataturk, Abraham Lincoln, General de Gaulle, and others are commonly used as examples of great leaders. They gained grandeur through providence and were born with the characteristics of great leaders. People like these were outstanding leaders in their era who wrote the pages of history. It is argued that because such people were born with leadership qualities and abilities, they would have become leaders in any event (Khan et al., 2016).

However, as time went on, it became clear that this theory of leadership was ethically faulty, just like that of Hitler, Napoleon, and others of a similar calibre, which questioned the veracity of the Great Man theory. These outstanding leaders lost their relevance and as a result, the growth of the organisations they led became stunted (Khan et al., 2016). Furthermore, the theory drew criticisms for the following reasons: It took a male-centric approach even though women have shown themselves to be excellent leaders; it contends that leadership is a natural trait that cannot be taught or learned.

It was also suggested that there is no scientific proof for the theory and the contextual and situational aspects that have an impact on the leadership process were ignored (Khan et al., 2016). A major drawback of the Great Man Theory is the ludicrous idea that certain individuals can become great leaders irrespective of their environment. This theory was later replaced by the trait theory which claims that certain characteristics can indicate a propensity for leadership (Khan et al., 2016).

Trait Theory. This proposition, which in some ways resembles the great man theory, contends that leaders have specific traits or characteristics that eventually distinguish them from followers (Bass, 1981). Trait theory identifies certain personality or behavioural features that leaders share. The word "trait" alludes to a range of personal qualities, comprising features of temperament, character, drives, and principles like extroversion, high energy levels, cognitive intelligence, self-confidence, drive, masculinity, dominance, and emotional intelligence (Yukl, 2015).

Scholars like Yukl (2015) believe that these traits, among others, are essential for leadership, and those who become effective leaders will have a good combination of them. Further, the theory describes the characteristics that contributed to some peoples' success as leaders, whether in business, politics, or the military. Therefore, to distinguish leaders from non-leaders, researchers were charged with defining a set of common innate characteristics that are shared by all (Yukl, 2015; Bass, 1990).

Many people questioned this idea because if certain characteristics are crucial for leadership, what explanation can be given for persons who display these characteristics but are not leaders? Researchers attempted to find evidence linking the possession of certain inherent traits with effective leadership. However, they were unable to establish the set of innate features that consistently separate leaders from followers. This resulted in severe criticism of the trait theory (Dinibutun, 2020). As a result of the inconsistencies observed in the connection between leadership qualities and effectiveness, researchers have pivoted their approaches to seek fresh insights into successful leadership. Rather than solely scrutinizing leadership traits, attention has turned towards investigating leaders' behaviours within the workplace environment.

Behavioural Theory. Behavioural theory was the next significant development in leadership research. This theory is centred on reviewing the kinds of behaviours leaders display while leading their followers. The approach attempted to identify effective leaders by concentrating on the behaviour of the leader instead of their outward appearance or any inherent personal features (Dinibutun, 2020). According to this notion, two efficient methods for individuals to learn how to lead are instruction and observation (Dinibutun, 2020). Behaviour is more easily learned than attributes, and most people may be able to develop into good leaders if they imitate the behaviours of effective leaders (Northouse, 2016). In other words, the behavioural leadership paradigm emphasises leaders' actions and contends that others can emulate these behaviours and become successful leaders.

Proponents of behavioural leadership theory have the view that how successful and ineffective leaders carry out their responsibilities, assign work to subordinates, interact with others, and communicate ideas are different. Ultimately, the behaviour of the leader impacts how well their followers accomplish tasks (Northouse, 2016). These scholars, therefore, concluded that task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviours are the key components of effective leadership (Northouse, 2016). Task-oriented leaders identify what outcomes are anticipated for a task and generally establish precise performance standards and targets that must be reached. These leaders take a more direct approach, plan out daily tasks, and keep a tight eye on the output of their subordinates. On the other hand, relationship-oriented leaders prioritise the creation of relationships. When employees are completing challenging jobs, they support and encourage them. They typically employ coaching and mentoring to guide and improve their subordinates when necessary (Northouse, 2016). Ultimately, this theory bases its idea of success

on the actual behaviours of a leader. Some models of this theory like the Ohio State studies will be discussed in more detail below.

The Ohio State Studies. As observed by Stogdill and Coons (1957, cited in Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018), researchers looked at several other theories after the leadership trait method failed to identify a single optimum set of leadership qualities before deciding to focus on leadership styles as a link between the behaviour a leader exhibits and the contentment and productivity of his/her followers. The outcome served as a launching pad for the advent of behavioural leadership theories, which spanned from 1940 to early 1960. The Ohio State University Leadership studies were among the well-known research projects that focused on evaluating how the leader acted when in control of a team or organisation's workforce. Thus, Daft (2018) opined that the Ohio State University Leadership Study concentrated on how leaders could meet the shared needs of a group.

The Ohio State University study revealed two comprehensive categories of leader behaviour types: *consideration and initiating structure* (Dinibutun, 2020). Consideration alludes to how much a leader gives attention to the followers by recognising their opinions and feelings, avidly working to ensure rapport, seeking their suggestions, effectively listening to them, liaising with them on significant issues or solving problems, conveying a clear willingness to consider suggestions, and regarding them as peers); *initiating structure* on the other hand is the degree of task orientation exhibited by a leader such as describing the duties of the team members and guiding their work activities toward desired results, exercising "iron hand" discipline, criticising sub-standard work, stressing the significance of meeting deadlines, and proposing fresh solutions to issues.

A leader's behaviours may exhibit different combinations of the two categories. The combination might be either low or high in both categories or high in one category and low in the other. The research claims that any combination of the two categories would be successful (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018).

University of Michigan Models. Among the behavioural methods of leadership is Michigan Leadership Studies. Rensis Likert oversaw a group of University of Michigan scholars researching leadership early in the late 1940s to identify the behavioural traits of leaders that were connected to performance effectiveness (Robbins, 2001). The Michigan team observed and studied a disproportionately large number of supervisors in multiple plants. In the end, they concluded that *production-centred* and *employee-centred* behaviours are the two types of leadership behaviours (Robbins, 2001). Typically, employee-focused leaders will prioritise interpersonal interactions, demonstrate great awareness of the requirements of their subordinates and recognise individual differences in the employees. Such leaders give employees every necessary freedom and support. The welfare of their subordinates is a top priority for them. They are concerned with how the employee behaves, what drives employees to perform well and what makes them want to leave, as well as how to foster a collaborative working atmosphere. Such leaders believe that the well-being of the workers is more important than compelling them to complete tasks (Robbins, 2001). This is comparable to the consideration behaviour described in the Ohio State research.

The task-related aspects of work are typically the focus of production-oriented leaders. Such leaders equally pay great attention to clarifying work processes and generally treat the group members as merely a means of getting the task accomplished (Robbins, 2001). They are

more focused on getting the most work done in the shortest possible time. They believe that workers should put their all into their work. This behaviour is comparable to that which the Ohio State study classified as *initiating structure*.

The Michigan researchers heavily favoured employee-centred leadership practices. High group productivity and high job satisfaction were linked to leaders who value their employees (Daft, 2018). Likewise, production-oriented leaders were linked to decreased group productivity and lower work satisfaction (Robbins, 2001). In contrast to the University of Michigan study, which places leadership behaviours on a spectrum, the Ohio State model views the behaviours to be independent of one another (Dinibutun, 2020).

Theory X and Theory Y Professor Douglas McGregor, in 1960, introduced two distinct theories of leadership behaviour known as Theory X and Theory Y (Robbins et al., 2012). Theory X is characterised by the following foundational tenets: (a) the theory posits that the average individual inherently dislikes work and tends to avoid it whenever possible, (b) it suggests that organisations must use compulsion, instruction, and punitive measures to motivate employees due to their general aversion to work, (c) Theory X describes the 'typical' individual as one who prefers to be led and is disinclined to assume responsibility, prioritising stability over their ambition, and (d) Management aligned with Theory X involves strict supervision, well-defined job roles, and performance driven by the potential for punishment or enhanced remuneration (Robbins et al., 2012).

Managers operating under Theory X assumptions may exert autocratic controls, potentially leading to negative perceptions among followers. McGregor acknowledges the effectiveness of the "carrot and stick" strategy but argues that it fails when individuals' needs

primarily involve ego and social relationships. He advocates reconsidering the assumption that a manager's goal is to motivate obedience through rewards or penalties (McGregor, 1960).

Theory Y, on the other hand, posits several fundamental assumptions: (a) Expending effort at work is normal, and individuals do not inherently despise their employment (b) Coercion and punitive threats are not the only motivators; individuals driven to achieve goals will exercise self-control and self-direction (c) The rewards of achieving a goal determine a person's commitment to it, with some rewards obtained directly from work toward organisational goals (d) Responsibility is accepted and actively sought, often as a result of experience rather than inherent characteristics (e) The population, not just a small segment, is capable of creativity, originality, and invention to address organisational issues (f) The average person's intellectual potential is only partially utilised in modern industrial life (McGregor, 1960).

Theory Y promotes closer bonds between managers and employees, aiming to align individual needs and aspirations with those of the organisation. In a Theory Y management strategy, a conducive working environment, enjoyment of duties, and positive managerial behaviours such as encouragement, rewards, and positive feedback are emphasised (Robbins et al., 2012).

The Leadership Grid. The Leadership Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1985, focuses on two key leadership behaviours: "concern for people" and "concern for output" (Dinibutun, 2020). Concern for people reflects a leader's care for followers' requirements, concerns, and personal growth, while concern for output pertains to prioritising measurable goals, organisational success, and high performance (Dinibutun, 2020). The grid

rates leaders on a scale of one to nine based on these concerns (Dinibutun, 2020). Balancing both concerns is seen as crucial for team engagement and productivity (Islam & Bhattachar, 2019).

Leaders' behaviours are categorised as either people-oriented or task-oriented. People-oriented leaders prioritise autonomy, dedication, loyalty, and respect, building a teamwork culture, while task-oriented leaders emphasise effective work organisation and processes over people (Islam & Bhattachar, 2019). Leaders can be positioned along these axes based on their predominant category (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

The behavioural theory allows leaders flexibility and adaptability, enabling them to choose actions aligned with their desired leadership style (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018). However, it lacks specific guidance on behaviour in different circumstances, and no single style is universally effective (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018). Similar to Trait Leadership Theory, behavioural theories sought a one-size-fits-all approach, but neither adequately explained leadership success in all situations (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018). Critics argue that behaviours suitable in one context may not be applicable in others, overlooking follower and organisational situations (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018).

In summary, behavioural leadership theories, though providing insights into the relationships between people and tasks, failed to identify a universally effective leadership style. The emergence of contingency leadership theory in the 1960s highlighted the importance of contextual aspects in leadership effectiveness (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018).

Contingency Leadership Theory. During the 1960s, researchers began to place significant importance on the role of situational factors in leaders' effectiveness leading to the advent of the contingency leadership theories. This theory posits that unique circumstances call

for unique leadership styles. Therefore, leaders are expected to carefully consider and select the most appropriate style that aligns with the specific circumstances at any given time (Dinibutun, 2020). The advent of the contingency approach marked a turning point in leadership research by considering the personality of the leader as well as the setting in which the leader functioned (Shala et al., 2021). The contingency approach explains how to match leaders with the right conditions. The approach elaborated by Fiedler and his co-workers is the result of their research into several leadership situations, particularly in the military (Shala et al., 2021).

According to the Contingency theory, a leader's achievement hinges on the prevailing circumstances. Therefore, to determine a leader's effectiveness, it's crucial to understand the context in which they operate. Numerous elements influence a leader's success or leadership style in any given situation. Such elements include the type of work being performed, the temperament of the leader, as well as the traits of the adherents. Essentially, the central tenet is that a leader's accomplishment or lack thereof is reliant on the particular conditions present (Shala et al., 2021). Different models of contingency leadership exist some of which are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs. Although they appear to be identical on the surface, each of the contingency leadership models presents a different viewpoint on leadership.

Fiedler's Contingency Model. Fred Edward Fiedler proposed the Contingency Theory of Leadership in 1964, asserting that a leader's effectiveness is determined not only by their leadership style but also by the situational favourableness or control they have over circumstances (Shala et al., 2021). The theory emphasises the need for leaders to adapt their approach to the prevailing situation rather than trying to change their style to fit the circumstance (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

To apply Fiedler's Contingency Model, leaders evaluate their leadership style using the Least Preferred Co-worker scale (LPC). The Leadership Preference Check (LPC) helps determine the leader's preferred co-worker, indicating their leadership style (Shala et al., 2021). A high LPC score signifies a Highly Preferred Co-worker leader who values relationships, while a low LPC score indicates a task-oriented leader focused on achieving goals through positional authority (Shala et al., 2021).

The second part of the model involves determining "situational favourableness" based on three contextual variables: "leader-member relations," "task structure," and "position power" (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018; Shala et al., 2021). Leader-member relations involve the esteem, trust, and loyalty team members have for the leader, which is crucial for effective leadership (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018; Shala et al., 2021). Task structure pertains to the routine or non-routine nature of tasks, influencing the clarity of plans and solutions (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018). "Leader's Position Power" refers to the leader's authority over the group, including the ability to apply rewards or punishments and control over factors like hiring and promotions (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018).

The interaction of these three elements determines the success or failure of a leader's style in a given situation. Success is anticipated when these elements complement the leader's style, while failure may occur if there is a mismatch with the preferred task structure, member relationship, and power level. The theory suggests that enhancing leader-member interactions, optimising task structure, organisational size, technology, and adaptability to strategic changes can increase the effectiveness of leadership practices in contemporary organisational settings (Shala et al., 2021).

Hersey - Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory. In 1969, Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard introduced the Situational Leadership Paradigm, underscoring the significance of both leadership style and the maturity or preparedness of followers (Dinibutun, 2020). The theory posits that a universal leadership style does not exist, advocating instead for leaders to tailor their approach according to the maturity level of their team or individual employees, considering their skill and commitment (Shonhiwa, 2016; Northouse, 2019).

The Situational Leadership Model assesses followers' maturity levels and guides leaders to adjust their leadership style, accordingly, ranging from being unable or reluctant to complete tasks to being able and willing to do so (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2011). Northouse (2019) highlights the combination of directive and supportive qualities in this model, providing a structure for leaders to gauge followers' expertise and readiness.

Blanchard and Hersey's Situational Leadership Matrix outlines four leadership behavioural patterns: "telling," "selling," "participating," and "delegating," which can be applied depending on the context (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2011). "Telling" involves providing clear instructions, suitable for situations requiring constant supervision, while "selling" is used to persuade and motivate when employees lack motivation. "Participating" involves collaborative decision-making and is effective when team members possess the required abilities. "Delegating" is suitable when employees have both expertise and motivation, allowing them autonomy in decision-making (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2011).

Blanchard later refined the model into SLII leadership styles, recognizing four leadership styles with varying degrees of supporting and directing (Blanchard et al., 2013). These styles

include directing (S1), coaching (S2), supporting (S3), and delegating (S4), each with a specific emphasis on directive and supportive strategies (Blanchard et al., 2013).

Leaders are advised to assess the situation's complexity and the developmental stage of subordinates to determine the appropriate leadership style from the SLII model (Shonhiwa, 2016). Flexibility in leadership behaviour is crucial as subordinates may progress along the developmental spectrum, and the same approach may not be applicable in every scenario.

While Situational Leadership is widely used in leadership development, it faces criticism for its lack of substantial research support and uncertainty about its impact on productivity (Shonhiwa, 2016). Literature questioned the model's recommendations on aligning a leader's style with subordinates' development levels, suggesting that highly structured leadership is best for inexperienced followers, but the appropriateness for more seasoned subordinates is unclear. Furthermore, critiques of the model highlight its omission of considering the influence of demographic factors on leadership preferences (Shonhiwa, 2016).

Path-Goal Theory. Martin Evans developed the preliminary edition of the Path-Goal Theory in 1970, later advanced by Robert House, focusing on how leaders motivate followers to achieve goals rooted in the expectancy theory of motivation (Northouse, 2016). The theory posits that leaders adapt their style based on subordinate characteristics and environmental factors, aiming to address motivational factors and influence follower comprehension, effort, and performance (Bans-Akutey, 2021; House, 1971). Four leadership styles within this framework include Directive, Supportive, Participative, and Achievement-Oriented, employed based on follower characteristics and environmental factors (Northouse, 2016).

Directive leadership involves providing guidance and task allocation, suitable for close supervision, such as with new or inexperienced employees while supportive leadership prioritises a pleasant atmosphere and is suitable for staff with low morale (House, 1971). Participative leadership involves collaborative decision-making, empowering workers, and boosting effort whereas achievement-oriented leadership challenges team members with difficult goals, suitable for highly motivated individuals with good problem-solving skills (House, 1971).

This theory connects leadership behaviour to contingency factors, allowing leaders to choose the appropriate style to help followers realise goals and organisational objectives (Henkel & Bourdeau, 2018). It emphasises the leader's role in assisting subordinates in achieving predetermined objectives (Northouse, 2016).

While similar to the situational approach, the Path-Goal Theory distinguishes itself by focusing on leaders tailoring styles to motivational needs, not developmental levels (Northouse, 2016; Bans-Akutey, 2012). Critics cite the theory's complexity and lack of empirical support, but it has provided a foundation for studying situational aspects of leadership (Northouse, 2019). Despite shortcomings, the Path-Goal Theory contributes to understanding leadership and motivation dynamics (Northouse, 2016).

Contemporary Leadership Theories. Scholars could not agree on the optimum way for leaders to influence their followers considering the theories already discussed. This ultimately resulted in the emergence of ample novel theories between 1970 and 1980. These theories are collectively referred to as contemporary leadership theories.

Contemporary leadership theories have re-interpreted leadership as a dynamic and reciprocal process amongst people working toward the same goal. A significant amount of this

literature also portrays leadership as being innately concerned with increasing social welfare grounded in social responsibility (Komives & Dugan, 2010).

These leadership theories are focused on the examination of those leaders who can transform both their circumstances and those of others. With the publication of James MacGregor Burn's book on Leadership in 1978, the evolution of leadership theory perhaps had its most notable and drastic change to date (Komives & Dugan, 2010). This ground-breaking work re-defined leadership as being necessarily focused on follower growth and empowerment in addition to process orientation. Burns' study paved the door for countless additional theories that investigated leadership through an alternate viewpoint (Komives & Dugan, 2010). This, as claimed by scholars, signified a paradigm change in leadership theory, deviating from traditional or industrial outlooks toward viewpoints that are typified by collaboration, process orientations, reciprocal relationships, and systems-based organisational work techniques (House, 1977).

These new set of theories differ from earlier movements in the study of leadership in an important way which is that they place more emphasis on the emotive bond that leaders share with followers, as against previous theories that focused on the impact leaders had on the perceptions, levels of contentment, and productivity of their followers (Komives & Dugan, 2010). This concept contends that leaders are better able to shift followers' preferences, needs, principles, and objectives, away from their interests and toward group interests by analysing these emotional and motivational processes (House, 1977). Some key contemporary leadership theories are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory. Before the 1970s, the majority of the studies on leadership styles were grounded on the assumption that a leader would act uniformly towards all his

followers. However, a new leadership research approach put forth by Dansereau et al. (1975, cited in Osman & Nahar, 2015), argued that leaders should cultivate distinctive relationships and leadership styles with different workers rather than managing and leading everyone in the same manner. The leadership approach came to be known as the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) method, fundamentally changing the approach to leadership studies among scholars. It inspired them to investigate how particular leader-member interactions impact both individual and organisational performance.

This theory, usually referred to as the LMX was developed based on the VDL approach. LMX assesses the level of emotional assistance and sharing of valuable resources between a manager and their immediate subordinate. Simply put, it gauges the degree to which both individuals participate in a reciprocal social exchange process (Newman, et al., 2017).

Under the LMX concept, leaders create several dyadic bonds with their subordinates through social interactions. Instead of the leader having a relationship with the group, each subordinate's relationship with the superior is considered separately (Osman & Nahar, 2015). The quality of each relationship or connection will probably vary, therefore a leader may have strained interpersonal relationships with certain subordinates while having warm and reliable relationships with others (Lunenburg, 2010). Dyadic relationships in LMX are classified as either low quality or high quality depending on how the subordinates interact with their superiors and vice versa. Through diversified exchanges, leaders in LMX create unique engagements with each follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, cited in Osman & Nahar, 2015). Loyalty, trust, mutual influence, respect, and responsibility are typical characteristics of a high-quality connection.

In contrast, it is discovered that a low-quality connection is solely reliant on statutory job descriptions and contracts of employment (Kothari, 2004; Wang et al., 2019). In-group subordinates are persons or employees who enjoy excellent relationships with their managers or supervisors, whereas those whose interactions with their supervisors are of low quality are categorised as out-group (Wang et al., 2019).

Early in the dyadic interaction, a leader starts an interchange with a member of the group that is either in-group or out-group focused. To a large extent, in-group subordinates benefit from job latitude, including influence over decisions, open communication, opportunities for advancement and favourable considerations. The subordinate often responds in kind by putting in more time and effort than is necessary, taking on more responsibility, and showing dedication to the organisation's success (Lunenburg, 2010). Conversely, subordinates who fall within the out-group category are strictly monitored within the confines of their employment contracts. Authority is justified by the tacit agreement between the member and the organisation. The leader must support, consider, and provide help as required by duty, but they must stay within those bounds. These team members are regarded as hired hands influenced by lawful authority rather than real leadership because the leader is effectively engaging in a contractual exchange with them. In contrast to the ingroup members, the outgroup members will only perform the necessary tasks and will not be motivated to go beyond the minimum expected standards (Lunenburg, 2010).

A three-stage process known as a "life cycle model" characterises the development of the leader-follower connection (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, cited in Osman & Nahar, 2015). When leaders and members first meet, the "*stranger*" stage starts. In this strictly contractual

relationship, leaders supply what members require, while members carry out predetermined tasks. The second stage of the life cycle, "*acquaintance*," sees a rise in social interactions. As leaders and members share more information outside of work-related matters, their relationship starts to go beyond the formal obligations of their jobs. The relationship then advances to the *mature/partnership* stage, which is marked by more social interactions, mutual respect, understanding, a high level of trust, deep commitment as well as loyalty to one another (Wang et al.,2019).

The LMX process argues that leaders observe the characteristics, abilities, and competencies of their followers during the exchange process and evaluate whether they are qualified and competent to handle a particular role or task within the organisation. The fundamental concern for a follower is whether the leader can be trusted (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, cited in Osman & Nahar, 2015).

Charismatic Leadership Theory of Max Weber. Max Weber's investigation of political commitment serves as the foundation for the charismatic theory. The Greek origins of the term "charm" originally denoted divine favour. The word "charisma" was first used in sociology by Weber, a German Sociologist in 1920. Weber postulated three different types of authority: (a) legal/rational authority (b) conventional authority (c) charismatic authority (Breuilly, 2011). The German sociologist investigated why people obey authority, and the results were published in Economy and Society in 1922 after his death. Weber defines "charm" as the innate appeal, allure, and influence of a leader on his followers.

It is founded on the respect and admiration people have for someone's supernatural, heroic, or exemplary characteristics and the reliability of the normative guidelines or instructions

he discloses or offers (Breuilly, 2011). This is thought to be where the charismatic leadership theory began. Weber described charismatic leadership as the idea that a leader has a gift that has been given to them by the supernatural and is therefore special and greater than life (Yukl,1989). In addition to having faith in and respect for the leader, followers may even admire or revere the leader as a heroic or spiritual figure (Bass, 1985). Weber departed from the traditional view that power can be attained by one of three means: self-interest, fear, or habit. Rather, Weber claims that individuals obey a state or a leader because they assess the authority and believe it to be a legitimate source of power. The legitimacy of the leader is, therefore, relative to each subordinate.

Yukl (1989) asserts that when there are serious social upheavals, charismatic leaders emerge because they can capture the attention of the people and offer a radical solution to the problems they are facing. Charismatic leaders are typically skilled at communicating their vision and ideas to the masses, and they possess a magnetic personality that attracts followers. During times of social upheaval, people often feel uncertain and anxious about the future, and they may be more likely to gravitate towards leaders who can provide a sense of direction and purpose. Charismatic leaders are often able to tap into these feelings of uncertainty and offer a vision for a better future that resonates with people.

Charismatic Leadership Theory of House (1976). The goal of the charismatic leadership theory of Robert J. House in 1976 was to refine the concept into a testable hypothesis, transitioning it from a sociological or political science theory to a psychological one. House (1977) outlined the characteristics of charismatic leadership, emphasising the leader's behaviours, followers' attitudes, and the leader's characteristics that contribute to charisma.

Charismatic leaders exhibit strong convictions, ambition for power, and high self-confidence. They manage their image effectively to build followers' trust and confidence in their judgment, as issues or setbacks could otherwise erode followers' confidence (House, 1977).

According to House (1977), charismatic leaders communicate an inspiring vision aligned with ideological goals, fostering follower commitment. They articulate future goals related to group missions and shared beliefs, making followers' tasks more purposeful and stimulating. Charismatic leaders also serve as role models, influencing followers to adopt their beliefs and values, thereby impacting motivation, satisfaction, and commitment (House, 1977).

While charismatic leaders are more commonly found in struggling or start-up organisations, their ability to inspire dedication relies on followers believing in the achievability of high standards. Followers of charismatic leaders exhibit unwavering devotion, love, and a willingness to obey, highlighting the individual leader's importance in charismatic leadership (House, 1977). House argued that charismatic leadership is rooted in personal and behavioural characteristics, supporting Weber's notion that charismatic leaders rise to power through emotional excitement rather than fear or financial gain (House, 1977).

Charismatic Leadership Theory of Conger and Kanungo. Conger and Kanungo opted for a 3-stage model of charismatic leadership that entails a procedure for guiding organisations from the current situation toward a future state (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). The leader is identified as a charismatic leader based on the leadership qualities he or she exhibits.

The charismatic leader evaluates the current environmental situation critically, spotting opportunities as well as the followers' preferences, skills, needs, and degree of satisfaction in the first stage. Although not a characteristic of charismatic leaders, such evaluations are still crucial

for these individuals since they frequently take significant risks by proposing drastic changes. The capacity of charismatic leaders to aggressively seek out prevailing or possible flaws in the circumstances at this point sets them apart from non-charismatic leaders (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

A second stage follows the assessment stage. This stage involves the actual formulation and communication of goals. Conger and Kanungo (1998) claim that charismatic leaders can be identified based on the strategic visions they develop and how they communicate or present the visions. The phrase "vision" in this context refers to a projected objective that the leader hopes to see realised in the future (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). These leaders are excellent individuals worthy of respect, deserving of emulation by the followers due to these idealised and discrepant visions. Moreover, the greater the departure from the norm of the vision is, the more remarkable it is assumed to be (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

In the final stage, the charismatic leader is believed to excel when it comes to applying novel and unconventional strategies that are all geared toward realising the initially conceived and communicated vision. The leader instils confidence in the objectives and provides examples of how they can be accomplished. Personal leadership, taking chances, and unorthodox knowledge are used to achieve this. The remarkable thing about charismatic leadership is the leader’s persuasive ability and how this skill is utilised in achieving the desired goals. (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

James McGregor Burns’ Transformational Leadership Theory. With the publication of James MacGregor Burn's book on Leadership in 1978, the evolution of leadership theory witnessed its most notable and drastic change to date. This ground-breaking work redefined

leadership as focused on follower growth and empowerment in addition to process orientation. Burns' study paved the door for countless additional theories that investigated leadership through an alternate viewpoint, even though it was still considered very unorthodox in many ways. This, signified a paradigm change in leadership literature, departing from traditional perspectives of leadership to ones characterised by leader-follower collaborations and dynamic interactions.

As stated by Burns, two forms of leadership exist - transactional and transformative leadership. While transactional leaders offer material rewards to their followers in exchange for their work and loyalty, transformative or transformational leaders connect with their followers, emphasise their internal needs, and enhance their understanding of the significance of particular outcomes and original approaches to accomplish them. Transformational leaders proactively exhibit their leadership through actions such as imparting a sense of purpose to their followers, but transactional leaders tend to be more inactive (Odumeru, 2013). The two leadership styles are elaborated upon in the subsequent section.

Leadership Styles

"Leadership styles are the approaches used to motivate followers" (Dwibedi, 2016, P.15). In agreement with this definition, Ng'ethe et al. (cited in Belete, 2018), described leadership style as the specific behaviour a leader uses to inspire followers to accomplish organisation's goals.

Theories of leadership and leadership styles are very closely related. Leadership styles draw inspiration from one or more leadership theories. Hence, the leadership styles addressed here take inspiration from one or more of the theories covered in the preceding unit. Simply expressed, the focus of the current research is to determine how different leadership styles affect

some defined variables (which is the application of leadership theories). It is, therefore, vital to examine the various leadership styles from which an acceptable style can be chosen depending on the circumstance in which leadership is to be performed and the characteristics of the followers involved (Amanchukwu et al., 2015).

The first major study on leadership style was the research of Lewin, Lippitt and White in 1939 (Mugizi et al., 2019). This team of scholars under the direction of psychologist Kurt Lewin set out to classify distinct leadership ideologies and styles. Although more specialised leadership styles have evolved, this initial study had a substantial impact on the study and understanding of leadership styles. Kurt Lewin and his associates defined three major leadership styles, namely: authoritarian, democratic, and delegating leadership styles from their study which involved school pupils (Moorosi & Bantwini, 2016).

Lewin's study divided the pupils into three distinct groups, each characterised by a different leadership approach: autocratic (authoritarian), democratic (participative), and delegating (laissez-faire). The researchers then supervised the children as they worked on an art project and observed how the children reacted to the various leadership ideologies (Harms et al., 2018).

Authoritarian Leadership style. The authoritarian leadership style often alluded to as autocratic leadership is characterised by leaders exerting significant authority and control and at the same expecting unwavering obedience from subordinates (Wang & Guan, 2018). Autocratic leaders make independent decisions without involving followers and emphasise hierarchy and structure, maintaining a distinct line between themselves and their followers (Du et al., 2020).

In the opinion of Wang et al. (2019), authoritarian leadership is viewed negatively in the literature because it correlates unfavourably with task performance, team interaction, and employee behaviours, feelings, and perceptions. While some scholars contend that hierarchical authority can lead to adverse consequences, recent research suggests some potential positive impacts of this type of leadership on workers' behaviours (Schaubroeck et al., 2017, cited in Mugizi et al., 2019). Bass and Bass (2008) acknowledge the prevalent negative discourse surrounding autocratic leadership but underscore its potential advantages in reinforcing norms, fostering obedience, and taking responsibility. While not always the most preferred style, authoritarian leadership can be helpful in situations where followers require clear direction and strict adherence to rules and regulations (Bass & Bass, 2008).

However, the authoritarian approach, although beneficial in maintaining order and making quick decisions in crises, can lead to toxic environments, rebellion, and reduced creativity. Research findings propose that the implementation of authoritarian leadership tends to erode employees' confidence and trust in the leader, frequently resulting in shoddy performance (Wang et al., 2019).

As observed by Harms et al. (2018) and Du et al. (2020), authoritarian leadership styles persist in emerging markets and developing economies. This persistence may stem from cultural or historical factors, as some leaders may view this approach as essential for maintaining control and stability within their organisations or countries.

Democratic (Participative) Leadership Style. Democratic leaders encourage member involvement in decision-making while retaining ultimate authority. According to Lewin's study (Kılıçoğlu, 2018; Bass & Bass, 2008), though less prolific, individuals under democratic

leadership were considered to make higher-quality contributions. This leadership style aims to foster civil interactions, collaborations, and active cooperation (Vasileva & Datta, 2021). It values integrity, transparency, and empathy, emphasising the welfare and dignity of all members, particularly minority groups (Kılıçoğlu, 2018). Group members in a democratic setting feel a strong sense of belonging, find inspiration, foster innovation, and exhibit heightened dedication towards achieving goals as a result of their active participation in decision-making processes (Bass & Bass, 2008). Lewin's findings suggest that democratic leadership promotes high performance, engagement, and motivation more than the other types of leadership (Moorosi & Bantwini, 2016).

Delegative (Laissez-faire) Leadership Style. Lewin's study revealed that the least productive group of kids were those under delegative leadership, also known as laissez-faire leadership (Moorosi & Bantwini, 2016). In this style, leaders provide little guidance, leaving group members to make decisions independently (Vasileva & Datta, 2021). While suitable for highly skilled professionals, this approach often leads to vaguely defined roles and a lack of motivation, resulting in minimal progress and less work (Moorosi & Bantwini, 2016).

Bureaucratic Leadership Style. Max Weber, a German philosopher, lawyer, and economist, is credited with developing the bureaucratic leadership style, emphasising rules, procedures, hierarchy, and centralised decision-making for effective organisation and management (Abun et al., 2021). Bureaucratic leadership is characterised by strict adherence to rules, standardised processes, clear roles, hierarchies, and impersonal employee relationships (Abun et al., 2021).

Reynolds (2018, cited in Abun et al., 2021) identified six features of bureaucratic leadership: formal hierarchical authority, reliance on rules, division of labour, performance-based promotion, efficiency, and impersonality. In this system, decisions flow through a formal hierarchy, tasks are performed following established norms, employees have specific, limited roles, promotions are based on performance, efficiency is prioritised, and personal relationships are minimized (Abun et al., 2021).

Bureaucratic leadership promotes efficiency, particularly in large government organisations, the military, or environments with safety risks (Abun et al., 2021; Amanchukwu et al., 2015). It ensures consistency, predictability, and reliability, enhancing customer satisfaction due to clearly defined duties and expectations (Abun et al., 2021).

However, bureaucratic leadership has notable weaknesses. It can lead to excessive work processes, impeding decision-making and responsiveness to external changes (Hammel & Zanini, 2017, cited in Abun et al., 2021). The emphasis on rules may result in conflicts, hinder creativity and innovation, and limit collaboration and communication (Arshad et al., 2021). Employees may feel undervalued, avoid taking responsibility, and resist change, hindering adaptability and innovation (Hammel & Zanini, 2017, cited in Abun et al., 2021; Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Overall, while bureaucratic leadership provides clarity and structure, it may lead to inflexibility and hinder organisational adaptability and innovation.

Servant Leadership Style. The concept of servant leadership, initially proposed by Robert Greenleaf in 1977, prioritises followers' needs and focuses on the well-being and interests of the community (Canavesi & Minelli, 2022). Servant leaders exhibit a selfless dedication to the greater good, adopting a collaborative and supportive leadership style (Newman et al., 2017).

The idea is rooted in the belief that leaders should serve others rather than seek power (Hannay, 2009). Servant leaders inspire followers to achieve self-actualisation through dedicated service (Hannay, 2009).

Greenleaf extended the principle to groups and institutions, urging businesses to serve both clients and society. The origin of servant leadership can be traced back to biblical teachings, particularly those of Jesus Christ (Hannay, 2009). Greenleaf emphasises the importance of leaders listening and understanding others, showing empathy, having good foresight, employing personal power for persuasion, and focusing on future potential (Spears, 2010).

In summary, servant leadership underscores a leader's responsibility to attend to followers' needs, demonstrate empathy, provide support, and foster growth (Northouse, 2019). The effectiveness of a servant leader is measured by the positive growth experienced by those being served (Wheeler, 2011 cited in Asamoah, 2018).

However, some scholars criticise servant leadership for lacking empirical validation and being grounded in philosophical theory (Hannay, 2009). Critics question its applicability in modern individualistic work environments and argue that it may overlook individual skill variations and workplace animosity (Hannay, 2009).

Despite these criticisms, servant leadership, in recent years, has emerged as a particularly promising and extensively studied leadership style. This is attributed to its holistic approach and comprehensive focus, distinguishing it from other philosophies. Servant leadership has gained increased research attention which has been attributed to its strong influence on outcomes at the individual and team levels, such as organisational commitment behaviour, job performance, and job satisfaction (Canavesi & Minelli, 2022).

Full Range Leadership Styles. Burns's initial Transformational Leadership Theory was expanded upon by Bass and Avolio (1991) to create the Full Range Leadership style. As noted by Bass and Riggio (2006), many scholars acknowledge this leadership approach to be most successful in modern organisations. It incorporates a Laissez-faire leadership style in addition to the transactional and transformational leadership styles of Burns (1978) that have been extensively discussed under the theoretical framework.

Laissez-faire leadership Style. From a descriptive standpoint, Laissez-faire leaders avoid making judgments and concentrate on issues that need to be resolved (Bass, 1990). The laissez-faire leadership approach gives subordinates the authority to make decisions. It allows subordinates to pick work activities of their choice (Iqbal et al., 2021). It is assumed that a leader's participation could harm the needs of the workforce and poor outcomes may result from unnecessary leadership participation. Hence, this style of leadership is said to offer followers autonomy as well as a good learning opportunity (Iqbal et al., 2021). Self-leadership and psychological empowerment are produced by autonomy. On the strength of this claim, laissez-faire leadership may encourage a creative workplace that benefits employees. This method works amazingly well with highly driven and skilled employees but is inappropriate for inexperienced subordinates who lack the skill (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Nevertheless, Bass & Avolio contested Burns' claim that transactional and transformational leadership are fundamentally contradictory. They argued that every leader embodies elements of all three leadership styles to differing extents. However, a leader is typically characterised by the leadership style they most frequently demonstrate. (Bass & Avolio, 1991).

Distributed Leadership. Distributed leadership often referred to as shared leadership focuses on the delegation of leadership functions and responsibilities across multiple individuals and roles within an organisation (Spillane, 2016). Rather than concentrating leadership authority and decision-making in a single individual, distributed leadership recognises that leadership can and should be shared among various team members, each contributing their unique expertise and skills to achieve collective goals.

Within the realm of education, distributed leadership refers to the activation of leadership skills at all echelons within the school, to foster greater avenues for transformation and enhance the capacity for advancement (Leithwood et al., 2009). This approach underscores the significance of collaborative interactions and practices, as opposed to relying solely on the actions of individuals in formal leadership roles or bearing specific responsibilities (Sol, 2021).

The available body of evidence regarding its impact and influence has been consolidated in numerous publications (Leithwood et al., 2009; Harris, 2013). This mounting evidence consistently suggests a positive correlation between distributed leadership, organisational enhancement, and student achievements (Hallinger & Heck, 2009). Many of these research studies underscore the vital role of distributed leadership as a potential catalyst for positive transformation and school betterment.

Whereas the concept of distributed leadership has its detractors, contemporary literature consistently reveals a favourable association between collaborative leadership models and improved organisational performance. It demonstrates, for instance, that disparities in performance between high-achieving and low-achieving schools can be attributed to variations in

the degree of leadership distribution. High-performing schools tend to disperse leadership responsibilities effectively and broadly (Leithwood et al., 2009).

In summary, the existing evidence indicates that distributed leadership constitutes a significant element within the mix of factors contributing to enhanced organisational outcomes. While there are natural variations in the nature, quality, and extent of distributed leadership among different schools, it remains a noteworthy contributor to achieving high performance.

According to Hargreaves et al. (2014), in successful instances of distributed leadership, individuals exhibit a high degree of accountability and responsibility for their leadership contributions. In such environments, new leadership roles emerge organically, collaborative teamwork becomes the standard mode of operation, and interdependence is deeply ingrained in the organisational culture. Distributed leadership is fundamentally about the collective influence of various team members. It is not merely an incidental outcome in high-achieving organisations, but as previously emphasised, it actively plays a role in enhancing school performance and success (Hargreaves et al., 2014).

School Principals' Role and Responsibilities

Secondary school administrators in Nigeria are known as 'principals'. The duties of a principal require making use of practical skills like decision-making, negotiation, communication, conflict resolution, and conducting meetings. To achieve efficient and effective teaching and learning, the school principal must plan, organise, direct, supervise, and evaluate the entire school system. In the opinion of Gougas and Malinova (2021), principals serve as the visionaries, inspiring and leading their school units towards a shared future with the support of their colleagues, the teachers. In addition to this, they are responsible for ensuring that their

schools operate smoothly, providing guidance, motivation, and coordination for teachers and students alike. They are also the liaisons between the school and the central government, managing the school's finances, and promoting innovation and professional development for teachers. In essence, they serve as the hubs connecting all the groups that comprise the school unit, collaborating with everyone while also being ultimately accountable for any shortcomings or issues that may occur. Overall, their role is multifaceted and impacts not only their immediate colleagues but also the wider community (Gougas & Malinova, 2021). The principal is responsible for setting goals and objectives according to the national goals, analysing tasks, sharing responsibilities with staff in line with each person's expertise, and acting as a problem-solver, advisor, coordinator, and controller. Ultimately, the achievements or otherwise of a school are primarily attributed to the effectiveness of the principal, who plays both managerial and instructional leadership roles (Kotirde et al., 2014; Gougas & Malinova, 2021; Bamire & Adelabu, 2018). While achieving the objectives of a school is a collective responsibility, it is the consistent efforts of the principal that bring them to fruition.

Previously, a school principal's primary responsibility was to provide administrative support for day-to-day operations, but recently, school administrators' responsibilities have been steadily changing to satisfy the diverse needs of the 21st century. Today's school administrators are responsible for providing a supportive learning environment, ensuring good moral standards, equitably managing a disparate workforce, innovation, excellence in teaching, teacher motivation, technology (Gougas & Malinova, 2021) and the overall development of the student, innovation, coordination of all the resources of the institution (human and material), providing a conducive climate that fosters teacher productivity and student achievement, and redesigning the

school culture to satisfy the increased expectations of stakeholders (Kaur & Noman, 2020; Olugbenga, 2019). With all these responsibilities, a school principal can conclusively be tagged the ‘school leader’. Effective leadership in schools must focus on addressing all factors affecting teachers’ performance because this is critical to the learning outcomes of students (Kotirde et al., 2014; Bamire & Adelabu, 2018; Leithwood et al., 2020).

In summary, the overarching responsibility of the principal centres on creating and sustaining a conducive and healthy school atmosphere and providing support to teachers that will motivate and keep them engaged in the work and dedicated to the learners. Therefore, leaders of schools are expected to discover an effective leadership paradigm which will foster the utmost accomplishment of the educational objectives in the school.

Principal’s Leadership Style

Schools like any other organisation require effective leadership to thrive. School leadership entails motivating teachers and other employees of the school to accomplish organisational objectives, and improve student academic performance (Bamire & Adelabu, 2018). Teachers function well under some leadership philosophies. The principal should therefore recognise the unique needs of the teachers and try to meet these demands through his or her leadership style.

The way a leader delivers instructions, executes plans, and motivates followers to attain organisational goals is referred to as their leadership style (Abun et al, 2022; Kiboss & Jemiryott, 2014). Thus, a school principal's behaviour patterns employed in the attempt to influence teachers, students, and other school employees and make decisions about the objective, plans, and execution of group activities is regarded as his/her leadership style (Kiboss & Jemiryott,

2014). Without the right leadership style, schools would struggle to grow and flourish. Teachers can also experience resentment, aggression, insecurity, and dissatisfaction under the wrong leadership style (Abiodun-Oyebanji, 2015).

Shamaki (2015) contends that a principal's leadership style extremely influences teacher effectiveness. Shamaki further asserts that when a principal's leadership style is incompatible with the duties of a teacher, it could make the teacher ineffective. How a principal manages staff behaviour, his or her interpersonal skills, the way he/she considers the staff, manages students' disciplinary issues, his/her approach to staff motivation, and staff welfare and development would most probably have an impact on teacher effectiveness (Shamaki, 2015). Scholars identified some leadership styles adopted by school principals. Boampong et al. (2016) noted, "There are leadership styles which are common to school leaders. Examples are autocratic leadership, bureaucratic leadership, charismatic leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and democratic leadership" (, p. 4). Other types of leadership practised in schools include visionary leadership, instructional leadership, community leadership, distributive leadership, servant leadership, Christian leadership, and leadership teams (Boampong et al., 2016).

The situation in Nigeria, however, is extremely complicated because many institutions including schools are entangled in a labyrinth of authoritarian hierarchies, traditional leadership methods, and bureaucratic power structures, laced with few contemporary leadership methods. In his research, Duze (2012) discovered that senior secondary school principals in Delta State, Nigeria, most frequently utilised the autocratic leadership style which oftentimes is regarded as an extreme form of transactional leadership. This could probably explain why students at secondary schools in Delta State, Nigeria, were recording poor academic results (Duze, 2012).

On the other side, Arokiasamy et al. (2016) believe that several school principals are starting to implement a school model of transformational leadership in schools because of its perception as a potent method of promoting and achieving school goals and stimulating constructive improvements in the educational sector. Money (2017) found from her study across all the geo-political zones in Nigeria that secondary school principals practice some aspects of transactional and transformational leadership styles.

The Concept of Motivation

A challenging decision managers make is how to create work environments that enable workers to perform well in their jobs (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016) because organisational success hinges largely on the effective use of assets and the willingness of the employees to achieve high-level productivity (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). That probably accounts for why motivation garners a lot of attention from researchers. Even so, various perspectives exist regarding what drives workers to achieve optimal productivity (Gagné et al., 2015). Scholars adopt diverse theories to establish these perspectives. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), although the term 'motivation' is commonly used, there is little agreement on its conceptual scope. This lack of consensus is because human behaviour can be influenced by varied elements. Consequently, researchers tend to focus on specific areas of interest and therefore, no existing theory of motivation has been able to comprehensively integrate all possible motivational categories (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Motivation is a very frequently studied field in education and psychology. In the opinion of Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), motivational research and theories revolve around fundamental inquiries: What drives individuals to make particular decisions? What motivates them to take

specific actions? What inspires individuals to invest energy and effort into tasks, and what sustains their persistence in performing certain actions? Ryan and Deci (2000) describe motivation as the drive to act, learn and evolve. Motivation has equally been described as "cognitive decision making in which the intention is to make the behaviour that is aimed at achieving a certain goal through initiation and monitoring" (David & Andrzej cited in Badubi, 2017, p. 45). Olusola (2011, cited in Jabeen et al., 2019) opines that motivation is important in the pursuit and fulfilment of an individual's needs, as well as in improving an employee's work output toward the achievement of organisational goals. Ofojebe and Ezugoh (2010) maintain that motivation is a dynamic, socially learned form of action that includes circumstances, needs, expectations, processes, and outcomes. Motivation covers the different facets of an employee's advancement to achieve personal and institutional objectives. People may be motivated to act because they enjoy the action or because of an external persuasive purpose (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Motivation is what encourages individuals to set goals, work hard to achieve them, and continue in the task regardless of the obstacles and challenges (Brown et al., 2009). It is also what drives employees to be more productive and engaged in their work, leading to increased creativity, innovation, and overall success for the organisation. Without motivation, individuals and organisations may struggle to achieve their goals and reach their full potential. Motivated individuals can tackle any task, no matter how challenging, trivial, or unattainable it may appear (Altheeb, 2020). Essentially, motivation plays a significant role in determining the reasons behind human behaviour, the level of persistence in that behaviour, the duration of engagement, and the intensity of pursuit (Brown et al., 2009).

In sum, literature has shown that a motivated workforce leads to superior performance in terms of achieving goals, efficiency, sustainability, competitiveness, and overall growth, both for the organisation and its employees (Nyberg et al., 2016, cited in Altheeb, 2020). These definitions of motivation have implications for task efficiency, engagement, persistence, and productivity.

To unravel the intricate concept of motivation, it is essential to explore several fundamental theories that provide valuable insights into the underlying mechanisms that propel human behaviour.

Theories of Motivation

Motivation theories are intended to provide an explanation of why a person (a teacher in this study) would act in a particular manner, perform at a certain level, or be fulfilled with his/her job enough to contemplate remaining in the teaching profession until retirement. Many theories offer a framework for motivating workers to carry out duties willingly and efficiently, and they also provide a foundation for the evaluation of the most effective motivational strategy from the perspective of the theorists. The earliest motivation researchers developed theories to comprehend the needs of people because they believed that human conduct is steered by attempts to satisfy needs. Such theories are classified as content or humanistic theories (Saif et al., 2012).

Content Theories.

The basic goal of this category of theories is to identify the mechanisms that direct and structure behaviour in humans. They are primarily interested in what motivates individuals and what kinds of rewards can improve workers' performance and fulfilment. Therefore, the standpoint of content theories is that a manager's responsibility is to recognise what workers

need and make the workplace an avenue for fulfilling these needs (Badubi, 2017). Details of some of this category of motivation theories are explicated in the paragraphs that follow.

Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Abraham Maslow introduced the hierarchy of needs theory in 1943. It is a prominent motivation theory in psychology that describes human needs in five stages represented in a pyramid hierarchically arranged. Each stage depicts a classification of essential human requirements from survival needs - to the last stage which is self-actualisation (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). In between these two stages are safety needs, social needs, and esteem needs, in that order. Maslow further classified these five-stage human needs into two – growth and deficiency. The highest level of needs falls under the category of growth needs, whereas the remaining four levels fall under deficiency needs, as they emerge from denial and become motivators when unfulfilled. The more time that passes without these needs being gratified, the more urgent the need to fulfil them becomes. An individual becomes more ravenous, for instance, the longer the person goes without eating. Following the hierarchy of needs, as soon as a need is gratified, it ceases to be a motivator (Badubi, 2017).

The *physiological needs* are the most fundamental of Maslow's needs theory, and they include biological essentials which the body requires to survive like the need for air, water, food etc. Until the need for this group of necessities is met, the human body will not operate at its peak (Uysal et al., 2017). Maslow contends that physiological needs should take precedence over all other needs since, without meeting them, all other needs are subordinate. This group of needs in the workplace reflects the employee's need for a tidy and practical workspace as well as a respectable wage. Management has the responsibility of providing employees with the means

to fulfil this need by offering them a reasonable and satisfactory salary or wage, as well as other incentives (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

As soon as a person's physiological needs are sufficiently met, they will stop acting as motivators, and the person instead will begin to seek the need for *security and safety* which is at the second level of the hierarchy. Maslow postulates that the average human desires to have a sense of control over their affairs as well as an orderly and consistent life. These requirements according to Maslow can be fulfilled by a person's family and society. For instance, physical safety, economic safety, social stability, freedom from fear, law enforcement, health, and well-being needs can be met by the police, schools, businesses, and good medical care (Badubi, 2017; Badom & Girigiri, 2021). To address these demands at work, employers should offer job security, and make the workplace safe, ensure that the facilities and other work implements are safe and in good condition. Employers should also give employees access to pension plans and union representation as well as health insurance schemes (Badom & Girigiri, 2021; Badubi, 2017).

After the satisfaction of physiological and safety demands, *love and a sense of belonging* will become necessary. Humans, as social beings, have an innate urge to interact with others. Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011), define this level as encompassing the fundamental needs for acceptance, intimacy, trust, love, family, and friendship. People desire to experience a sense of belonging and acceptance, to feel valued, cherished, and appreciated. Without these feelings, loneliness and unhappiness may ensue (Uysal et al., 2017). Further, Uysal et al. (2017) stated that a person's need for love and belongingness encompasses a wide spectrum of needs, including maternal love, love from a spouse and child as well as a feeling of being part of a

group or groups like clubs, churches, business organisations, etc. Roger (1970, cited in Uysal et al., 2017), argues that this need group is largely derived from the instincts of coexisting. If this need is left unfulfilled, it could hurt the mental well-being of the employee (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). To address this type of need, management can play a crucial role by allowing for social interaction and participation in group memberships, particularly within established informal groups and promoting collaboration among employees (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

Esteem needs constitute the next level of needs that emerge after love and belongingness needs are satisfied. *Esteem* needs are linked to an individual's need for respect, self-worth, reputation, acknowledgement, and success. People seek to fulfil their esteem needs as soon as the need for love and belongingness is satisfied (Badom & Girigiri, 2021; Uysal et al., 2017). Relative to Maslow's theory, all humans require a steady and firm sense of their worth, as well as respect from others. Respect, self-worth, and achievement are all part of esteem needs. Esteem needs involve the desire for respect from other people or the desire for a good reputation, as well as the need for respect for oneself like dignity, status, and prestige (Maslow, 1943 cited in Uysal et al., 2017). Not attaining this need can create a sense of inferiority and lead to feelings of discouragement. Within work organisations, individual employees should have the opportunity to advance to higher positions based on their mastery of job skills and the level of ingenuity demonstrated in assigned tasks. As a result, factors such as ranks, recognition from supervisors, increased responsibilities, public acknowledgements, and being assigned demanding tasks can elevate self-esteem within work organisations (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

The final level of needs in the hierarchy is self-actualisation needs. Maslow defined this category of needs as the ability to reach the finest possible version of oneself (Badom & Girigiri,

2021). Of course, each person is different in their values, goals, and skills. Each person will therefore have a different self-actualisation experience. One individual may find self-actualisation through creative endeavours, another may find it through fatherhood, and a third may reach self-actualisation through the invention of new technologies.

Maslow argued that only a small percentage of humans will successfully reach self-actualisation, or partially achieve it due to the difficulties of satisfying the four lower requirements. He suggested that effective self-actualisers have specific traits. Self-actualisers, according to Maslow, have the potential for peak experiences, which he characterises as moments of euphoria and ecstasy. Anybody can reach a peak, but self-actualisers do so more frequently. In addition, Maslow claimed that self-actualisers tend to be very innovative, autonomous, and detached. They also care deeply about humanity and are accepting of themselves and others.

There is no saturation point for this level of need because it is a need for growth and improvement, and the needs grow following the rates of fulfilment. Maslow defines individuals who self-actualise as having high levels of reality perception, the ability to act authentically, a tendency to be independent due to their self-sufficiency, an ability to grasp and recognise the beauty of life, and a strong sense of the common good. He further describes such people as witty, creative, democratic, and always poised to resist stereotypes (Uysal et al., 2017).

With Maslow's model, people stay at a level of need until they have fulfilled it. What this implies in the workplace is that workers should pursue the satisfaction of their current level of need and leaders should concentrate on assisting followers to accomplish each degree of need at a time.

Maslow's theory holds significant popularity among both academics and professionals, being widely accepted as one of the foundational management concepts. It has been demonstrated to be highly useful in developing managerial principles, as noted by Wahba and Bridwell (1976, cited in King-Hill, 2015). Furthermore, managers often prefer this theory due to its ease of demonstration and comprehension. Its influence is evident in various management ideas and practices, including business reengineering, self-managing teams, total quality management, employee empowerment, and job enrichment, making it a recent source of inspiration for scholars (King-Hill, 2015).

Although the hierarchy of needs theory has received a lot of positive opinions and studies over the years, the theory has also been criticised. Researchers claim that the empirical evidence to back the claims suggesting that as soon as a need is satisfied, it stops being a motivator and that only one of these alleged needs is foremost among other needs at any particular time is sparse (King-Hill, 2015). While there may be some concurrence on the presence of core human necessities, the arrangement of the need is not experimentally agreed upon (King-Hill, 2015). In their thorough analysis of Maslow's theory, Wahba and Bridwell (1976, cited in King-Hill, 2015), concluded that although their findings validated the theory that some people are more naturally driven towards self-actualisation than others, there is little support for the hierarchical order of needs that Maslow provided. Human needs exist that have to be met, however, the idea that the needs are satisfied following a rigid progression or order is questionable (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). Uysal et al. (2017) equally noted that Maslow was unable to separate himself from the prevalent cultural context of a traditional, functional environment typified by toil and hardship while carrying out the study.

Furthermore, the theory was criticised for its singular focus on personal growth. Critics felt the theory lacks relationships since it places too much emphasis on individualism (Uysal et al., 2017). Another criticism was that the hierarchy of needs theory did not consider things like making a sacrifice for the good of others. There is no room for helping people or serving God (Uysal et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, many theories that were later established are said to have their roots in the hierarchy of needs theory (Uysal et al., 2017).

Alderfer's ERG Theory of Motivation. The Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) theory of motivation, developed by Clayton P. Alderfer, was first proposed in 1969. Alderfer condensed Maslow's five stages into three. Just like Maslow, he assigned an order to his three levels of needs based on concreteness. In Alderfer's view, there are three stages of motivation: existence, relatedness, and growth. The most tangible and transparent of the three needs is *existence needs*. Lower-level requirements like food, drink, sleep, shelter, etc. are included in this level. It includes the physiological and safety needs, similar to Maslow's stage one and stage two needs. (Chang & Yuan, 2008)

The subsequent level is the requirement for relatedness, belonging, and a positive relationship with oneself. The ERG model's least tangible but most important need is growth, which largely relates to self-development, contentment, and the feeling of reaching one's potential (Chang &Yuan, 2008).

Under Alderfer's theory, there are three different types of relationships between the stages: satisfaction and progression, frustration and regression, and satisfaction and strengthening. There is no requirement for satisfaction before progression, but the possibility of

going to a less concrete level increases with the satisfaction of a more concrete stage. Second, people who are frustrated by their inability to reach a certain higher stage may increase their effort in a lower stage to catalyse achieving the higher one (regression), and third, satisfaction does not always result in progression because it may instead cause the person to continue savouring the pleasure of satisfying the lower level need (strengthening) until he or she can satisfy a higher level need (Chang & Yuan, 2008).

Per Alderfer's theory, a person's top priority may change over time, and they may be motivated by several different levels of need at once. In other words, a person's priorities and motivations may shift throughout time and fluctuate between the levels of existence, relatedness, and growth need. They can progress through the various stages both upward and downwards. It further postulated that when workers are perplexed while trying to fulfil more elevated level needs, they may regress to lower needs that are simpler to fulfil (Chang & Yuan, 2008). This is in contrast to Maslow's hierarchy, which assumes that individuals progress through the hierarchy in a strict order. Alderfer's theory also suggests that individuals have multiple needs at the same time and therefore recommends that leaders should not concentrate on the satisfaction of a need at a time but recognise the blend of needs that people can have and help their employees progress in keeping with the blend of needs, which will change after some time (Chang & Yuan, 2008).

The ERG theory is criticised, nonetheless, because it does not provide precise instructions and guidelines (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). It merely provides a model and assumes that people are compelled to engage in behaviours that will satiate any of the levels of need suggested by the theory. Under this theory, a person can prioritise and satisfy any of the three needs, but it is not

clear how to decide which of the three needs a person prioritises at any given time (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

The fundamental flaw or critique of this theory is that it lacked originality. In line with Badom and Girigiri (2021), the concepts are heavily influenced by Maslow's theory. Simply put, since the ERG theory was built on Maslow's theory, it is not possible to say that its concepts are entirely new. Similar to Maslow's theory, Alderfer's approach did not consider some emotional and psychological factors that influence human needs. It is viewed as a recent theory that has not inspired much empiricism just like the hierarchy of need theory.

McClelland's Need Achievement Theory. American psychologist, McClelland with his team developed the Achievement Theory of Motivation which is centred on three essential components - achievement, power, and affiliation. This theory is in contrast to the hierarchy of needs or satisfaction-dissatisfaction theories of motivation (Royle & Hall, 2012). Every human, regardless of age, sex, ethnicity, or culture, has one of these needs and is motivated by it, according to McClelland. His notion that individuals develop or acquire their needs through the types of situations and experiences they encounter in their surroundings and society forms the basis of the theory, also known as the Acquired Needs theory (McClelland, 1985, cited in Royle & Hall, 2012). Following his studies, people who experience a particular need act differently from others who do not.

The drive to excel and succeed in demanding work, to set and meet goals, and to complete difficult tasks are all considered to be aspects of the need for achievement. As reported by Yamaguchi (2003, cited in Royle & Hall, 2012), when people can accomplish their objectives regardless of and in consideration of the circumstances of others, their needs for achievement are

met. People who have a high need for achievement tend to be driven by a desire to take risks, seek out challenges, and gain a sense of personal accomplishment. High achievers favour taking responsibility for their success or failure instead of relying on luck. Again, people with high achievement needs may feel happy or unhappy depending on the discernible results of their efforts (McClelland & Koestner, 1992).

High achievers seek situations where they can assume personal accountability for coming up with innovative ways of solving problems. A basic reason for this type of behaviour is the need to lessen uncertainty about their future in the organisation. These individuals are typically highly relentless in their pursuit of answers to questions (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). As maintained by McNeeseSmith (1999, cited in Royle & Hall, 2012), people with high achievement needs are more effective leaders in general. Regrettably, it has been scientifically confirmed that this drive to excel often leads people with high achievement needs to act opportunistically in their attempt to meet this need.

People's need for power is an indication of their yearning for authority. This could manifest as attempts to persuade others to behave in ways they otherwise would not (McClelland, 1985). Power-hungry individuals would typically go for positions of responsibility to enable them to influence others. Such individuals are competitive and enjoy situations where they can exhibit their status. They actively hunt for success symbols. Moreover, they want to be certain that they can manage and control any methods they employ to persuade others. However, to maintain positive connections and interactions, a person with a high-power need would regularly try to curb these inclinations (Royle & Hall, 2012).

The need for affiliation indicates the need for tight, cordial interactions with other people and to avoid conflict (McClelland, 1985; Robbins, 2001). Individuals who have a high need for affiliation tend to be sociable and enjoy working with others, and they regularly devote a great deal of time seeking out social activities that allow them to interact with others positively (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Then, persons with strong affiliations seek and engage in team activities where cooperation and interaction with others are predominant (Royle & Hall, 2012). Compared to the other two needs theories put forth by McClelland, affiliation needs have received far less critical scholarly attention. People who regard friendship and prefer collaboration instead of rivalry may interpret a readiness to uphold clear rules of conduct and accept responsibility for others as an indication of the type of courtesy and civility desired by organisations (McClelland, 1985). Individuals with high degrees of attachment are associated with greater sensitivity and empathy for others. (McClelland & Koestner, 1992)

Many scholars criticised McClelland's theory for several reasons. First, McClelland and his supporters provided the majority of the evidence backing up this theory (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). McClelland's methodology is also questioned as being unscientific. For instance, to identify basic needs, McClelland used Murray's thematic appreciation test (TAT). Thirdly, the theory is challenged in light of whether needs are acquired permanently or temporarily. Further research is required to demonstrate if acquired needs diminish over time (Badom & Girigiri, 2021)

Two Factor Theory. A psychologist, known as Frederick Herzberg, conducted studies to better understand employee satisfaction in the 1950s and 1960s. The study resulted in the emergence of the Two Factor Theory (Badubi, 2017). As noted by Herzberg, hygiene factors are

necessary but not sufficient for job satisfaction, and their absence can lead to job dissatisfaction. Conversely, motivators play a pivotal role in fostering job satisfaction, contributing to increased engagement, motivation, and overall performance (Badubi, 2017). He asserted in this theory that the degree of difficulty of an assignment and how well the assignment provides opportunities for growth and recognition strongly influence the motivation of employees at work (Steers et al., 2004). Herzberg's research shows that while some occupational features are consistently linked to workers' job fulfilment, other factors are linked to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg concluded that work satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not mutually exclusive. (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Steers et al., 2004). He argued that "No satisfaction" and "No dissatisfaction" are the opposites of "Satisfaction" and "Dissatisfaction," respectively Teck-Hong & Waheed, 201).

The elements that define a workplace atmosphere are regarded as hygiene factors. Unless properly implemented by an organisation, these elements may contribute to job dissatisfaction. Long-term positive happiness is not brought about by hygiene factors. Nonetheless, dissatisfaction will arise if they are absent or non-existent at work. Therefore, hygiene factors are the attributes of a job that, soothe employees and keep them from becoming dissatisfied when they are sufficient in the workplace. Since they are necessary for the prevention of dissatisfaction, hygiene factors are frequently referred to as dissatisfiers. The aspects of work that fall under this group are usually extrinsic like office policies, remuneration, supervision, safety, position, work conditions, and interaction with co-workers (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Badubi, 2017).

The factors that motivate people to create feelings of positive contentment are the "motivators". These aspects of work are intrinsic, and they motivate employees to produce

outstanding work. The factors are referred to as satisfiers because they provide intrinsic rewards for employees (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). Herzberg posited that five aspects of work lead to satisfaction which includes achievement, the work itself, responsibility, recognition, and growth (Badubi, 2017).

The theory suggests that supervisors should concentrate on motivators to inspire employees, while also ensuring that hygiene factors are maintained at an adequate level to avoid creating unhappiness or dissatisfaction (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). To achieve workers' motivation and quality productivity, management should ensure that tasks are interesting and satisfying (Badubi, 2017). Congruent with this belief, enlivening the workplace can motivate employees as well giving tasks that effectively use the employee's skills and competencies. Putting more emphasis on motivational aspects can boost the quality of a job (Badubi, 2017).

The discoveries of several studies that evaluated the two-factor theory were very dissimilar. According to the studies, some of the factors Herzberg defined as hygiene factors were found to be motivators. (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Badom and Girigiri, 2021). This shows that if the study is conducted in several industries, the results of Herzberg's theory may vary. As stated by Nave (1968, cited in Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011), the disparities are the result of the amount of work required and the length of employment. Furthermore, differentiating between hygiene factors and motivators has drawn a great deal of criticism. While certain factors are seen to categorically belong to one of the two groups, others, most notably remuneration are difficult to categorise either as motivators or hygiene factors (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Badom & Girigiri, 2021), thus, leading to the conclusion that a variety of environmental or psychological elements will determine whether or not job context or content considerations will

motivate employees or simply make them happier. Another drawback of this theory is that motivating elements might vary over a person's lifespan. For instance, a young person may view job stability as a hygiene issue, whereas an older employee who depends more heavily on his position may view it as a motivator (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011).

Process Theories

The study of work motivation underwent a paradigm shift in the middle of the 1960s that was driven by the need to identify the mechanisms that underlie job motivation (Steers et al., 2004). In contrast to the need-based theories of motivation, a different line of inquiry sees motivation as more than just taking action to meet a need. Earlier, content theories focused on identifying elements contributing to motivation in a mostly unchanging environment, but process theorists examine human behaviour in the workplace from a dynamic perspective and search for causal connections across time and events (Steers et al., 2004). Process theories regard motivation as a cognitive process. People consider their surroundings, form ideas and emotions, and then act in a specific manner. The goal of process theories is to illuminate the rational processes that drive motivated behaviour. This set of theories tries to explain how fulfilment is achieved, and not necessarily what causes motivation (Badubi, 2017). This section focuses on some notable process theories namely the Equity, the Expectancy theories and Self-determination theory.

Equity theory. John Stacey Adams introduced the Equity Theory in 1963, positing that workers' perception of workplace justice has a big influence on their motivation. The theory revolves around the comparison of inputs (contributions to work) and outputs (rewards received)

and emphasises the role of a reference person or group in this evaluation (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

Inputs encompass various factors like knowledge, work effort, seniority, and personal attributes, while outputs include compensation, benefits, and promotions. The reference person or group, relevant to an employee's circumstances, plays a crucial role in determining perceived fairness. The core idea is that individuals assess the fairness of a social exchange based on the relationship between their inputs and outcomes. If employees perceive an imbalance in their input-to-output ratio compared to their peers, it may lead to demotivation and job dissatisfaction (Badubi, 2017; Badom & Girigiri, 2021). Equity theory suggests that employees gauge their contributions against the rewards, with greater rewards leading to higher satisfaction (Badubi, 2017; Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

When individuals feel inequity, they experience distress and take action to restore equilibrium. This restoration can be either psychological or actual, involving actions such as working less, requesting a raise, or even damaging company property. However, a weakness of the equity theory lies in its reliance on individual perceptions of fairness, which can vary. Additionally, research focus on remuneration has limited the theory's applicability to other relevant outcomes in the workplace (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

Vroom's Expectancy Theory. Victor Harold formulated this theory in 1964, and it provides insights into how people behave at work, particularly in the realms of leadership, decision-making, and motivation. The theory posits that an individual's performance is influenced by their valence (the value they place on outcomes), instrumentality (the conviction

that a particular degree of performance will result in desired outcomes), and expectation (confidence that efforts will result in successful performance) (Badubi, 2017).

In summary, Vroom's Expectancy Theory suggests that an individual's motivation is driven by the confidence that the efforts they put into a task will result in successful performance, bringing about the desired outcomes that have personal significance (Badom & Girigiri, 2021). This theory has practical applications in the workplace, emphasising the importance of clarifying performance expectations, tying performance to meaningful rewards, and understanding employees' valences (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

While the theory offers valuable insights, it faces challenges one of which is that it has not undergone extensive empirical testing due to its complexity, and it assumes that decisions are always deliberate, overlooking instances of unconscious decision-making, especially in routine tasks (Badom & Girigiri, 2021).

Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Theory. Porter and Lawler's theory, developed in 1968, was built on Vroom's pioneering work. It emphasised the importance of combining intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to achieve total job contentment. Intrinsically motivated individuals are those who engage in tasks out of unbridled curiosity and natural pleasure. Contrarily, extrinsic motivation is the use of external incentives such as material or verbal incentives to motivate individuals, so their fulfilment comes from the outcomes rather than the activity itself (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Porter and Lawler argued that effective performance should be rewarded with both types of rewards and that the workplace should be structured in a way that makes jobs more interesting and intrinsically rewarding (Lunenburg, 2011).

Porter and Lawler created a theoretical framework which contends that how much energy or effort is expended depends on how much one expects to achieve a certain outcome and how high that outcome is valued (Lunenburg, 2011). The authors proposed that intrinsic rewards, such as the enjoyment of the work itself or a sense of personal achievement, are crucial for motivating employees and promoting job fulfilment. To this end, they suggested that the scope of occupations should be extended to make them more fascinating and engaging, providing employees with a sense of autonomy and ownership over their work (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Moreover, Porter and Lawler believed that extrinsic rewards, such as increased salary, promotions, or benefits, were also necessary to motivate employees and encourage them to perform effectively. They contended that these rewards should be linked directly to performance so that employees could see a clear connection between their efforts and the benefits they receive (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Overall, the underlying premise of this model is that intrinsic and external rewards are cumulative and lead to overall job satisfaction. Quite a number of research investigations were generated on the expectancy theories which helped in improving the strategy (Gagné & Deci, 2005). But one line of inquiry into the compatibility of intrinsic and extrinsic drive seemed potentially troublesome and contentious. Early research on the cumulative hypothesis discovered, in particular, that tangible extrinsic rewards reduced intrinsic motivation while verbal rewards increased it (Gagné & Deci, 2005). demonstrating that rather than being cumulative, intrinsic, and extrinsic motivation can relate both favourably and adversely.

The Cognitive Evaluation Theory. Deci and Ryan proposed this theory in response to several early experiments to explain how incentives affect intrinsic motivation (Gagne & Deci,

2005). Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that rewards pose the greatest threat to intrinsic motivation (Riley, 2016). When someone receives a reward for something they might have already done, it may hurt the person's ingenuity and quality of performance as well as the person's motivation to continue performing the activity after receiving the extrinsic incentive (Riley, 2016). CET specifies that rewards have two distinct meanings even though it does not condemn their use. Controlling rewards have the potential to diminish intrinsic motivation. Yet, CET predicts that the reward may preserve or increase intrinsic motivation if it is informational and affirms or supports a person's feelings of competence (Riley, 2016).

CET received some attention in literature at first, however, because of the oversimplified distinction between the two types of motivation - intrinsic and extrinsic, the theory was challenging to apply in professional contexts (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Deci and Ryan introduced the concept of internalisation in 1985 to elucidate how motivated behaviour can transition from extrinsic to autonomous. In the end, this research signified the birth of the self-determination theory (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

The Self-Determination Theory. As previously mentioned within the theoretical framework, psychologists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan formulated the Self-Determination Theory in 1985. The theory advocates that human beings inherently tend to move towards growth and integration. This psychological growth does not happen automatically, it entails continuous nourishment. The SDT highlights three fundamental requirements for nurturing personal development: autonomy, competence, and relatedness which are identified as the primary supportive conditions that facilitate growth (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Autonomy refers to

the need to view conduct as deliberate and voluntary and to feel like a person has control over his behaviour and choices (Legault, 2017).

Competence alludes to the desire to feel confident, successful, and productive and gain mastery of tasks. People who feel confident of their capabilities for success are bound to make moves that will help them accomplish their objectives (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009, cited in Kaur & Norman, 2020). As stated by Ryan and Deci (2020), this need is effectively fulfilled when individuals are placed in structured environments that offer stimulating tasks, constructive feedback, and chances for personal growth. Relatedness, on the other hand, pertains to the desire to form bonds, associate with others, and experience care and compassion from other people (Gagné & Deci, 2005). To attain a sense of contentment and reach peak productivity, all three of these needs must be met (Legault, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2020). The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) proposes that autonomous motivation and controlled motivation have distinct regulatory mechanisms and related experiences. Furthermore, it proposes a classification of behaviours based on the level of autonomy or control they possess.

The term "Amotivation" is used to describe a total lack of motivation, which is distinct from autonomous and controlled motivation because the latter two are deliberate, as stated by Gagné and Deci, (2005). Amotivation, which occurs when individuals feel that the result of their actions is outside of their control, is entrenched in a deficiency of competence and can lead to adverse psychological consequences like depression and exhaustion. Amotivation is also generally associated with minimal or no commitment (Abós et. al., 2018).

Types of Motivation

Researchers categorise motivation into – intrinsic and extrinsic (Ryan & Deci, 2000). An activity is intrinsically motivating if engagement in that activity is innately fascinating or fun (Ryan & Deci, 2000), but extrinsically motivating when the reason for the engagement is to achieve a reward or avoid punishment (Vansteenkiste et al., 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The reason for doing something is the difference between these two types of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Roth, 2014).

Although both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation improve work efficiency, they have differing consequences for employee flourishing and fulfilment (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Worth & Van den Brande, 2020). More dependence on intrinsic motivation is linked to better health and job fulfilment, while more dependence on extrinsic motivation will jeopardise employees' sense of confidence and intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Disengagement, burnout, and quitting the profession may all result from extrinsic motivation (Worth & Van den Brande, 2020). Extrinsic motivation can be useful for controlling short-term actions but hardly influences long-term behaviour except when the incentive or punishment lasts indefinitely and the perceived value remains unchanged (Korb, 2014). Since it is completely self-directed and has a long-term impact, intrinsic motivation is regarded as the best kind of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste et al., 2009). However, recent theories of Ryan and Deci have shown that sometimes extrinsic motivation behaves like intrinsic motivation. This describes a situation where the reasons for doing something are internalised by an individual because the reasons are compatible with the person’s values (Crehan, 2016; Roth et al., 2007; Roth, 2014).

The self-determination theory proposed four types of extrinsic motivation with varied behavioural consequences. The distinction among these kinds of extrinsic motivation is dependent on the degree to which people believe they are taking the behaviour autonomously. Those four kinds are (a) External regulation - where a person acts for a reward only (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Roth et.al., 2007). In the school setting, this happens when teachers teach only for the remuneration they receive or participate in training just to get promoted (Korb, 2014; Crehan, 2016), (b) Introjection (which arises from a willingness to be approved by yourself or others), such as teachers who prepare very well for their classes because that is what they are supposed to do as teachers, (c) Identification (where people understand the importance of the activities they are involved in). This will characterise teachers who diligently perform their duties because they care about the learning of the students, (d) Integration (when the individual fully embraces the aims that their action leads to) (Ryan & Deci, 2020; Roth et. al., 2007), typifying those teachers that diligently perform their duties because that has become part of their identity as teachers (Crehan, 2016).

New terminologies for the various forms of motivation emerged with these distinctions. Motivations that are externally regulated came to be known as 'controlled motivation,' whereas 'autonomous motivation' is used to depict the motivations that are perceived to come from within (Roth et. al., 2007; Roth, 2014; Crehan, 2016; Kaplan et al., 2022). Although both types of motivation can drive work efficiency, it is argued that they have different consequences for employee flourishing and job satisfaction (Worth & Van den Brande, 2020). According to Ryan and Deci (2020), autonomous extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation both share a strong sense of volition but differ in their underlying drivers. Intrinsic motivation is rooted in interest

and enjoyment, whereas autonomous extrinsic motivation is fuelled by a sense of personal importance and relevance (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Further, Ryan and Deci noted that identified and integrated motivations are dependent on the interpretation of value, with individuals finding worth in the activities they engage in, even if they do not necessarily enjoy them (Ryan & Deci, 2020).

Individuals participating in an activity autonomously experience the feeling that it was their decision (Kaplan et al., 2022), they are delighted with the task and desire to do it and will probably continue with the activity as a result (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The behaviour is compatible with and adheres to an individual's inherent autonomy needs (the need to feel like one is in charge of what happens in his/her world), competence (the requirement to perform in a viable and successful manner) (Hagger et al., 2014; Vansteenkiste et.al., 2009). People who partake in tasks autonomously would most probably initiate and continue a behaviour exclusive of any outside encouragement and pressure. Therefore, autonomously motivated persons are more effective in self-regulation (Hagger et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In comparison, controlled motivation represents partaking in activities due to external influence (extrinsic purpose), like the expectation of promotion, receiving benefits, presumed consent from others, escaping retribution or feelings of guilt (Vansteenkiste et al., 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2020; Kaplan et al, 2022). People partaking in conduct for externally controlled reasons experience pressure and a feeling of responsibility and would most probably discontinue the conduct when the contingency is withdrawn (Vansteenkiste et al., 2009; Hagger et al., 2014). Therefore, control-motivated people are more averse to self-regulation and would not be self-determined.

A wide body of research shows that autonomous motivation outperforms controlled motivation in several domains, including sports, health, and education (Hagger et al., 2014; Kaplan et al., 2022). Teachers from schools that emphasise a stronger reliance on intrinsic motivation are believed to have higher levels of well-being and job satisfaction, as well as a higher probability of remaining in the school (Worth & Van den Brande, 2020). Increased dependence on extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is thought to risk damaging teachers' sense of confidence and intrinsic motivation, potentially leading to disengagement, stress, and turnover (Worth & Van den Brande, 2020).

Other researchers discovered that when organisations improve the intrinsic motivation of workers (in this case, teachers) and facilitate the internalization of extrinsic motivation, the quality of workers' behaviour becomes better resulting in improved productivity, particularly in the long haul. The workers have a better sense of personal responsibility and are more passionate about their work. When facing difficulties, they are more persistent. Besides, they are more innovative, prone to arriving at new creative ways of solving problems, their well-being is enhanced, and they generally find fulfilment in their jobs (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Crehan, 2016).

As observed by Crehan (2016), the way to enhance autonomous motivation is by creating circumstances that enable the employees to satisfy the three fundamental psychological requirements (Hagger et al., 2014; Roth et.al., 2007; Gagne´& Deci, 2005; Kaplan & Madjar, 2017).

Autonomy is a belief that one is the originator of his/her actions and has a choice in the activities he/she engages in (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Competence alludes to a sense of efficacy in the behaviours and works we undertake (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Relatedness concerns attachment

to others or the feeling of connection with significant others and one's environment (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Research suggests that within a school environment, a teacher whose essential psychological needs are satisfied is more likely to achieve optimum performance in the school (Gagne´& Deci, 2005). This is because internalisation is facilitated by these three basic needs where a person comes to internally accept previously externally influenced behaviours or norms (Vansteenkiste et. al., 2009).

These basic requirements (relatedness, competence, and autonomy) are interconnected and affect behaviour. Evaluating teacher motivation through the SDT's framework helps to enhance the comprehension of variables that affect a teacher’s perception of autonomy, relatedness and competence that may eventually impact their choices of leaving or staying in teaching.

Teacher Motivation

Guajardo (2011) opines that teacher motivation refers to the volition, enthusiasm, and drive to participate in effective teaching. Teacher motivation is often driven by dynamic components like personal accomplishments, job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Han and Yin (2016) appear to agree with this definition by stating that teacher motivation refers to the internal reasons that drive individuals to choose and maintain a career in teaching. The intensity of this motivation is reflected in the effort that teachers put into their teaching, and it is influenced by various circumstantial factors. Ofojebe and Ezugoh (2010) describe teacher motivation from the perspective of teacher empowerment. The process of empowerment typically encompasses various components, practices, and methods aimed at establishing a constructive workplace atmosphere that caters to the varied requirements of educators. They further stated that the

ultimate goal of teacher motivation is to help teachers become contented, committed, and competent in carrying out their responsibilities (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) differentiate between two forms of teacher motivation - the desire to teach and the desire to stay in the profession. These two dimensions are hinged on the level of intrinsic motivation of the teacher.

Ofoegbu (2004) maintained that an intrinsically motivated teacher may complete an activity for its own sake, the fulfilment it gives, or for the sense of achievement it provides. For instance, teachers who join the profession to help young people learn and make a difference in their lives are intrinsically motivated. Teachers must feel a sense of pride to persevere and do outstanding work in the demanding work of teaching (UNESCO International Institute for Capacity-Building in Africa [UNESCO-IIBA], 2017). Other intrinsic causes like joy, happiness, and enjoyment in teaching occur when teachers complete all their responsibilities; when colleagues support their efforts; and when teachers feel that parents are responsible, tolerant of their efforts, and respectful of their decisions (UNESCO-IICBA, 2017). A teacher who is extrinsically motivated will do his/her job to advance professionally or to receive a monetary reward (Ofoegbu, 2004). Status, job stability, leadership / supervisory positions, and fringe benefits are examples of extrinsic motivators.

Teacher motivation contributes to several positive educational outcomes including increased teacher performance (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Nwakasi & Cummins, 2018; Uyanne et al., 2020; Adelabu, 2005), student motivation, educational reform (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; UNESCO-IICBA, 2017; Crehan, 2016), and teachers' psychological need fulfilment (Baard et al., 2004; Gagne´& Deci, 2005). As a result, it is beneficial for educational

administrators to find out how to motivate teachers and keep them in the classroom (Nwakasi & Cummins, 2018; Uyanne et al., 2020). Oni et al. (2017) assert that "a well-motivated teacher will feel belonged, committed, and will contribute his/her skills and ideas to the job. There will be increased productivity" (p. 27). Lack of teacher motivation leads to truancy, professional misconduct, inefficient use of class time, over-dependence on conventional methods of teaching, inadequate planning, and the pursuit of alternative means of generating income that disturb legitimate teaching obligations (Duze & Ogbah, 2013; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; UNESCO-IICBA, 2017).

Teacher motivation is especially significant in low-resource schools, in line with numerous studies. Here, a teacher's energy, drive, or loyalty to their students can be the most important factor affecting educational quality by counteracting the negative effects of limited resources, poor school organisational conditions, and poor leadership practices. This argument is supported by research which shows that the degree of teacher commitment and encouragement significantly improves the quality of the student's learning outcomes and information assimilation (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010; Oni et al., 2017).

Teacher Motivation in Nigeria and sub-Saharan Africa

In the last twenty years, concern about teacher motivation in Africa has been growing even at the policy level (UNESCO-IICBA, 2017), especially with the rising levels of teacher absenteeism and turnover across Africa, poor commitment to teaching duties, and significant teacher shortages (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; UNESCO-IICBA, 2017). Literature reports that teacher motivation across Africa is fragile and declining (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007;

UNESCO-IICBA, 2017; Nwakasi & Cummins, 2018) which in part is blamed for rising teacher turnover and shortages in African countries (Adeyemo, 2017; Oni et al., 2017).

Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) declared that Nigeria and the entire sub-Saharan Africa have a serious challenge with teacher motivation. They found that a significant number of teachers in both Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia are under-motivated. Adelabu (2005) in his study on "How teacher motivation is affecting the achievement of education for all in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa," found that Nigerian schools are staffed by teachers who are unhappy with their employment and have low motivation. He identified factors affecting teacher motivation in Nigeria as poor conditions of school facilities, large class sizes and work overload, unsatisfactory remuneration, non-payment of incentives in rural areas, lack of fringe benefits, inadequate pre-service training, lower teacher status, and arbitrary promotion. Congruent with the above findings, Guajardo (2011) discovered that teacher motivation in developing countries is influenced by eight interrelated classifications including workload and associated problems, salaries and benefits, recognition and prestige, school setting, facilities and instructional materials, voice, accountability, and career growth.

In addition, Ofojebe and Ezugoh (2010) identified factors that can be summarised into lack of teacher autonomy, inadequate collegial support, non-availability of professional development opportunities, lack of growth opportunities, poor school climate as well as low status of the teaching profession. Teachers' levels of service are mainly attributed to these and other factors in Nigeria (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010).

The quantitative survey of Samuel and Chipunza (2009) in South Africa revealed that teachers were motivated by in-service training, exciting and challenging tasks, freedom to be

creative, job security and the perception of belonging to the organisation. It is assumed that the "satisfaction of these motivational factors leads to quality performance and high productivity which enhances quality assurance in the educational system" (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010, p. 412) and invariably reduces teacher turnover intentions.

The concept of Teacher Turnover

The rate at which educators leave their jobs and are replaced by new educators within a specific school environment from one academic year to the next is known as teacher turnover (Wells & Peachey, 2011; Imran et al., 2017; Sorenson & Ladd, 2020). This phenomenon has been a significant issue in the field of education and a key subject of debate globally for many years. This is because of its effect on stakeholders, especially on students and on school effectiveness (Ronfeldt et al., 2013; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). The term teacher attrition is often used simultaneously with teacher turnover to depict the movement of teachers out of the teaching field to seek better work conditions in different fields, thereby preventing schools from having enough teaching personnel (Egu et al., 2011).

Reports suggest that in some countries the issue of teacher turnover is growing due to retirement. Nevertheless, this does not appear to be the main cause of teacher attrition as research has shown that a huge number of skilled teachers quit their positions for reasons other than retirement (Ingersoll, 2001; Boyd et al., 2011). While studies carry differing estimates of teachers (old and new) who leave teaching annually, the consensus is that the yearly rate of teacher turnover ranges from 5 per cent to 50 per cent in different parts of the globe (Clandinin et al., 2015; Ingersoll, 2001)

Turnover is either voluntary or involuntary (Seung-Ho, 2019; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Voluntary turnover among teachers occurs when they opt to depart from the school of their own volition, perhaps due to securing employment elsewhere, transferring to another school, or retiring, and involuntary turnover happens when the organisation decides to let go of staff due to layoffs, reductions in the workforce or poor performance (Seung-Ho, 2019; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Voluntary turnover is deemed detrimental or dysfunctional to the organisation because the best talents with better skills and experience in most cases are the ones who leave voluntarily (Seung-Ho, 2019; Long et al., 2012).

There are three categories of voluntary teacher turnover - those who leave due to retirement (retirees), the ones who migrate to different schools (movers), and the ones who quit teaching completely (leavers) (Boyd et al., 2011). Thus, leavers, movers, and retirees make up the overall voluntary teacher turnover. While movers are not viewed as a disadvantage to the teaching profession, they make up a part of a state's teacher turnover rates.

In response to the exit of teachers, a school can either choose to increase class sizes or hire replacement teachers. If replacement teachers are more qualified than their predecessors in terms of their effectiveness and ability to work towards the school's mission, students' outcomes will be positively affected. Conversely, if replacement teachers are less qualified, it can hurt both student outcomes and the school's operations (Sorenson & Ladd, 2020). More often than not, the latter scenario subsists in instances of massive teacher turnover. Egu et al. (2011) opine that substantial teacher attrition wastes resources, especially when teachers quit the classroom in search of jobs beyond the educational sector.

The concern about the damage caused by teacher turnover in schools led scholars to study aspects of the phenomenon. As a result, studies on teacher turnover and suggestions for solutions have grown in education research. However, the persistence of a relatively high level of teacher exits described above highlights the significance of both the issue of turnover/retention as it relates to teachers and the considerable value of continuing to research it in multiple contexts and from various conceptual perspectives.

Turnover Intentions

Ekabu et al. (2018) describe turnover intention as an intentional plan to exit an organisation consciously and suggest that turnover intention is a key antecedent to actual turnover. This agrees with the opinion of Kaur et al. (2013), who claim that turnover intention is an individual's proactive decision to voluntarily disengage from their current organisation or profession. Although employers are essentially concerned with actual turnover, scholars argue that turnover intention portends real turnover and should be considered as an indicator of actual turnover (Firth et al., 2004; Long et al., 2012; Räsänen et al., 2020). This is substantiated by the principle of planned behaviour, which notes that a measure of the intention to execute the act is the greatest individual predictor of real behaviour (Räsänen et al., 2020). Credence is given to this principle of planned behaviour by researchers who found the existence of strong links between turnover intentions and actual turnover (Jung, 2010).

High turnover intention has consequences for work engagement and institutional productivity. Teachers with high intent to leave may not be active in teaching. Such teachers may eventually leave the organisation. The findings of research on the connection between the

decision to leave and actual departure are varied because real turnover is more difficult to predict than intentions since many external factors influence turnover behaviours.

Teacher Turnover Intentions

Teachers who are contemplating quitting their professions are said to have teacher turnover intentions (Firth et al., 2004; Wells & Peachey, 2011; Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Imran et al., 2017). Ogbonna and Chinonye (2011) noted that teacher turnover is a huge challenge confronting the retention of teachers in the Nigerian educational framework. Arguably, a degree of teacher turnover is healthy and unavoidable in organisations (Belete, 2018), but the exit of large numbers of qualified and experienced teachers within a short period is harmful to a school (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Belete, 2018), as it reduces a school's overall ability to carry out its commitments to the stakeholders.

The most talented and smartest teachers are usually the ones who leave the school voluntarily (Gelger & Pivovarova, 2018; Borman & Dowling, 2008) and they exit with their valuable experiences, strengths, abilities, and competencies resulting in productivity degradation and disruption of school operations (Imran et al., 2017; Egu et al., 2011; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

Impact of High Rate of Teacher Turnover

Wushishi et al. (2013) carried out research in Niger State, Nigeria to explore the impact of teacher attrition. The study used interviews, observations, and document analysis to collect data. Teachers who had between 10-20 years of teaching experience were purposively selected and interviewed to ascertain their perceptions on the topic. The findings identified increased

costs, expanded teacher workload, the low performance of students and pressure from school administration, as the key effects of teacher turnover.

A critical consequence of teacher turnover is diminishing student performance (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; 2019; Karsenti & Collin, 2013; Borman & Dowling, 2008). The drainage of experienced teachers pushes schools into recruiting inexperienced and unqualified teachers to make up for the shortfall resulting from the recurring exits. The new hires may not have the required competence to provide adequate learning experience to the students (Egu et al., 2011; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; 2019).

An examination of 66 primary schools in a metropolitan district was carried out by Guin (2004) to see if teacher turnover has a connection with students' performance in a state-wide Mathematics examination. The correlation analysis indicated that schools recording more teacher turnover performed poorly in contrast to their counterparts with lower teacher turnover. These findings are harmonious with evidence from similar studies (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Ronfeldt et al., 2013). Once a teacher exits a school midyear, the flow of the student's learning is distorted. For example, when experienced teachers leave, it can be challenging to find qualified replacements, leading to a loss of continuity in instruction and a decline in the quality of education provided.

As these teachers depart from a school, they carry with them their proficiency in teaching methods, teamwork with peers, learning from professional development training, and comprehension of the academic requirements of the students in that institution (Donley et al., 2019). Moreso, teacher turnover breaks the connections teachers have with their students as well as the connections they have with the parents/guardians of the students (Carlsson et al., 2019;

Guin, 2004; Oragwu & Nwabueze, 2017). Thus, the student's learning support is debilitated (Donley et al., 2019). Though these findings may not always be proof of the actual causation of students' poor performance because of moderators like working conditions, and lack of administrative support, scholars strongly believe that teacher turnover directly or indirectly impacts student achievement negatively particularly for students who are already struggling (Guin, 2004; Hanushek et al., 2004; Oragwu & Nwabueze, 2017; Sorenson & Ladd, 2020).

Perhaps the most quantifiable impact of high teacher turnover is the financial burden on the school and on the government arising from recruiting, and training replacement teachers. (Guin, 2004; Nguyen et al., 2020; Sorenson & Ladd, 2020; Shuls & Flores, 2020). Milanowski and Odden (2007, cited in Dillion & Malick, 2020), estimate the net cost of turnover to range from $6,800 to $33,400 per vacant position in the school district of Philadelphia. These numbers highlight the significant financial impact of teacher turnover.

Frequent teacher turnover can also make it difficult to establish a positive school culture favourable to students' education, as teachers and students must constantly adjust to new faces and teaching styles. Unique information about the students is lost when teachers quit. In addition, turnover adversely affects class size, timetabling, and teacher productivity (Guin, 2004).

A significant issue with teacher exit is that teachers may not always consider quitting teaching. Bothma, (2011, cited in Imran et al., 2017), believes that workers' (teachers') decision to leave depends on their individual and contextual considerations. Therefore, the onus is on the organisation (school) to identify both the variables that are responsible for high teacher turnover decisions and those that can minimise such intentions (Imran et al., 2017). A school's overall

performance can be greatly impacted by having a solid grasp of the factors that influence teachers' decisions to quit as well as practical and effective mitigation techniques. This knowledge could inform policymakers' decisions to invest in projects that recognise teachers with a high propensity of quitting and the quitters who are most likely to return to teaching. Furthermore, policymakers may leverage this information to improve the working conditions that are relevant to making educators decide to remain in the school, exit, or come back to teaching (Lindqvist et al., 2014). By addressing these factors, schools will be able to not only retain their top teachers but also guarantee a solid standard of education for their school children.

What Triggers Teacher Turnover Intentions?

Researchers have tried to figure out what determines the intention of people to leave their jobs by analysing potential precursors of the intentions of employees to quit. Thus far, the results have not been consistent, partially because of the variety of constructs used by the researchers and the lack of precision in their measurements, but equally because of the heterogeneous nature of the sampled populations (Firth et al., 2004).

Extant study findings have reported a variety of explanatory factors responsible for the turnover intentions and actual turnover of teachers. The majority of these factors are linked to the personal characteristics of the teacher and school characteristics (Borman &Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001).

For instance, a study by Heffernan et al. (2022) in Australia involving 2444 primary and secondary school educators reported that work stress, excessive workload and poor status of the teaching profession were strongly responsible for teacher turnover intentions. Other researchers uncovered that inadequate compensation/salary is a common potent trigger of teacher turnover

(Hanushek et al., 2004; Egu et al., 2011; Oke et al., 2016; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Duze & Ogbah, 2013 '). Ajayi and Olatunji, (2018) discovered from their study that teacher job dissatisfaction, flourishing, and work-life balance are the major factors causing teacher turnover intentions in Nigeria.

Räsänen et al. (2020) found in Finland that teacher turnover intentions were triggered by constructs like the educational system, interaction difficulties, workload, and absence of commitment. Borman and Dowling (2008) discovered that work conditions, limited classroom resources, absence of administrator support, student disciplinary issues, and non-participation in school decisions impacted the turnover intentions of teachers (Ingersoll, 2001; Clandinin et al., 2015; Boyd et al., 2011; Lindqvist et al., 2014).

Other established causes of teacher turnover are student behaviour/discipline (Fernet et al., 2016; Hanushek et al.,2004), school leadership style (Boyd et al., 2011; Oke et al., 2016; Lindqvist et al., 2014; Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017), lack of teacher autonomy (Hocine & Zhang, 2014; Boyd et al., 2011), dearth of teacher motivation (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Kosi et al., 2015) as well as the absence of opportunities for professional training (Villegas-Reimers, 2013).

Papay et al. (2017) carried out quantitative research using sets of administrative data from 16 urban districts to investigate the effect of teacher turnover on those schools. They discovered significant cross-district variance in the retention rates of teachers in the USA. This study benefitted the turnover discussion by demonstrating that context is important in the discussion of teacher turnover problems. It highlighted the need for examining teacher turnover with consideration for the environment and the prevailing circumstances. The researchers further

argued that to overcome the challenge of teacher turnover, restorative work must be specific to the districts and schools that are challenged by high teacher turnover (Papay et al., 2017). This discovery by Papay et.al. (2017) tallies with the result unveiled by Qin (2021) from a study carried out involving 32 countries under OECD. It was revealed that the triggers of teacher turnover are contextual and not the same for all countries. Undoubtedly, the turnover of teachers is a global issue (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Clandinin et al., 2015; Den Brok et al., 2017), but every country, state or district has its unique circumstances. Thus, what could make a teacher think of quitting his job in a developed country may not have the same result for a teacher in a developing country (Räsänen et al., 2020; Imran et al., 2017; Qin, 2021) or teachers in different districts of the same country (Hanushek et al., 2004; Oke et al., 2016), or even with teachers in the same state but at different career points (Boyd et al., 2011; Ingersoll, 2001).

Nonetheless, several common factors tend to affect teacher turnover intentions globally, albeit with different consequences. These variables are reviewed under teacher characteristics, work conditions, motivation, and school leadership in the next sections.

Personal characteristics of the teacher. Concern about the exodus of competent teachers from teaching to other professions led researchers to conduct investigations to establish how teachers' demographic features like gender, age, marital status, teacher qualifications, work experience and test scores predict teacher turnover intentions (Ingersoll, 2001; Hanushek et al., 2004; Boyd et al., 2011). Addi-Raccah (2005) conducted research in Israel to explore gender differences in teacher attrition. The study involved 2108 teachers and utilised data sourced from the Israel Central Statistics Bureau. The results showed that about a third of the teachers left teaching for other jobs and that gender was related to the turnover of teachers. Male teachers had

a greater turnover rate than their female counterparts. The study further stated that female educators (especially married women) associated teaching with comfortable, friendly, and supportive working conditions with a family-like climate, which makes up for the low financial and status rewards. Teaching can enable them to balance work with family responsibilities (Addi-Raccah, 2005). The female teachers who quit teaching were the ones with low education who found it hard to cope with the exigencies of teaching. Wenk and Rosenfeld (1992, cited in Addi-Raccah, 2005) opined that such women could decide to switch to less challenging and stressful jobs (such as clerical or sales work) since their low qualification hinders their ability to pursue more lucrative jobs.

Researchers contend that teachers with superior academic credentials and teachers who earned their degrees from renowned undergraduate institutions as well as those who have high aptitude test scores are more prone to exit teaching (Boyd et al., 2011).

Even though the above are not metrics of competence in teaching it is disturbing that teachers with higher academic credentials are usually the first to quit the profession. As observed by Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2019), Science and Mathematics teachers are in high demand and easily transfer from one school to another with better teaching conditions.

Ingersoll (2001) concurs that the number of years of teaching experience is significantly linked to teacher mobility. Moreover, teachers exhibit a higher likelihood of leaving the profession in the initial phases of their careers, with approximately 30 to 50 per cent exiting within the first five years of embarking on their teaching journey. It was further clarified that some of the factors accounting for new teachers' exit from teaching include such reasons as family problems, health problems and marriage-associated issues (Ingersoll, 2001).

Borman and Dowling (2008) stated that changes in teachers' family status like the choice to have a child also affect turnover decisions. Allensworth et al. (2009) report that teacher turnover is greater among young and old teachers rather than among middle-aged teachers (Ingersoll, 2001; Boyd et al., 2011).

Work Conditions. School working conditions can be described as those components of teachers' working environments discrete from their compensation (Shirrell & Reininger, 2017), and involving diverse aspects of the school like the physical facilities, supervision, collegiality, employees' attitude, growth opportunities, professional development, administrative support and school leadership, curriculum and evaluations, teacher motivation and student characteristics (Shirrell & Reininger, 2017). Studies exist which demonstrate that working conditions affect teacher turnover decisions (Loeb et al., 2005; Belete, 2018). Teachers who work in schools with good working conditions, such as good locations, superior facilities, and teaching assignments that match their expertise, are less likely to consider leaving. Nguyen et al. (2020) report that teachers prefer to remain in schools where there are minimal student disciplinary issues. Disciplinary issues sometimes involve disruptive behaviour in the classroom, conflicts with students or parents, and challenges in maintaining a positive and conducive learning environment. In cases where schools do not adequately address or support teachers in managing disciplinary challenges, educators may feel overwhelmed and consider leaving the profession.

A study conducted in Arizona, on how work conditions affect teacher retention revealed that attrition rate was low in the schools where work condition was perceived as favourable and high in the schools where work condition was not rated favourably. (Gelger & Pivovarova, 2018). The researchers added that salary and leadership support are very vital in the decisions to

stay, transfer to other schools or exit teaching. Loeb et al. (2005) summarised that school climate factors, for example, large class size, heavy workload, debased school offices, absence of instructional materials, and non-participation in school decision-making essentially influence teachers' choice to leave (Ingersoll, 2001).

Loeb et al. (2005) conducted a study in California on teachers' work conditions. Data from teachers representing 1018 schools and 370 school districts collected from a California teacher survey was used for the research which explored the effect work conditions exert on teacher turnover decisions. The results showed that adequacy of instructional materials, lack of textbooks, large class size and poor physical infrastructure predict teacher turnover (Loeb et al., 2005).

Likewise, secondary schools in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa particularly in the rural areas still make use of dilapidated classrooms and school facilities, inadequate instructional materials, and ill-equipped laboratories and libraries. Lack of adequate facilities and instructional materials detracts from teacher effectiveness and results in teacher turnover intentions (Wushishi et al., 2013). Teachers would work under such an unattractive and demoralizing learning atmosphere out of desperation for a job and money, but if these teachers have the opportunity, they will migrate to more valuable positions or pursue a transfer to schools with more modern facilities (MacDonald, 2012, cited in Ekabu et al., 2018).

Equally affecting teacher turnover are stress and burnout arising from work overload (Heffernan et al., 2022). Studies demonstrate that teacher turnover intentions are strongly impacted by teachers' perception of workload. Heavy workload for teachers which often includes working long hours, having excessive administrative responsibilities, and managing large class

sizes, has been observed to be a major cause of high teacher turnover. Teachers saddled with tedious workloads often exhibit a higher tendency to exit their current positions (Bentil et al., 2019). Recently a study involving teachers in London who left the teaching field indicated that excessive workload and work-life conflict were largely responsible for their decision to abandon teaching (Perryman & Calvert, 2020). A similar revelation was made by Ajayi and Olatunji, (2018) who provided evidence from their study in Nigeria that work-family life conflict, job satisfaction and personal health were the main reasons for teacher attrition.

The teachers involved in the study in Niger State, Nigeria expressed concerns about the high workload which results from the delay in replacing the exited teachers (Wushishi et.al, 2013). In the words of Duze and Ogbah (2013), "another non-motivating factor for teachers' retention in school is that in most schools in Nigeria, teachers are assigned classes and subjects purely based on the vacancies and needs of the school rather than on teachers' interest, experience and background" (p. 155). When teachers exit and are not replaced immediately, school leaders are compelled to assign more subjects to the serving teachers, even subjects outside their areas of specialization (Wushishi et.al, 2013). Overburdened and frustrated workers typically face physical and mental problems, including weakness in joints and muscles, stress, anger, depression, nervousness, exhaustion, and insomnia. Ultimately, these concerns lead to a high degree of intent on turnover (Ekabu et al., 2018).

Lack of opportunities for professional development has also been identified as one of the triggers of teacher turnover intentions. Professional development of teachers is a progressing trend in the USA (Villegas-Reimers, 2013). About two-thirds of educators disclose involvement in training associated with their fields of knowledge (Parsad et al., 2001). It provides teachers

with opportunities for personal and professional growth and improves their potential to be successful. Moreso, these interactions offer a platform for teachers to connect with their co-teachers. In the process, the teachers acquire new approaches to teaching and learning or create novel ways of measuring students' learning or strategies for integrating technology into the existing curriculum (Parsad et al., 2001). Thus, teachers acquire teaching skills and strategies that cannot be taught directly but can be learned with supervised practice (Villegas-Reimers, 2013). An investigation involving about 5,000 participants and led by Parsad et al. (2001) established a connection between professional development and perception of competence which increases teacher motivation. Research connecting professional development and teacher turnover is scant. A few investigations uncovered that educators' learning opportunities directly impact their self-reported commitment to teaching (Villegas-Reimers, 2013) invariably reducing teacher turnover intentions.

However, these results were not tested directly. Interestingly, the research of Reynolds et al. (2012) compared the turnover of Professional Development Schools (PDS) and that of non-PDS schools in the USA and found no differences in terms of retention in teaching between the two groups. On the other hand, an investigation carried out in other business fields on the impact of in-service training on workers' turnover portrays conflicting discoveries. The researchers concluded that on-the-job training could make workers more important to their current firm and simultaneously make them more significant in the labour market except where the training is followed by an increase in compensation (Anis et al., 2011). Some other studies however found that on-the-job training emphatically affects the intention to remain in the current organisation positively (Chepkosgey et al., 2015).

As noted by (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003), research has established that collegial support and cooperation impact the satisfaction and retention of teachers, particularly new teachers. Collegial support refers to the social and professional interactions among teachers (Allensworth et al., 2009). New teachers who fail to create supportive collegial relationships will probably seek a transfer away from their schools or leave teaching completely (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Supportive and trusting, work associations encourage teachers to discuss their challenges and seek guidance from others who are more experienced (Allensworth et al., 2009). Teachers will most probably remain in the school where they have established meaningful associations with other teachers.

Inadequate Remuneration. Most people consider financial compensation a key reason for working, regardless of other motives or passions they may have for the job. Previous studies have indicated relatively consistent opinions on how remuneration affects the rate at which teachers decide to either continue teaching or quit teaching (Oke et al., 2016; Duze & Ogbah, 2013; Bentil et al., 2019). Remuneration is described as the salary and other financial benefits earned by an employee because of the work, he/she does. One of the most significant factors of retention is an attractive remuneration package because it satisfies the financial and material needs of the employee (Asuzu, 2019; Egu et al., 2011; Duze & Ogbah, 2013; Loeb et al., 2016). Oke et al. (2016) argued that salary is considered to be very significant to employees because sufficient remuneration can affect a person's disposition to remain in a career, whereas insufficient rewards could trigger a worker's desire to quit a job. In sub-Saharan Africa, financial reward is vital to a teacher who depends on his meagre earnings to take care of his financial obligations (Oke et al., 2016). Based on the report of Abakpa and Agbo-Egwu (2008, cited in

Ige, 2019), 62.94% of sampled teachers in Benue State, Nigeria engaged in menial jobs to augment their salaries and meet their basic expenses which their salaries alone could not do (Agbo-Egwu, 2008, cited in Oke et al., 2016). Due to the role salary plays in taking care of the teacher and his/her family, the effect of financial benefits on a teacher's turnover intention should not be underestimated.

Nevertheless, in some parts of the globe, the impact of remuneration on career decisions is limited. For instance, the findings of a study by Delannoy and Sedlock (2000, cited in Han and Mahzoun, 2018) showed that the policy of raising teachers' salaries in Brazil proved ineffective in enhancing teachers' performance. These findings contrast with studies conducted in some parts of Nigeria. Arrey (2014) carried out research involving 150 teachers from Cross River State, Nigeria on the impact of salaries on teachers' attitudes toward work. The result from the Chi-square analyses he performed suggested that salaries and teachers' attitudes to work are strongly connected, signifying that teachers' pay is a great influencer on teachers' dedication to work in that environment. Oke et al. (2016) claimed that most teachers would not think about leaving their jobs as long as they receive, their salaries and other benefits (though meagre) on time and their promotions are not delayed. Arrey (2014) asserted that "the most predominant factor affecting teachers' productivity and their attitude to work today in our school is the inability of the government to evolve an enduring remuneration and motivational strategy that will create a conducive atmosphere which will encourage teachers to be committed to work" (p. 43). These varying results buttress the argument that factors causing teacher turnover intentions are contextual. In developed nations such as the USA and Singapore, teachers may not prioritise financial incentives. The opposite holds for their counterparts in developing countries like

Nigeria, where nearly 40 per cent of the population lives below the poverty line, which is set at $381.75 per month (National Bureau of Statistics, 2021). Financial considerations are more prominent and play a significant role in the decision-making process for teachers in such contexts. Literature is filled with recommendations from researchers in Nigeria to increase teachers' pay as a way to motivate them and curb the problem of teacher turnover (Oke et al., 2016; Egu et al., 2011; Wushishi et al., 2013; Arrey, 2014; Ajayi & Olatunji, 2018; Asuzu, 2019). One wonders if increased compensation is the best form of motivation to take care of this challenge. As stated by Korb (2014), "The wealth of teaching goes much beyond money and rewards. There is great value in developing the gifts and abilities of students, as well as shaping the lives of today's students, who will be tomorrow's leaders. When approached with the right mentality and a broad view of motivation, the art of teaching itself can be immensely enjoyable and interesting" (p.5). Perhaps, teachers in these parts may be motivated to stay in teaching if they can view teaching as an enjoyable and interesting job.

Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation

Some studies connect transformational and transactional leadership styles with teacher motivation, but very few studies exist that examine these variables jointly in the Nigerian context. Wasserman and Yehoshua (2016) in Israel, revealed that teachers' positive perception towards teaching was greatly enhanced due to the effective leadership styles of principals. Similarly, the research of Eyal and Roth (2011) showed that teacher motivation and well-being were significantly affected by leadership styles.

In another clime, Lee and Kuo's (2019) research found that the motivation of teachers in Taiwan is strongly connected with the transformational leadership of principals. Abdullah et al.

(2018) equally unveiled a solid association between teacher motivation and transformational leadership in Malaysia. In Ankara, Turkey, however, Eres (2011) discovered no significant connection between teachers' motivation and principals' transformational leadership behaviours.

Contrarily, Jabeen et al. (2019) from their research of public college lecturers in Punjab, Pakistan, revealed that the lecturers were satisfied with their working conditions because they were empowered and had the freedom to perform to their highest potential under the supervision of transactional leadership. The lecturers were pleased with their pay and incentives and found satisfaction in these circumstances. Furthermore, the transactional leadership style was found to include ample support, and opportunities for skill development like in-service training to help employees excel in their jobs (Jabeen et al., 2019). Again, in Libya, Almintisir et al. (2013) discovered that public sector workers were not motivated by transformational leadership. The reason for this finding according to them could be because public sector organisations depend a lot on bureaucratic procedures.

In another research, Hussain et al. (2017) evaluated the relationship existing among organisational creativity, information sharing and transactional leadership. The outcomes showed that organisational creativity is strongly linked to transactional leadership. Transactional leadership was also found to have a huge impact on information-sharing conduct and likewise, information-sharing has a strong connection with organisational creativity.

Sanda and Arthur (2017) found in Ghana that authentic and transactional leadership were used by managers in telecom companies to boost employee creativity and innovation. However, transactional leadership, in congruence with the research findings of Kark et al. (2018), produces mistake-prevention conditions that inhibit employee innovation.

Although some studies link teacher motivation and principal leadership styles, how exactly principals influence teacher motivation is not clear. Self-determination theory (SDT) explains that principals' actions may influence teacher motivation and retention through autonomous regulated behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

People have an innate aspiration to grow and reach their maximum capabilities. This, according to the proponents of SDT, is dependent on people's ability to meet the fundamental psychological requirements (Deci et al., 2001; Deci et al., 2017; Kaplan et al., 2022). The theory argues that if principals can meet teachers' needs in these three areas through their leadership styles, teachers will be autonomously motivated resulting in positive outcomes (Gagne´& Deci, 2005; Hetland et al., 2015; Messmann et al., 2022; Kaplan et al., 2022) including reduced teacher turnover (Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). Research consistently supports the notion that when teachers lack autonomy, feel disconnected from their colleagues, or are uncertain about their abilities in their work, they tend to want to quit (Nguyen et al., 2020). Nguyen and colleagues recently revealed that teachers who received more support from their administrators had a significantly lower intention of leaving their positions than those who did not (Nguyen et al., 2020). These findings shed light on the necessity of cultivating a sense of autonomy, community, and competence among teachers, which could ultimately enhance retention rates and improve the quality of education.

Transformational Leadership and Fundamental Psychological Needs

Leaders are vital in creating and sustaining a social environment that encourages workers to seek opportunities to meet these three needs. According to SDT, autonomy-supporting leaders would most probably promote workers' perception of autonomy, competence, and relatedness

because they try to consider their employees' perspectives (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Employees will participate in more self-directed activities, approach obstacles and problems more openly, and experience more support and connection when they operate in an autonomy-supportive environment (Deci et al., 2001).

According to Gagné and Deci (2005), autonomous support from the leader can be an amazing and appropriate social inspirational antecedent to meeting the three psychological needs (Slemp et al., 2018; Baard, et al., 2004). Satisfaction of these needs is very vital for the internalisation of motivation because it drives intrinsic pleasure and satisfaction in activities themselves (Slemp et al., 2018). Workers tend to be autonomously motivated when supervisors support autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Such workers participate in their work willingly, they recognise the importance and purpose of the work they do and are innately motivated to complete assignments.

Conversely, an individual whose basic psychological needs are unsatisfied experiences dwindling motivation which turns into controlled motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Scholars argue that interacting with colleagues, getting timely constructive feedback from supervisors, and opportunities for professional development courses, are vital in meeting the three needs (Cordingley et al., 2019; Tournier et al., 2019). For instance, the effect of a professional development course in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics on the autonomous motivation of six elementary school educators was explored in a case study by Power and Goodnough (2019). According to the results, the course was successful in meeting the educators' needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. The course supported the educators'

willingness to participate in self-directed learning by providing them with options, support, and positive feedback (Power & Goodnough, 2019).

As stated earlier, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and support are critical elements of transformative leadership. Consequently, Bass (1985) theorises that transformational leadership fulfils the three fundamental needs.

Need for autonomy in the context of transformational leadership. Fernet et al. (2012) acknowledge that the behaviour of a principal can be either supportive of autonomy or controlling. Managers' autonomy-supportive behaviours have been found to impact positively job commitment and turnover intention (Baard et al., 2004). School principals who encourage teacher autonomy allow teachers to make decisions over their jobs, give feedback to teachers in an easy manner, allow teachers to have more influence in their work environment, have fewer laws and recognise teachers' skills, listen to their perspectives before arriving at decisions and influence them to be assertive (Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

Leaders' awareness and acceptance of followers' perceptions, as well as their provision of knowledge, and encouragement of self-initiative, all lead to autonomy support (Katz & Assor, 2006; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). Managers who minimise manipulation and intervention, display an understanding of workers' views and emotions, give valid explanations for assigned tasks, and encourage workers to engage in the selection of tasks and targets improve workers' sense of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2011; Deci et al., 2017).

When people understand the value and importance of the job they do and can connect with it, they feel autonomous. Autonomy satisfaction is particularly high when the role is closely related to the individual's beliefs, desires, and goals (Katz & Assor, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000;

Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). Deci et al. (1989) realised that providing support to followers is essential for self-determination. Kovjanic et al. (2012) observed that transformational leaders unlock the potential of their followers and cultivate their dedication to and effort for the collective by recognising and addressing their needs.

Transformational leaders strive to articulate a compelling value-laden vision for their organisations (idealised influence). This vision must then be communicated to workers in a compelling manner (inspirational motivation). This involves creating a clear link between vision and daily work activities so that individual workers recognise their role in achieving the organisation's goals. Finally, transformational leaders encourage workers to keep their focus on the vision both in the interim and in the long run (Burns, 1978; Bass & Riggio, 2008). Transformational leaders are particularly adept at helping followers perceive the organisational values and goals as congruent with their values and goals (Kovjanic et al., 2012), thereby fostering followers' feelings of autonomy.

Aside from presenting goals in a way that appeals to supporters, transformational leaders show respect for each follower's perspectives and accept their point of view when making decisions (individualised consideration) (Bass, 1985). Equally important to the development of followers' autonomy is the lack of close monitoring under transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2008). Leaders who use transformational leadership aim to resolve the adherent's self-motivation for the organisation's goals while transactional leaders systematically track followers' behaviours and approve employees' conduct through incentives and penalties (Bass, 1985).

Again, leaders who adopt transformational leadership inspire their followers to come up with new ways of doing their jobs more effectively (intellectual stimulation) (Bojović &

Jovanović, 2020; Kovjanic et al., 2012). As a result, they provide workers with freedom and autonomy about how they carry out and complete their duties. Employee engagement appears to be an important part of transformational leadership actions.

These leadership practices explicitly address the need for autonomy among followers (Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). Research by Deci et al. (1994, cited in Hocine & Zhang, 2014) showed that "when people are provided with a rationale for doing a task, when their feelings toward the task are acknowledged and when they are given some choice about how to do it, they come to internalise the value of doing it" (p. 142). Transformational leadership style promotes initiatives and provides opportunities for engagement, meaning, and acknowledgement of followers' perspectives (Deci et al., 2001).

Transformational leadership is expected to satisfy followers' essential psychological needs as the leaders provide support to the followers, influence them with charisma, communicate with them in a manner that energises them, show concern for their individual needs, and persuade them to think independently (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The need for competence and transformational leadership. Ryan and Deci (2000) quipped that opportunities to articulate and broaden a person's capabilities are essential for the satisfaction of the need for competence. A supportive environment that offers prime challenges, positive feedback and prospects for growth is important for meeting the requirement for competence satisfaction (Kovjanic et al., 2012; Forner et al., 2020; Ryan & Deci, 2020). Transformational leaders inspire people to succeed and advance by encouraging them to be creative in their thinking (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020; Hetland et al., 2011). Intellectual stimulation is a vital element of transformational leadership and addresses the need for

competence. By challenging assumptions, re-examining issues, and addressing old situations in novel ways, the leaders using transformational leadership encourage adherents to be imaginative and inventive. (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Transformational leaders encourage supporters to achieve more than their expectations (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Yukl, 2015). Such leaders are uninterested in forcing their subordinates to follow their orders. Instead, they inspire workers by offering support while also encouraging them to create and collaborate (Bass, 1985). Whenever individuals are allowed the opportunity to participate in critical reasoning, re-evaluate and expose prejudiced methods of getting things done, they can be intellectually stimulated to acknowledge more significant levels of creativity and a feeling of competence (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020).

Furthermore, according to Geijsel et al. (2003, as cited in Eyal & Roth, 2011), transformational leaders frequently utilise individualised consideration to ensure the fulfilment of each follower's needs and to facilitate their continual growth toward realizing their full potential. Transformational leaders invest much effort in training their followers to improve their skills, abilities, and knowledge (Kovjanic et al., 2012). Mentoring and coaching (individualised consideration) have helped schools to retain novice teachers (Johnson, 2006). Often coaching is deployed to assist a valued employee who is experiencing a performance issue in learning new skills and making appropriate and sometimes challenging behavioural adjustments.

Moreover, this type of leadership offers ideal challenges, mentors individual workers, and stimulates workers to be creative and challenge preconceived ways of doing things (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020; Kovjanic et al., 2012), therefore, transformational leadership is linked to the fulfilment of the need for competence.

The need for relatedness and transformational leadership. Relatedness is often based on the existence of social support in an organisation. Human beings are social creatures, and the need for relatedness is equated with the need for acceptance, recognition and acknowledgement by others (Hocine & Zhang, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The ability to generate a sense of connectedness among employees, which increases loyalty to the community and the leader, is a key characteristic of transformational leadership (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020). When employees build close relationships at work and see themselves as part of the community, the need for relatedness is satisfied (Forner et al., 2020). Transformational leadership fosters a sense of relatedness by enhancing leader-follower relationships and improving the relationship among followers. Leader-follower relatedness is formed by stressing the shared belief in moral ideals and the team's goals. The focus on shared goals and past accomplishments, among other things, helps to build relatedness among followers (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020; Kovjanic et al., 2012; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978).

Jiang et al. (2017) suggested that transformational leadership enhances the relationship between leaders and subordinates, fostering a positive organisational climate. This, in turn, encourages employees to cultivate a stronger sense of collectivism and engage in work beyond their designated duties. Such additional efforts are deemed beneficial to organisational development. The scholars further opined that employees' sense of belonging may easily be strengthened by using individualised consideration. By introducing team-building exercises and accepting new individuals into the group, leaders aid in the facilitation of excellent connections among colleagues. If workers feel accepted within the team and have individuals who care for them, and those they care for, the feeling of belonging to a group is enhanced, thus their need for

relatedness is fulfilled (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Hence, transformational leadership is projected to improve workers' need for belongingness (Kovjanic et al., 2012).

Based on the aforementioned analyses, it is anticipated that transformational leadership will increase teacher motivation. Consequently, this study proposes the hypothesis that the adoption of a transformational leadership style positively influences teacher motivation, specifically in addressing the fulfilment of the fundamental psychological requirements of autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Transactional Leadership and Fundamental Psychological Needs.

With regards to need satisfaction, Bass and Avolio (2004) opine that transactional leadership is known to satisfy followers' needs when followers fulfil the requests and obligations as stipulated by the leader. In the words of Hussain et al. (2017), "transactional leadership style satisfies the need of followers in the form of recognition or exchange or rewards after reaching the agreed task objectives and goals achieving the expectations of leaders" (p. 3). For this type of leadership, need satisfaction is conditional since there are specific requirements for receiving incentives from the leader (Hetland et al., 2011). Again, since the transactional leader controls the rewards, presumably, he or she is not bothered about empowering and inspiring followers to act in ways that go beyond their expectations (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leadership is identified as a controlling type of leadership which impedes supporters' self-determination because it relies on a scheme of incentives and punishments (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Gagné & Deci, 2005). It does not inspire or motivate followers to achieve beyond the basics. Consequently, employees under a transactional leader may develop complacency and a tendency to accomplish the bare minimum requirement to escape punishment (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leadership's focus on external incentives and the tracking of supporters' performance creates a controlling atmosphere that makes the supporters feel pressurised leading to diminished autonomous motivation (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Bass et al., 2003). Therefore, the link between the fulfilment of the three essential needs and transactional leadership was found to be negative since this type of leadership involves rewarding employees who perform well and punishing employees who fail to perform well (Hetland et al., 2011; Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Despite the strong postulations by renowned scholars about transactional leadership's inability to satisfy the three basic needs, other researchers like Eğriboyun (2019) discovered a positive and important association between school principals' transactional leadership and teacher motivation in a study involving 352 teachers in Izmir, Turkey. Similarly, Kim and Lee (2012) exposed from their research in Korea that certain forms of transactional leadership (contingent rewards) have been shown to enhance employees' creative behaviour. The findings equally agree with the research findings of Mengesha (2015) in Ethiopia which revealed that keeping a contingent reward promise has a major impact on employee motivation. Further, the research portrayed that rewarding and encouraging people can be effective motivators. Again, Breevaart et al. (2014) concluded from their research that some transactional leadership behaviours like contingent rewards increase followers' job engagement.

Several studies have investigated the interplay between transactional leadership style, motivation, and workers' productivity, yielding intriguing outcomes. Notably, Kalsoom et al. (2018) conducted a study which sought to evaluate the influence of transactional leadership as well as transformational leadership style on workers' productivity within Pakistan's FMCG sector. It was discovered that transformational leadership exhibited a positive connection with

employee productivity, while transactional leadership demonstrated an even stronger and more positive association. This outcome aligns with the findings of a study undertaken by Obiwuru et al. (2011) in Lagos, Nigeria, which examined small-scale businesses to unravel the impact of leadership styles on organisational performance. It was exposed that transactional leadership has a stronger and more positive connection with employee productivity than transformational leadership. Though transformational leadership showed a positive connection, the link was insignificant and the influence on workers' performance was seen to be negligible. Equally, a mixed relationship was discovered between transactional leadership and employee motivation (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, cited in Kalsoom et al., 2018). A contingent reward was discovered to be positively linked to employee motivation, whereas management by exception as well as laissez-faire leadership were observed to be notably and adversely connected with motivation. As a result, this research hypothesises that transactional leadership is likely to exert a negative influence on the motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State.

Leadership Styles and Teacher Turnover Intentions

Up until recently, it was believed that the fields of leadership and turnover intention were distinct domains of research. Now the two separate principles are combined, contingent on the premise that workers would most probably be affected by their immediate supervisors' leadership actions. Such actions could either enhance their engagement and productivity or facilitate their early exit, typified by the popular saying that 'workers leave their bosses, not their jobs'. As previously stated, transformational leaders assist their followers in fulfilling their high-order needs, while transactional leaders are concerned with offering incentives to followers for their

achievements. Scholars argue that these different leadership behaviours affect employee turnover intentions differently (Long et al., 2012).

Ghamrawi and Jammal (2013) evaluated how transactional leadership as well as transformational leadership styles impacted teacher turnover intentions. Findings show that transformational leadership reduces work stress, while transactional leadership relates positively with work stress (i.e., increases work stress). This implies that transformational leadership is ideal for reducing job stress since it involves more consideration and support while transactional leadership may increase job stress because it is associated with close monitoring. Workplace stress was measured because it is believed to have a favourable association with turnover intention. As a result of the psychological and physical stress that comes with working in a stressful environment, the risk of quitting increases. (Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013).

Again, Razzaq et al. (2019), in a study involving 305 government workers in Lahore, uncovered that these two leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) styles lower and raise the turnover intention of workers, respectively.

In a different research, Green, et al. (2013) attempted to find the kind of relationship existing between turnover intention, emotional exhaustion, and transformational leadership. The study was conducted in a community of mental health workers. It was found that transformational leadership had no connection with either turnover intention or emotional exhaustion, implying that transformational leadership does not increase nor decrease the emotional exhaustion or turnover intentions of the workers. The research equally showed that emotional exhaustion strongly impacts turnover intention, but this impact can be moderated by transformational leadership (Green et al., 2013).

Caillier (2016) made a causal model to evaluate how transformational leadership cooperates with mission valence to affect turnover intentions. The model was put to the test using survey data from workers in the public sector. The findings showed a clear and unfavourable connection between workers' intentions to leave their jobs and transformational leadership. Similarly, Sharif-Heravi et al. (2010) in Iran tried to determine how leadership behaviours impact employee turnover intention in IT firms and discovered that employees' inclination to leave their jobs is equally adversely connected with transformational leadership. However, the transactional leadership style showed an insignificant connection to the turnover intentions of the workers. It could be concluded that for this group of workers, transactional leadership reduces their turnover intentions while transactional leadership neither increases nor reduces workers' turnover intentions in any significant sense.

In Pakistan, Khalid et al. (2016) explored the interplay of leadership style, job satisfaction, organisational engagement, and worker retention in commercial banks. Their findings highlighted a favourable association between leadership style and worker retention, with job satisfaction and organisational commitment acting as mediators. The researchers concluded that both transformational and transactional leadership styles could significantly enhance worker retention in Pakistani commercial banks. Similarly, a study in Uganda by Mugizi et al. (2019) revealed a direct and favourable connection between teacher retention and transformational leadership. However, the same study noted an insignificant yet positive link between transactional leadership and teacher retention.

In Malaysia, Long et al. (2012) examined the link between employee turnover intentions of lecturers and leadership styles. Contrarily, the study found an insignificant association

between leadership styles and employee turnover decisions. Research conducted by Maaitah (2018) in Amman, unveiled an adverse and substantial connection between transformational leadership and turnover intentions, but transactional leadership had the opposite effect which was insignificant.

Gul et al. (2012) in a study involving 121 respondents, investigated the connection between turnover intention and the two leadership styles in the Pakistani insurance sector. Surprisingly, the research revealed a negative correlation between turnover intention and the two leadership styles. Likewise, in another report, Wells and Peachey (2011) looked at the interaction of leadership styles, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction in the sports sector in the USA. Transformational leadership was found to have a direct and negative connection to the decision to leave. In the same vein, transactional leadership was also found to be negatively associated with turnover intentions. As opined by Wells and Peachey (2011), the negative connection noticed between turnover intention and transactional leadership could be explained using the theory of justice – the perception of fairness in organisational procedures could give employees a positive outlook on their jobs which could make them stay. Based on the literature, it was therefore hypothesised that transformational leadership behaviours of school principals would have a negative impact on the turnover intentions of the teachers while transactional leadership behaviours of school principals would have the opposite effect on the turnover intentions of the teachers in Lagos State.

Motivation and Turnover Intentions

There are many studies linking motivation or lack of it to turnover intentions. For instance, Oman et al. (2017) found from their research involving 467 public school teachers that

teacher turnover intentions can be minimised through motivation and commitment. The researchers also found a link between motivation and organisational commitment. The study's conceptual framework is that motivation leads to commitment which in turn impacts turnover intentions (Imran et al., 2017).

Elsewhere in Namibia, Shikalepo (2019) completed an exploration to determine the variables underlying teacher recruitment, motivation, and retention within the rural region of Omusati. Five school principals, two education officers and 28 teachers were sampled from two education offices and five rural schools in the area. It was revealed that educators at rural schools were motivated by opportunities for employment, family background, school leadership, rural environment, and support services (Shikalepo, 2019). The research showed that multiple variables inspired teachers to find and stay in rural schools. These findings debunk the notion that teacher motivation is majorly monetary in sub-Saharan Africa, buttressing the fact that motivation varies according to the prevailing needs and circumstances of the people.

A study was done to analyse how the combination of motivation and work satisfaction would affect the inclination of teachers at public senior high schools to quit teaching in Tamale Metropolis, Ghana. Self-reported questionnaires were administered to 203 teachers in specific schools in the area to collect data. The results demonstrated that the combination of the two variables substantially reduced teachers' inclination to resign from teaching. This result was congruent with the study by Kosi et al. (2015), which concluded that high levels of teacher motivation and job satisfaction resulted in a reduced likelihood of teachers quitting their teaching profession.

Another study by Göktürk et al. (2021) in Turkey sought to find out the reasons why some teachers opted to stay as special education teachers when they had the option of reverting to general education. The research also sought to discover the reason why the other teachers left special education and reverted to general education teaching. The findings revealed that stayers were motivated to stay for varied reasons which the researchers categorised into four, namely: (a) authentic interest in special education, which mirrors their expanded knowledge and interest in supporting children with disabilities, (b) teacher autonomy which alludes to the freedom of teachers and participation in the creation and implementation of the curriculum, (c) reasonable expectations, which reflects teachers' recognition of these students' unique needs and disabilities, as well as their awareness that their development is usually slow and sometimes unusual, and (d) administrative and collegial support, reflecting the level of support offered by management and other teachers to the research subjects.

Leavers, on the other hand, left for two reasons: (a) diminished job satisfaction in teaching the classes; implying that they were unable to achieve the expected outcomes from their attempts to educate these students, and (b) an absence of help, respect, and regard, which identified with a dearth of managerial, parental, and collegial support. In addition, the leavers felt their contributions were disregarded, and they equally felt marginalised (Göktürk et al., 2021).

Bringing it down to Nigeria, Owodunni and Obalalu (2015) carried out a study on the existing relationship between workers' motivation, turnover, and the organisational success of bank workers in Lagos. A total of 250 bankers from eight banks took part in the research, which used an ex post facto research design. The findings showed that low employee turnover brought about an undeniable degree of efficiency in the banks and that there was a huge improvement in

organisational success because of the motivational practices introduced by the banks (Owodunni & Obalalu, 2015). This study links motivation to employee retention and productivity.

Adeyemo (2017) conducted a study on "the relationship between motivation and staff retention at the College of Education, Lanlate; Oyo state." The study had 200 participants sampled – 100 junior staff, 40 academic staff and 60 non-teaching personnel. A combination of purposive and random sampling was deployed in selecting the study sample. Data was gathered through surveys. The result showed that low and sluggish monthly wage payments and lack of motivation resulted in reduced staff morale which occasioned low staff retention. The study also indicated that lack of opportunities for career progression and inadequate facilities were found to be major demotivators. Adeyemo's findings agree with the findings of other studies (Oni et al., 2017; Adelabu, 2005; Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010; Duze & Ogbah, 2013; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; UNESCO-IICBA, 2017; Kariuki, 2020) as it rates financial benefits as a key motivator for teachers in the college of education.

Scholars agree that teachers are grossly underpaid, which is a key factor sabotaging teacher motivation and morale in Nigeria. Low teacher salary is regarded as the bane of teacher motivation in sub-Saharan Africa (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) report that extreme inadequacy of teacher pay was described as the root of the African teacher motivation crisis in all 12 countries they studied.

Samuel and Chipunza (2009) reported that intrinsic motivational factors like in-service training, freedom to think innovatively, interesting, and challenging tasks, job security, and the feeling of belongingness had a substantial impact on worker retention in organisations in the public and private sectors in South Africa.

These reviewed empirical studies have made vital contributions to teacher motivation and turnover conversations. However, the majority of the studies focused on motivational theories primarily assessing the level of motivation, with little consideration given to the specific type of motivation driving behaviours (Roth, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Motivation is discussed as a quantitative construct which if increased would yield a corresponding increase in teacher productivity or the expected outcomes. This study aims to consider teacher motivation and turnover intentions from the viewpoint of self-determination theory. Under this theory, increased levels of motivation do not always imply more favourable outcomes if the motivation is of low quality, such as if it is regulated rather than autonomous (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The literature portrays low pay and inadequate financial benefits as major sources of work dissatisfaction in many developing countries. Wages, benefits, and welfare are all important outcomes of employment. If teachers were forced to work without pay, they would be unable to support themselves and their families. Few other policy choices will increase teacher motivation without first addressing low pay in countries where teachers' wages are at or below the poverty line, or where teachers' salaries are far below the salaries of people in other occupations requiring equivalent levels of qualifications (Crehan, 2016; UNESCO, 2015; Tournier et al., 2019). Nevertheless, the financial constraints faced by many governments in developing or low-income countries hinder their ability to increase salaries further. In numerous countries within this classification, teacher wages already constitute up to 75 per cent or more of the education budget (World Bank, 2018). However, simply increasing teachers’ pay and benefits may not entirely wipe out teacher demotivation and dissatisfaction as some people think. Instead, organisational,

and educational psychology has presented sufficient proof that motivation is a far more complex phenomenon, with extrinsic motivation leading to only temporary, superficial results (Korb, 2014).

In line with Korb's perspective (2014), it could be proposed that improving the field of education may require a shift in how teachers are motivated. This transition would involve moving beyond purely financial incentives and benefits and instead placing emphasis on cultivating a profound appreciation for education among both teachers and students. When teachers recognise the intrinsic value and the stimulating challenge of devising innovative and engaging methods to make lessons interesting and enjoyable for their students, many may come to the realisation that the art of teaching offers a far more engaging and enjoyable experience than the mere act of delivering and reciting lesson content. Samuel and Chipunza (2009) suggest that only a thorough combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors can improve retention and mitigate the high rate of employee attrition in diverse organisations.

Summary of Literature Review

As can be observed from the reviewed literature, the major problem confronting present-day principals and school administrators is teacher turnover. To effectively address the challenges posed by rising student enrolment, school administrators must possess strong leadership capabilities that allow them to not only attract but also retain a larger pool of teachers. (Ingersoll, 2001; Worth & Van den Brande, 2020). Many variables have been investigated to determine what causes teachers to leave teaching and what motivates them to stay in the profession. In the opinion of scholars, low wages are the most common explanation for teachers' intention to quit, followed by bad working conditions, a lack of principal support, no

opportunities for professional growth, inadequate collegial support, low motivation, job overload, the low reputation of the teaching profession and stress (Loeb et al., 2016; Egu et al., 2011; Oke et al., 2016; Wasserman & Yehoshua, 2016; Parsad et al., 2001; Villegas-Reimers, 2013).

Scholars have recognised autonomy-supportive environments as essential for boosting teachers' motivation to remain in the classroom (Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). Academics argue that addressing the three fundamental psychological requirements of teachers is essential for fostering autonomous motivation, flourishing, and beneficial outcomes which include the decision to persist and remain in teaching (Vansteenkiste et al., 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

Whilst several nations have tried to motivate teachers extrinsically by offering bonuses for achieving particular goals, Crehan (2016) reports that the outcomes of this kind of motivation have been mixed. Rather, granting teachers the autonomy to strive for different advancement openings, giving them independence for innovative thinking, creating training and growth opportunities, enabling them to contribute to decisions, providing challenging/interesting work, and supporting them in developing a perception of belongingness to the organisation (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) could serve as good motivation for teachers to remain in the occupation (Cordingley et al., 2019; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Bojović & Jovanović, 2020; Worth & Van den Brande, 2020; Hocine & Zhang, 2014; Kovjanic et al., 2012). Cordingley et al. (2019) as well as Tournier et al. (2019) noted that initiatives promoting teacher professionalism, such as cooperation with colleagues and constant professional training, are notable teacher motivation enhancers. School principals can help inspire teachers by providing guidance and

promoting an atmosphere in which teachers enjoy a bit of autonomy and are partners in decision-making (Rothmans et al., 2013, cited in Rothmann & Fouché, 2018). This kind of support from school leaders will help teachers become more autonomously motivated (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Firth et al., 2004), can further improve teacher professionalism and ultimately minimise teacher turnover (Johnson, 2006; Hirsch & Emerick, 2007; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

There is negligible research regarding school principals' leadership behaviours and teachers' autonomous vs. controlled motivations when contrasted with the volume of information on teachers' support for students' autonomous motivation (Eyal, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2020). In the context of a developing nation like Nigeria, research on teacher motivation and turnover is scanty and has been mostly guided by the Hierarchy of Needs Theory and the Two-factor Theory. Considering the challenges with teacher motivation and turnover in this part of the world and the empirical validations of the Self-determination theory, it is surprising that many scholars have not investigated these constructs from the perspective of SDT. One of the goals of this research work is to close this gap.

The literature review reveals the substantial efforts made by scholars to determine the interplay of transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and employee turnover decisions. Except for Green et al. (2013) and Long et al. (2015), the consensus in the examined literature was that the two leadership styles exert considerable influence on employee turnover intention. Green et al. (2013) reported no association between workers' turnover intentions and transformational leadership style, while Long et al. (2012) found no significant connection between workers' intention to exit and either of the leadership styles. Results of some investigations uncovered a significant negative association between transformational leadership style and workers' plans to

exit (Razzaq et al., 2019; Caillier, 2016), suggesting that transformational leadership style would cause a reduction in turnover intentions of employees. Other findings unveiled a positive connection between turnover intentions and transactional leadership style (Ghamrawi & Jammal, 2013; Maaitah, 2018; Razzaq et al., 2019), implying that employees' turnover intentions rise when leaders practice transactional leadership. Some scholars found the two leadership styles adversely related to workers' intention to leave (Gul et al., 2012; Wells & Peachey, 2011), signifying that both styles decrease workers' intentions to leave their jobs. Finally, other researchers found a positive but insignificant link between transactional leadership and employee intention to leave (Mugizi et al., 2019; Sharif-Heravi et al., 2010).

In conclusion, while international studies have laid the groundwork for understanding the connection between school principals' leadership styles, the motivation of teachers, and teachers' intention to leave their jobs, the contentious and disparate results from the studies as well as the context-specific nature of these connections underscore the importance of conducting research within the unique educational landscape of Nigeria. Addressing this identified gap will enhance the overall comprehension of the factors influencing teacher motivation and retention, which will ultimately benefit the educational system in Lagos State, and potentially serve as a model for other regions in the country. This underlies the need for the current research.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This research seeks to investigate how leadership styles impact teacher motivation and teacher turnover decisions. Additionally, the research aims to determine the effect teacher motivation has on the connection between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions.

This chapter, therefore, delves into the methodological decisions and research design employed to carry out this investigation. It provides a detailed explanation of why a convergent triangulation mixed method research approach is deemed suitable for this study. The chapter equally describes the target demographic, sample size, and sampling techniques deployed in conducting the research and further delineates data collection, analysis, and reporting procedures. Furthermore, the chapter shows the assessment of the validity and dependability of the study. Since the quantitative and qualitative approaches have different goals, they have been treated using separate techniques. In addition, ethical considerations made throughout the research process are discussed in detail in this chapter.

The fundamental objectives of this study therefore are:

a) To analyse the influence of transactional and transformational leadership styles on the motivation of teachers in government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos State.
b) To look into how teachers' intentions to leave the profession are impacted by transactional and transformational leadership philosophies.
c) To ascertain if motivation moderates the association between teachers' intentions to leave their jobs and the leadership styles of their principals.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The outcomes of this investigation will respond to the research questions and hypotheses listed below:

RQ 1: What is the impact of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on the motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State? The null and alternate hypotheses for testing this research question are stated thus:

H01: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha1: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H01a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha1a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transactional leadership style.

RQ 2: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on secondary school teacher turnover intentions in Lagos State? The following hypotheses will assist in answering the research question:

H02: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha2: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H02a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha2a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transactional leadership style.

RQ 3: What is the impact of teacher motivation on the relationship between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions?

H03: The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is not moderated by teacher motivation.

Ha3: The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is moderated by teacher motivation.

Research Philosophy

According to Khatri (2020), understanding the philosophical foundations that underpin a research study is paramount. The terms "research paradigm" and "research philosophy" are often used interchangeably. Denzin and Lincoln (2018) opine that a paradigm constitutes an individual's perspective, fundamental belief system, or worldview. It serves as the lens through which one comprehends the world. Essentially, paradigms represent a fundamental collection of beliefs that shape behaviours (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Specifically, a research paradigm reflects the philosophical stance of the researcher, explains how they perceive reality and articulates their assumptions regarding knowledge, methodology, and value. It guides researchers in method selection from both ontological and epistemological standpoints (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This philosophical framework serves as the foundation guiding the researcher throughout

the entire research process culminating in extracting meaning from the studied phenomenon (Khatri, 2020).

Hence, every research inquiry needs to be based on fundamental philosophical beliefs about what qualifies as 'valid' research (Khatri, 2020). To effectively carry out and assess research, it becomes crucial to understand these underlying assumptions and the concept of a paradigm. As per Lincoln et al. (2018), a paradigm consists of four elements: ontology (nature of reality), epistemology (nature and extent of knowledge), methodology (means for gaining knowledge about the world), and axiology (the study of values) (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Collis and Hussey (2014) argue that a researcher's choice of methodology is shaped by their personal philosophical views on ontology and human nature, alongside their epistemological stance.

Ontology

Ontology, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2018), delves into fundamental inquiries about the essence of reality and the nature of human existence. Within the research paradigm, ontology is a crucial philosophical dimension, addressing the nature of reality and the apparent knowledge accessible to human beings (Saunders et al., 2016; Lincoln et al., 2018; Khatri, 2020). Within ontology, two opposing viewpoints emerge - objectivism and subjectivism or constructionism (Gray, 2014).

Objectivism holds that the external world has a concrete and fixed existence. It is discoverable through empirical observation and measurement, similar to how natural sciences investigate the physical world (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). In contrast, subjectivism, or constructivism, posits that reality is subjective and is shaped by individual perceptions,

experiences, and interpretations. Truth and meaning are seen as products of human imagination and are not necessarily fixed or universal (Gray, 2014).

Epistemology

Conversely, the area of philosophy that addresses the nature and extent of knowing is referred to as epistemology. In a research context, it examines the processes of acquiring knowledge, what counts as knowledge, and the benefits and drawbacks of various knowledge sources (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Collis & Hussey, 2014). Interpretative epistemology and positivism (realism) are two opposing schools of thinking in epistemology (Bryman, 2006).

As defined by Bryman and Bell (2015), positivism is an epistemic stance that supports using natural science techniques to examine social reality. Based on the natural sciences, positivism emphasises universal truths discovered by statistical analysis and objective observation (Collis & Hussey, 2014). Large sample sizes and quantifiable data are preferred; researchers usually expect consistent results. Using statistical analysis, positivism looks for exact causal relationships between the social and natural worlds. It emphasises validity and dependability in its quest to find objective truths through quantitative methodologies (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

On the other hand, interpretivism takes an individualistic approach to reality, emphasising the experiences of individuals and developing theories as the research progresses (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This viewpoint contends that social phenomena are socially produced, viewed through individual perspectives, impacted by past experiences and expectations, and their meaning is open to interpretation. Instead, social phenomena lack abstract existence and cannot be objectively known.

The primary focus of investigation in this study revolves around determining how one variable impacts another. According to Johnson and Christensen (2012), examining the effect of one variable on another often consists of using statistical techniques to analyse the causal relationship between the variables to ascertain the effect of one on the other, with a focus on deductively testing theories or hypotheses. This approach typically entails collecting and analysing quantitative data to derive objective results, aligning with the positivist philosophy that underscores empirical observation and the establishment of general laws (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Hence, in investigating the influence of leadership styles on teacher motivation and turnover intentions, a positivist approach would emphasise gathering empirical data via methods like surveys or questionnaires. This approach would involve hypothesis testing and employing systematic and objective statistical analysis to unveil patterns and relationships among the variables.

Contrarily, the constructivist approach, which recognises that individuals may construct diverse realities based on their perspectives and experiences, would seek to reveal the experiences and meanings teachers attach to the various leadership behaviours of the school principals and the impact these perceptions have on their motivation and turnover intentions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This usually would involve data collection methods like interviews, focus groups or observations for in-depth analysis of teachers' perspectives on the variables.

Given the study's aims, research questions, and context, it became apparent that solely adopting either a purely objectivist or subjectivist stance or adopting either an interpretive or positivist philosophical assumption could potentially limit the range of outcomes. Therefore, the researcher decided to adopt a blend of these approaches.

Ontologically, this study adopts a blended perspective, acknowledging both objectivism and subjectivism. It recognises a natural world that can be studied using organised techniques while emphasising the role of people as social agents who interpret and influence their surroundings (Lincoln et al., 2018). Epistemologically, the study takes a balanced approach, supporting both positivist and interpretivist viewpoints. It acknowledges that knowledge is created by applying reality and embracing the nature and direction of relationships between variables within the world's realities. However, the study equally seeks to provide explanations and meanings through an in-depth analysis of teachers' perspectives on the leadership styles' effects on motivation and turnover intentions. Hence a blended approach is required. The reason for this choice is to strike a balance between hypothesis testing and exploring the 'why' aspect of causal relationships to offer comprehensive insights and recommendations (Creswell, 2013). This blended choice further creates the necessity to adopt a worldview that facilitates the integration of interpretivism and objectivism within a single research framework.

Pragmatism recognises that different research questions may necessitate different approaches, advocating for flexibility and adaptability in research design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). In a pragmatic philosophy, researchers may blend objectivist and subjectivist perspectives by integrating quantitative and qualitative methods to explore both observable phenomena and subjective experiences (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Similarly, they may combine interpretivist and positivist perspectives by using methods that allow for understanding the meanings individuals attribute to their experiences while also seeking to test hypotheses and establish

causal relationships. Pragmatists believe in taking on real-world problems and coming up with workable answers (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

The primary argument supporting a pragmatist approach to integrating quantitative and qualitative research lies in the emphasis placed on the research question, as highlighted by Bryman (2006). Within this framework, two frequently debated issues emerge. Firstly, pragmatist research suggests that the methodological approach is chosen based on the effectiveness of specific methods in addressing research questions, rather than driven primarily by the researcher's allegiance to a paradigm or philosophical doctrine (Bryman 2006). This debate, as asserted by Bryman (2006), shifts the focus towards the research question, relegating epistemological and ontological arguments and creating a conducive environment for the amalgamation of quantitative and qualitative research methods (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019).

Secondly, the pre-eminence given to research questions within pragmatism suggests that combining both quantitative and qualitative research is not only possible but also desirable and necessary for addressing specific research questions or combinations thereof (Bryman 2006). This perspective aligns with the views expressed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010), further highlighting the practical and problem-centred nature of the pragmatist approach in research.

Therefore, this study adopts the pragmatic research paradigm, aligning with the recommendation to use a framework that best suits the research topic.

Research Design

A research design represents the chosen strategy for the execution of a study starting from the overarching assumptions to particular techniques for collecting and analysing data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Kothari (2004) emphasises that a research design serves as the conceptual

framework guiding the gathering, measurement, and analysis of data, essentially forming a blueprint for the entire research process. A well-structured research plan is crucial, as the reliability of answers to research questions depends significantly on it.

According to Creswell et al. (2003), variants of mixed-methods design differ in terms of theoretical or advocacy lens, implementation approach (sequential or concurrent data collection procedures), prioritisation of quantitative and qualitative data (equal or unequal), and the stage at which data analysis and integration occur (separated, transformed, or connected). The six variants of mixed methods design proposed by Creswell et al. (2003) are outlined as follows:

a) Sequential explanatory strategy

b) Sequential exploratory strategy

c) Sequential transformative strategy

d) Concurrent triangulation strategy

e) Concurrent nested strategy

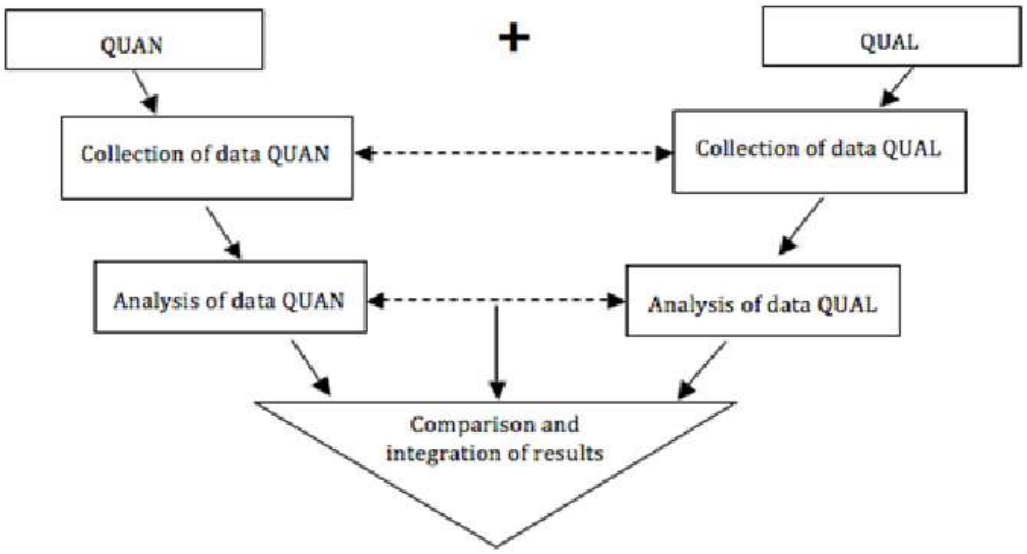
f) Concurrent transformative strategy

This study adopted the concurrent triangulation strategy. This design is known for giving equal importance to quantitative and qualitative information (QUAN+QUAL) and the two types of data are gathered at the same time but analysed independently. The analyses are then compared and integrated to arrive at conclusions. The design is often associated with triangulation because researchers who adopt this method regularly seek to validate study findings and leverage the advantages of both strategies to mitigate their disadvantages. Therefore, the design is also known as the convergent triangulation mixed-methods design (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The conceptual representation of the research process in this study is provided in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3. 1

Concurrent triangulation mixed method design



Note. Adapted from *Research Design - Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods* by Creswell et al., 2003, p. 181. Copyright 2003 by Sage Publications, Inc.

Research Approach

To successfully address the research questions, a mixed methods technique is used in this study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) which entails adopting both quantitative and qualitative techniques.

Quantitative research, characterised by a deductive approach rooted in positivism, emphasises objectivity in exploring social reality (Bryman & Bell, 2015). It involves statistical

data collection, aiming to minimise subjective opinions and reveal objective social phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017). The quantitative method, through randomised subject selection, standardised questionnaires, and statistical analysis, was utilised to examine the effect of leadership styles on teacher motivation, and turnover intentions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The detachment of the researcher from respondents ensures unbiased findings (Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Conversely, qualitative research explores the nature and characteristics of a phenomenon, focusing on diverse forms and contextual perspectives (Philipsen & Vernooij-Dassen, 2007, cited in Busetto et al., 2020). Unlike quantitative methods, qualitative research does not rely on statistical conclusions or objective cause-and-effect sequences (Busetto et al., 2020). It seeks to comprehend phenomena within specific contexts, emphasising the 'why' and 'how' aspects (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017). By employing techniques like extensive interviews and document analysis, qualitative research recognises that reality is influenced by society, and acknowledges the researcher's perspective (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The qualitative aspect of this study involves in-depth interviews with secondary school teachers, exploring the 'why' and 'how' aspects of the research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This approach complements quantitative findings and facilitates a more thorough comprehension of the subject matter being researched (Bryman, 2006). However, it acknowledges potential biases due to the researcher's involvement and subjectivity.

The Rationale for the Chosen Research Design and Approach

Integrating the two traditional approaches in one research is becoming prevalent because it produces in-depth and comprehensive data that facilitates the achievement of study objectives by providing responses to address the research questions (Bryman, 2006).

This strategy tries to gather disparate but complementary information about the subject of interest to obtain a grounded knowledge of the research problem (Cresswell & Creswell 2018; Arias Valencia, 2022). Teacher motivation and turnover intentions are complex phenomena influenced by various factors, including individual perceptions and experiences. An interpretive approach allows for a better understanding of these factors while quantitative methods (surveys, statistical analyses) provide broader generalisations and statistical confirmation of trends and patterns. This can strengthen the research findings and contribute to the overall rigour of the study.

Combining numbers (quantitative) and descriptions (qualitative) when gathering and analysing data allows for triangulation, a powerful strategy that boosts the reliability and validity of the results. Triangulation involves cross-verifying results from different methods, providing a more robust and reliable interpretation of the phenomenon under investigation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Using both quantitative and qualitative techniques in data-gathering processes helps to eliminate biases as the two approaches validate each other (Dawadi et al., 2021; Saunders et al., 2016).

Integrating qualitative methods provides the opportunity for researchers to obtain the viewpoints and lived experiences of the research participants, and to understand their interpretations of these experiences. Thus, facilitating a better understanding of the patterns that

can contribute to theory development by generating hypotheses or refining existing theories. The richness of qualitative information can lead to the formulation of more relevant, contextual and theoretical frameworks.

The main rationale for utilising a mixed-methods design in this study is to help the researcher overcome the drawbacks involved in using the quantitative technique and the qualitative technique. Using the two together allows the researcher to gather stronger and more complete information that would otherwise be impossible to obtain using only one method (Almeida, 2018; Dawadi et al., 2021; Arias Valencia, 2022). By integrating diverse types of information, the researcher can make broader conclusions about the population based on the observations from the sample while also gaining a deeper understanding of the subject matter under investigation. Thus, the justification for utilising this design is to combine the qualitative methods' in-depth data with the quantitative techniques' strengths of large sample size and generalisability to arrive at a better understanding of the impact of leadership styles on teacher motivation and the turnover decisions of secondary school teachers in Lagos State.

Population and sample of the study

The study defines its population, following Bryman and Bell (2015), as the collection of elements from which the sample is drawn. Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) further elaborate that the population consists of all instances meeting specifications determining inclusion or exclusion from the group of interest. The target demographic comprises teachers in public secondary schools in Lagos State, Nigeria.

Lagos, a southwestern state of Nigeria, encompasses over 250 ethnic groups and has a diverse population, including Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo, Fulani, Americans, British, East Indians,

Chinese, white Zimbabweans, Greeks, Syrians, Lebanese, and Japanese. As of 2021, the World Population Review estimates the population of Lagos metropolis to exceed 14 million, making it the most populous city in Africa.

The educational system in Nigeria is overseen by federal, state, and local governments, each with specific roles as outlined in the constitution (Nwakasi & Cummins, 2018). Despite these provisions in the constitution, challenges persist across all tiers of the education system, including classroom capacity, infrastructure, resource accessibility, and management (Subair & Talabi, 2015).

The administration of education in Lagos involves education ministries at the federal and state levels, with statutory agencies like commissions responsible for specific functions. Notably, the Post Primary Teaching Service Commission was dissolved in 2005, leading to the creation of six Education Districts overseeing secondary schools in Lagos State (Ogunode, 2021).

Lagos State has 799 secondary public schools. The exact number of teachers in these government-owned secondary schools could not be ascertained. However, from the little information available, the number of teachers is estimated to be slightly above 9000. Table 3. I displays the distribution of schools in each cluster.

Table 3. 1

Distribution of Schools in the Clusters

Districts	No public schools
I	135
II	123
III	119
IV	136
V	172
VI	114
Total	**799**

Sampling Technique

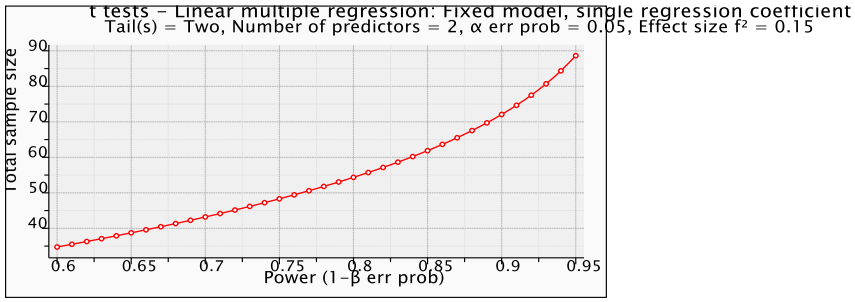
As per Bryman and Bell (2015), sampling involves selecting a representative portion of a demographic of interest that accurately reflects the features of the larger group for research purposes. To account for time and resource constraints, the study utilised a sampling technique to select a representative subset of government-owned (public) secondary school teachers for the study. This was done using a cluster sampling method combined with random, convenience and purposive sampling. Specifically, the educational districts served as clusters, giving rise to six clusters from where schools were chosen.

To ensure that the data produced significant outcomes and to reduce the risk of accepting a null hypothesis that is not true (Type II error), a power analysis was conducted as recommended by Kim and Ji (2015). A G*Power 3.1.9.4 was used for this analysis which considered an alpha (α), level of 0.05, a medium effect size of 0.15, a desired power level of

80%, and the desire to use multiple regression tests. The objective of this analysis was to ascertain an appropriate sample size required to meet these specifications. The effect size corresponds with the level of effect the researcher wishes to find. The result of this analysis set the minimum sample size at 55 schools (i.e., teachers from 55 secondary schools). See Figure 3.2 below.

Figure 3. 2

Priori Power Analysis



A simple random selection method was used to choose 55 schools from the different clusters for quantitative data collection and 23 schools for qualitative data collection. After determining the number of schools to be chosen from each cluster according to their proportional representation among all government-owned secondary schools in the state, a straightforward

random selection process was utilised to pick schools from each cluster. The names of all schools within a cluster were inscribed on slips of paper, folded, and placed into a container. Schools were then drawn from this container for each cluster, according to the required number of participants. This method was implemented to eradicate any systematic bias in the sample, thus laying a robust foundation for deriving accurate conclusions about the entire population. Table 3.2 below indicates the number of schools sampled from each cluster in proportion to the total number of schools in the state.

Table 3. 2

The Total Number of Schools Sampled in Each Cluster

Districts	**No of public schools**	**No of schools sampled for Quantitative Data**	**No of schools sampled for Interviews**
I	135	9	4
II	123	8	4
III	119	8	3
IV	136	9	4
V	172	13	5
VI	114	8	3
Total	799	55	23

Furthermore, in deciding how many teachers to partake in the quantitative research, a sample size calculator was utilised. The calculation was done using a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error. The result suggested that at least 370 teachers are required to take part in the study. The essence of this is to ensure confidence in the results. Therefore, the participants were thoughtfully chosen adopting both convenience and purposive sampling techniques.

Convenience sampling involved choosing participants who were readily available and accessible to the researcher, while purposive sampling focused on selecting individuals based on specific criteria closely aligned with the research objectives (Andrade, 2021). This method ensured that the chosen participants possessed the requisite knowledge and experiences essential for the study.

To identify willing participants, the researcher engaged with teachers in staff rooms and offices, introducing the study and its objectives. Subsequently, teachers who expressed interest in participating were further screened to ensure they conform to the eligibility criteria. Cragg et al. (2021) clarify that eligibility criteria refer to the particular attributes that members of a population must possess to meet the requirements for inclusion in a study. To be considered for participation in this research, the teachers needed to have taught for at least one year and worked under the current school principal for a minimum of six months. The underlying assumption is that teachers who have not taught for up to one year may not have the required experience to respond to the questions on teacher turnover intentions and teachers who worked with a principal for up to six months are better positioned to offer valuable perspectives on the principal's leadership approach. The teachers who met these criteria were provided with consent forms and granted the opportunity to participate in the research. Ultimately, 550 participants were issued the questionnaire while 23 teachers participated in the interview process.

Materials/Instrumentation of Research Tools

Primary data was crucial in testing the hypothesis and addressing the research questions, with both quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews employed for collection and analysis. Utilising surveys, specifically questionnaires, proved dependable for gathering information from

a large population, such as numerous secondary school teachers, aligning with the deductive approach commonly used in business, management, and educational research (Saunders et al., 2016). Surveys, known for their effectiveness, simplicity, and cost-efficiency, provide a snapshot of the target population, allowing researchers to measure participants' views, attitudes, and behaviours precisely and efficiently (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The robustness of the study's results for generalisation is underpinned by the advantage of collecting data from a substantial sample size.

Three research tools were employed to gather data for the research:

a) Leadership Questionnaire.

b) Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction at Work Scale (BPNWS)

c) Turnover Intention Scale (TI6)

Details of the test instruments are discussed in the following section.

The Questionnaire

The questions from the different instruments were compiled into a single questionnaire with a total of 49 inventories and an estimated completion time of 18 minutes. The questionnaire was organised into four sections (1-4) as follows:

Section 1 – Demographic information

Section 2 – Leadership questionnaire

Section 3 - Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale

Section 4 - Turnover Intention Scale (TI6)

All the test instruments except for the demographic information were measured on a Likert scale. When a researcher wishes to get participants' feelings or attitudes about a topic of

investigation, they commonly utilise a Likert scale (Joshi et al., 2015). For each survey item, the participant was asked to choose an option that best expresses his or her point of view. Likert scales range from four points to ten points, but the five-point scales and seven-point scales were used. The options were listed horizontally and numbered consecutively. The options on the left end of the scale reflected the options with the least agreement and toward the opposite end of the scale, responses rose in agreement with the last option representing the most agreement (Joshi et al., 2015).

Section 1 - Demographic Information. In this section, demographic data were elicited from respondents including gender, age, educational background, years of teaching experience, and duration of time spent at their current school. The rationale for including these questions was to ascertain the authenticity of the data source. No personal data like names, phone numbers, or email addresses, was requested. Furthermore, the introductory information was articulated to put the participants at ease before responding to the questions.

Section 2 - Leadership Questionnaire. Section two had questions on leadership styles leadership. These questions were structured questions adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio & Bass,1991). It was used to collect information about the principals' leadership behaviours. There were seventeen (17) questions in the section; ten (10) items evaluated aspects of transformational leadership style while seven (7) items evaluated aspects of transactional leadership style. These items measured how often teachers perceived the principal's leadership style as transformational or transactional.

Section 3- Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale. The third section had questions on motivation. To assess this, the study utilised the Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale

(BPNWS) (Deci et.al, 2001). This is a conventional self-rated tool rooted in Self-Determination Theory. The BPNWS gauges the degree to which the three psychological necessities stipulated by SDT are fulfilled in the work environment. The BPNWS was employed in this investigation to assess the satisfaction of teachers' relatedness, competence, and autonomy needs. The composite scores were indicative of their type of motivation. The Centre of Self Determination Theory on behalf of Dr Ryan permitted the researcher to use this scale (See Appendix C).

According to Deci et al. (2000), the BPNWS has high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha score of .89. Autonomy, competence, and relatedness, which are sub-scales of the BPNWS, also show good reliability with alpha scores of .73 and above. Baard et al. (2004) confirmed the accuracy of the items in these sub-scales through factor analysis, and the overall scale indicated strong reliability with an alpha score of .87. The items were adopted in the precise order that they were listed on the scale.

Section 4 - Teacher Turnover Scale (TI6). The questions in this part assessed the intentions of teachers to leave their jobs. Data on teacher turnover intentions were gathered using the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6). There were six questions in all measuring various aspects of teacher turnover intentions. These items were part of a 15-item scale created by Roodt (2004, cited in Bothma & Roodt, 2013) and later reviewed by Bothma and Roodt (2013). Permission to use this scale was obtained from Prof. Gert Roodt. See Appendix D.

The TIS-6 scale was evaluated by Jacobs and Roodt (2007), Bothma and Roodt (2013), and Oosthuizen et al. (2016), and they all reported high Cronbach alpha of .91, .80 and .88, respectively. These results demonstrate the validity of the TIS-6 as a measure of teacher turnover intentions. See Appendix G for the complete questionnaire.

A summary of the sources for the questionnaire items may be seen in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3. 3

Sources of the survey questions

Variable	No of Questions	Source
Transformational Leadership Style	10	*Adapted from Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (Bass & Avolio 1991).
Transactional Leadership Style	7	
Motivation	Autonomy – 7 Competence – 6 Relatedness – 8	*Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction at Work Scale by (Kasser et al., 1992).*
Turnover Intention	6	*Turnover Intention Scale (TI6) by Roodt (2004)*

Interviews

The second primary data collection technique involved interviews. Semi-structured interviews were employed to gather rich, novel investigative information from participants about the research. In semi-structured interviews, the conversation is allowed to flow naturally, with room for follow-up questions and exploration of unexpected avenues. This approach allows for flexibility while ensuring that key topics are addressed (Ruslin et al., 2022). Scholars can employ semi-structured interviews for several purposes: gathering fresh, exploratory data pertinent to a research theme, cross-referencing information from various sources, or verifying findings via member checking, which involves gathering feedback from participants regarding the research

outcomes. Moreover, within a mixed methods framework, semi-structured interviews can serve in the qualitative stage to delve into novel concepts, generate hypotheses, or provide explanations for results obtained from hypothesis testing in the quantitative stage (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, cited in DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019). One-on-one interviews provide researchers with the opportunity to connect with participants, and observe nonverbal cues, and are particularly suitable for exploring people's understanding of a phenomenon or their attitudes, feelings, intentions, and thoughts (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019; Ruslin et al., 2022).

Face-to-face and telephone interviews were conducted based on participants' preferences. The process began with debriefing participants on the aim of the study, the interview protocols, measures put in place to safeguard their privacy, and their right to discontinue participation in the research at any time. Interviews were audio-recorded for accurate transcription (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019).

To maintain focus and manage time while allowing participants the freedom to express their views, a semi-structured interview format was adopted. The interview questions, including five demographic questions and three main questions corresponding to the research objectives with probing questions, underwent rigorous review by experts with doctoral degrees to ensure content coverage. Irrelevant questions were removed, and a peer debriefer further refined the questions (see Appendix I for interview questions).

Operational Definition of Research Variables

Variables are classed as categorical or continuous by Hoy and Adams (2016). Categorical variables are organised by their groups rather than a numerical value while continuous variables, on the other hand, are denoted by a number or numbers that represent the variable's "magnitude"

(Hoy & Adams, 2016, p. 30). Creswell and Creswell (2018) classified variables into independent/predictor, dependent/outcome, moderator, intervening, and control variables. This particular study mainly concentrated on independent, dependent, moderating and control variables. Independent variables are the factors that influence or affect the outcome, whereas dependent variables are the outcomes that rely on independent variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). According to Cohen et al. (2017), the intensity of the association between the dependent and independent variables is determined by the moderating variable.

Independent variables

Going by the definition above, the independent or predictor variables are represented by the transformational and transactional leadership styles of school principals.

Transformational Leadership Style. This construct describes a leader who strives to inspire and actively engage subordinates, as well as transform them so that they can perform better than they could have anticipated (Bass, 1985). Leaders portray transformational leadership when they communicate a shared vision of the future, advocate the adoption of collective goals, establish lofty standards, act as role models, intellectually stimulate the followers, and support subordinates' individual development needs (Bass, 1985; Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013).

These behaviours are measured with questions 1–10 of the Leadership Questionnaire. Of the items measuring transformational leadership, two items aimed to measure idealized influence (e.g., “My principal is a role model to the teachers”), three items measured intellectual stimulation (e.g., “My principal inspires and encourages me to perform better”), two items captured inspirational motivation (e.g., “My principal communicates a clear vision and a picture of the future”), while three items tried to measure individualised consideration (e.g., “My

principal views me as an individual with different needs, abilities, and aspirations"), as adapted from Avolio and Bass (1991).

Structured, closed-ended measurement questions on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 were used to assess transformational leadership, with 1 being equal to "not at all" and 5 corresponding to (frequently-if not always). The items are presented on a continuous level. The score for transformational leadership styles is calculated by averaging the results from items 1-10 of the Leadership questionnaire. According to Joshi et al. (2015), if someone intends to create a composite score (using a Likert scale) for a group of participants by combining their responses to a set of items, the resulting scale can be treated as an interval scale. In this case, the mean would be suitable to determine the central tendency, and the standard deviation would be an appropriate measure of dispersion. Moreover, statistical techniques like Pearson's correlation coefficient, and regression analysis, can be utilised for analysing this kind of data set.

Transactional leadership style. This construct is associated with a focus on supervision, organisation, performance, rewards, and penalties. The leader expresses clearly his or her expectations of a give-and-take relationship with the followers (Bass, 1985). As a result, leaders with this leadership style convey clear expectations and offer rewards based on the ability of the followers to fulfil contractual responsibilities. Setting targets, monitoring, and controlling outcomes are typical representations of transactional leadership, (Bass, 1985). These behaviours are measured with questions 11–17 of the Leadership Questionnaire. Four out of the 7 items measuring transactional leadership aimed to capture contingent reward (e.g., "My principal sets clear standards of performance" and "My principal identifies the rewards teachers will gain if work targets are met"), while the remaining three items measured active management by

exception, as adapted from Bass and Avolio (1994) (e.g., “My principal monitors teachers’ performance and keeps track of mistakes” and “My principal pays particular attention to mistakes and failures to meet set standards”).

The construct is evaluated with structured, closed-ended questions designed on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, with 1 equivalent to “not at all” and 5 corresponding to “frequently-if not always”. Transactional leadership is presented on a continuous level. The transactional leadership score is calculated by averaging the results from items 11-17 of the Leadership questionnaire.

Dependent Variable

The construct, teacher turnover intention is the dependent, outcome or criterion variable which focuses on a teacher’s conscious as well as deliberate willingness to leave a school. An example of the questions included in the TI6 scale is: “How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?” Turnover intention is evaluated on a continuous level using the TI6 scale.

Turnover Intention Scale (TI6) deploys the Likert scale format indicating 5 points with 1 equivalent to (“never”), (“totally dissatisfying”) or (“highly likely”) and 5 corresponding to (“always”), (“totally satisfying”) or (“highly unlikely”). After reversing the results of the negatively phrased questions, the turnover intention scores are calculated by averaging the responses to the items.

Moderator Variable

In statistics and regression analysis, moderation occurs when the connection between two variables is influenced by a third variable, according to Cohen et al. (2017). The moderator

variable is a variable that affects the direction and intensity of the connection between a predictor and an outcome variable (Cohen et al. (2017). This could be a categorical variable or a continuous variable (Memon et al., 2019). In the current study, teacher motivation is considered the moderator variable. This is measured by the BPNWS. The BPNWS comprises 21 questions, which assess three different constructs: autonomy (seven questions), perceived competence (six questions), and relatedness (eight questions). Using a 7-point Likert scale, participants rated each item; higher scores denote better satisfaction. BPNWS is a continuous measure, and the scores are calculated by averaging all responses, with negatively worded items reversed (Hetland et al., 2011).

In statistical terms, the influence of a moderating variable is known as an interaction. Therefore, this study anticipates that the association between turnover intentions and leadership styles will be impacted by teacher motivation, as evaluated using the BPNWS.

Control Variables

Age, gender, tenure, and degree are taken as the control variables because of their potential effect on the turnover intention of employees, as indicated by some scholars (e.g., Chang et al. 2013). Gender is a dichotomous variable ("1 = male, 2 = female"), age is a continuous variable while education is a categorical variable ranked as follows: "1 =WASC, "2 = Ordinary Diploma", 3 = "NCE", 4 = "bachelor's degree", 5 = "PGDE", 6 = "master's degree", 7 = "Doctorate". Lastly, tenure with the current school was captured using the following classes: 1 = "less than 1 year", 2 = "1 -5 years", 3 = "6 - 10 years", and 4 = "above 10 years".

Reliability and Validity of the Study

A study's validity and reliability are crucial in determining its credibility. According to Bryman and Bell (2015), the validity of a measuring scale is determined by its capacity to precis ely measure the intended subject. In agreement with the above definition, Orodho et al. (2016) added that such a measure not only measures accurately but also generates scores that appropriately reflect the underlying variables being tested. On the other hand, reliability describes the extent to which a test, technique, or measure such as a questionnaire can generate comparable results under diverse settings, provided no other changes occur (Kothari, 2004).

Though these elements can be applied to qualitative and quantitative approaches, the understanding and application methods attributed to each type are different (Creswell et al., 2018). As a result, Creswell et al. advised that in a mixed-method design, each strand's validation and reliability should be addressed individually. The accuracy and consistency of the quantitative measurement scales were confirmed through statistical techniques, and these techniques will be detailed in the following section.

Reliability and Validity of the Quantitative Measurement Scales

The questionnaire instruments for this study were adapted from existing literature and have been widely used and validated. For instance, according to Deci et al. (2000), the BPNWS' total need satisfaction scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .89, with .73 for autonomy, .84 for competence, and .79 for relatedness. Nonetheless, the scales were validated for the current research.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed on the data received from each scale. A principal component analysis (PCA) was adopted for the EFA with an orthogonal rotation

(Varimax rotation). This was done to make sure that the measurement scales were reliable and to determine the dimensionality of the variables. Principal components analysis was chosen because the primary objective was to reduce the dimensionality of the datasets while retaining as much of the variation in the data as possible. Before running EFA for each scale, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was employed to ascertain whether the samples were sufficient for carrying out factor analysis. Based on overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed suitable for all items, with eigenvalues greater than 1 and small coefficients with absolute values below .5 being suppressed.

The Transformational Leadership scale: For the Transformational Leadership Scale, the p-value at $p < 0.001$ was significant for Bartlett's test of sphericity, and the KMO was .90, higher than the ordinarily acceptable value of .6, indicating adequate sample suitability for factor analysis.

The result produced a two-component solution which explained 49.55% of the total variance. This result indicated that 8 items measured transformational leadership while the remaining two items (Transform 1 and Transform 2) were dropped from further analysis for this construct because they loaded separately and had low communalities that were less than .40 (Kersee & Naktiyok, 2020 cited in Moreno-Casado et al., 2022).

Another EFA was run after removing the two items and it produced a KMO score of .89 and a total variance explained of 59%. The 8 items yielded a one-component solution and the rotated factor loadings for each item on their respective factors were also adequately high, ranging from .73 to .83. For further analysis of the study, the eight items were retained. Table 3.4 below portrays the factor loadings as well as the communalities of the variables retained for the Transformational Leadership Scale.

Table 3. 4

Factor loadings, communalities of retained Transformational Leadership Scale

Transformational Leadership Scale Items	Factor Loading	Communalities
Transformation_3	.774	.599
Transformation_4	.746	.557
Transformation_5	.829	.687
Transformation_6	.756	.571
Transformation_7	.768	.590
Transformation_8	.788	.620
Transformation_9	.753	.557
Transformation_10	.730	.533

Note. Principal Component Analysis was used for extraction.

The Transactional Leadership Scale. The responses from the Transactional Leadership Scale were subjected to an Exploratory Factor Analysis to establish its one-dimensionality. The p-value at $p < 0.001$ was significant for Bartlett's test of sphericity, and the KMO was .89, also showing that the samples are good for carrying out a factor analysis. Utilising eigenvalues greater than 1 and set to suppress small coefficients with absolute values below .5, the result of the EFA showed a one-factor solution which was responsible for 61.14% of the total variance. This result showed that all 7 items in this scale measured transactional leadership with sufficient rotated factor loadings ranging from .74 to .82. For further analysis of the study, all seven items were used. Table 3.5 displays the factor loadings and communalities for the Transactional Leadership Scale.

Table 3. 5

Factor Loadings and the Communalities of the Transactional Leadership Scale

Transactional leadership Scale items	Factor Loading	Communalities
Transac_1	.821	.675
Transac_2	.738	.545
Transac_3	.764	.583
Transac_4	.799	.638
Transac_5	.757	.573
Transac_6	.796	.634
Transac_7	.794	.630

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale. This is a standardised scale designed to assess the fulfilment of the fundamental needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the workplace. It has demonstrated robust psychometric properties in myriad studies like Kasser et al. (1992), Ilardi et al. (1993) and Deci et al. (2001). Nevertheless, some criticisms have been raised about the scale. Broeck et al. (2016) suggest that the scale may not sufficiently capture the distinct contributions of each need to psychological growth and flourishing. Eriksson (2018) proposes that a condensed version of the scale might enhance validity and reliability. In addition, concerns about the scale's adaptability to diverse cultures have been raised by Broeck et al. (2016). These scholars contended that variations in the valuation of autonomy, competence, or

relatedness may arise across cultures. Considering these criticisms, the researcher found it fitting to perform an Exploratory Factor Analysis on the scale to evaluate its validity and dimensionality within the Nigerian cultural context. Another reason for conducting an EFA on this scale was to understand how different items or questions on the scale relate to each other and whether they can be summarised by a smaller number of underlying factors.

Before conducting the factor analysis, questions 3, 5, 7, 11, 14, 16, 18, 19, and 20 were reverse coded to account for reverse scaling on the Likert scale. The p-value at $p < 0.001$ was significant for Bartlett's test of sphericity, and the KMO was .880, equally showing that the samples are suitable for carrying out a factor analysis. The EFA resulted in six factors. One factor had 6 items, two factors consisted of 5 items each, while the remaining three factors loaded a single item each. Two items (BPNS 11 and 20) did not indicate any loading. The total explained variance was 64.93%. The variance explained by factors one through six were: 17.66%, 16%, 14.95%, 5.71%, 5.34% and 5.25%. Therefore, the questions that loaded individually and the two that did not show any loading were dropped from further analysis. These questions were (a) “When I am at work, I have to do what I am told.” (b) “The people I work with do not seem to like me much.” (c) “When I am working, I often do not feel very capable.” (d) “There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work” (e) “People at work are pretty friendly towards me” representing questions 11, 18, 19, 20, and 21, respectively. The questions assess aspects such as compliance with instructions, perceived likability by colleagues, feelings of capability at work, autonomy in decision-making, and the friendliness of coworkers.

A second EFA was carried out and the variables were loaded into three factors. These three factors which aligned with the initial three components of the scale (relatedness, autonomy, and competence) as previously hypothesised by Deci and Ryan, (2000) were retained for further analysis. The three factors accounted for 62.34% of the total variance while the KMO was .888. Table 3.6 shows the factor loadings and communalities of the retained items of the construct.

Table 3. 6

Factor Loadings and communalities for the retained BPNW scale

Basic Needs Satisfaction Scale Items	**Factors**			
	Competence	**Autonomy**	**Relatedness**	**Communalities**
BPNS_4	.796			.679
BPNS_10	.766			.672
BPNS_3R	.758			.589
BPNS_12	.741			.644
BPNS_14R	.636			.475
BPNS_13		.830		.711
BPNS_8		.778		.664
BPNS_1		.753		.646
BPNS_5R		.731		.608
BPNS_17		.714		.558
BPNS_6			.827	.710
BPNS_16R			.792	.651
BPNS_7R			.780	.616
BPNS_9			.761	.670
BPNS_2		.	.681	.601

Basic Needs Satisfaction Scale Items	Factors			
	Competence	Autonomy	Relatedness	Communalities
BPNS_15			.628	.478

Note. R= Reverse coded item

Among the remaining 16 questions in BPNWS, 5 questions gauged the satisfaction of the need for autonomy, compared to 7 in the original scale. Additionally, 5 questions assessed the satisfaction of the need for competence, in contrast to the original scale's 6 questions. Furthermore, 6 questions evaluated the satisfaction of the need for relatedness, as opposed to the original scale's 8 questions, as indicated in Table 3.6 above.

Turnover Intention Scale (TI6). The TI6 scale has been reported by several studies to be a robust and reliable tool for assessing employee turnover intentions with reliability coefficients ranging from .79 to .97 (Jacobs & Roodt, 2007). However, Harden et al. (2018) criticised the scale implying that TI6 might not comprehensively encompass the distinctive factors influencing turnover intention within the IT profession and may not fully consider the impact of organisational commitment and social exchange theory in predicting turnover intention. In response to these critiques, the researcher opted to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on the scale to assess its dimensionality and validity.

Before performing the factor analysis on TI6, questions 2, 5, and 6 were reverse-coded to account for reverse scaling on the questionnaire. The p-value at $p < 0.001$ was significant for Bartlett's test of sphericity, and the KMO result was .87. These scores were considered adequate for factor analysis. The EFA result showed a one-factor solution confirming the scale was one-

dimensional. This factor was responsible for 61 % of the total variance with factor loadings of .811, .808, .777, .774, .773, and .744. Hence, all six items were retained. Table 3.7 below portrays the factor loadings and the communalities of the TI6 scale.

Table 3. 7

Factor loadings and the communalities of the TI6 scale

Turnover Intention Scale Items	Factor Loadings	Communalities
TI6_1	.774	.600
TI6_2R	.777	.603
TI6_3	.811	.657
TI6_4	.773	.598
TI6_5R	.744	.554
TI6_6R	.808	.652

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

R: Reverse-coded item

Source – Turnover Intention Scale (TI6) (Roodt, 2004)

Reliability of the constructs. The constructs' reliability was confirmed using the Cronbach Alpha statistic. The Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) is a prevalent technique for evaluating how well different elements are positively associated with one another (Vaske et al., 2016). If the items are closely linked and the alpha coefficient is near one, the reliability of the items is strong (Sürücü & Maslakçı, 2020). Conversely, the alpha coefficient will be near zero if

the items are poorly formulated and have a minimal correlation. Various statisticians, such as Nunnally (1978 cited in Sürücü and Maslakçı, 2020) and Vaske (2008, cited in Vaske et al., 2016) have proposed interpretation guidelines for Cronbach's alpha coefficient, stating that a minimum acceptable reliability score is an alpha coefficient of .70, which is widely accepted by scholars. The Cronbach alpha scores for the different constructs are displayed in Table 3.8 below.

Table 3. 8

Cronbach's Alpha's Reliability test for study construct

Item	Cronbach Alpha	Item -to- total Correlation (range)	Comment
Transformational L.	0.90	0.643 to 0.759.	Accepted
Transactional L.	0.89	0.644 to 0.739.	Accepted
TI6	0.87	0.629 to 0.710.	Accepted
Autonomy	0.86	0.622 to 0.705	Accepted
Competence	0.84	0.554 to 0.690	Accepted
Relatedness	0.87	0.577 to 0.737	Accepted
BPNWS (Overall)	0.89	0.449 to 0.631.	Accepted

Note. BPNWS - Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction at Work scale. TI6 – Turnover Intention Scale.

The transformational leadership construct had a score of 0.90, the transactional leadership scale score was 0.89, the Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction at Work scale received a score of 0.89, and TI6 displayed a Cronbach alpha of 0.87, according to the results of the Cronbach alpha statistics. These findings suggest that all of the scales were reliable.

Validity analysis. The validity of the quantitative method was established using content and construct validity. Content validity assesses the degree to which an instrument's items align with the full range of content that the instrument is intended to represent (Straub et al., 2004, cited in Taherdoost, 2016). In general, content validity is the procedure of evaluating a novel survey instrument to guarantee that it includes all the required items and excludes those that are not pertinent to a particular construct (Taherdoost, 2016). Literature reviews and expert/panel judgment are used to ensure content validity. A rational analysis of the instrument by experts conversant with the construct of interest or specialists on the research subject is usually required to develop a content-valid instrument (Bolarinwa, 2015; Mugenda & Mugenda 2008; Bryman & Bell, 2015). The experts will examine all the questionnaire items for legibility, precision, and comprehensiveness before deciding on the ones to be added to the questionnaire. For this study, two experts in leadership and research methodology reviewed the questionnaire for content validity. A few changes were required from the review.

The extent to which a measurement tool achieves its intended purpose is referred to as construct validity (Bolarinwa, 2015: Bryman & Bell, 2015). Convergent and discriminant validity are construct validity subcategories. The two measures are complementary. When there is evidence for both convergent and discriminant validity, construct validity is established (Bolarinwa, 2015; Taherdoost, 2016). Convergent validity aims to demonstrate that specific measures that are theoretically meant to relate to the same concept are, actually connected; in other words, it aims to demonstrate convergence among similar measures. Discriminant validity, on the other hand, aims to establish that two measures that are not theoretically expected to be connected are in reality unrelated; in other words, it aims to distinguish between different

measurements (Bolarinwa, 2015; Taherdoost, 2016). Convergent validity for the constructs was evaluated using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981, cited in Sürücü & Maslakçı, 2020), a construct is assumed to have convergent validity if the AVE score is up to or more than 0.50 and discriminant validity is demonstrated if the square root of AVE (the diagonal element) exceeds the correlations among constructs.

To compute the AVE for the constructs and determine the convergent and discriminant validity, principal components factor analysis (PCA) of the remaining 37 items of the questionnaire, using Promax rotation, was conducted. Promax rotation was preferred because the sample was large and because the correlation matrix indicated correlations above 0.32. As stated by Tabachnick and Fiddell (2019), when correlations are higher than 0.32, suggesting a 10% or more similarity in variance among the factors, oblique rotation is recommended except if there are strong reasons for orthogonal rotation. Secondly, Promax rotation produced the best-defined factor structure. After conducting Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and using the criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0, it resulted in six factors. The six factors were responsible for 61.74% of the variance. Sample adequacy was equally assessed through the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure, which yielded a result of 0.924. The p-value was =.001 for Bartlett's test of sphericity. These findings indicated that the factor analysis used in the study was appropriate for the sample. Lastly, all communalities were above 0.4 indicating that each item had some variation in common with others. Table 3.9 illustrates the factor loading matrix for this final solution.

Table 3. 9

Factor loadings and communalities for 37 items of the questionnaire

	Transform	Transact	Relatedness	TI6	Autonomy	Competence	Communalities
Transform_5	.923						0.729
Transform_8	.791						0.627
Transform_3	.768						0.613
Transform_4	.757						0.572
Transform_10	.714						0.537
Transform_7	.692						0.594
Transform_6	.648						0.563
Transform_9	.646						0.554
Transac_1		.808					0.671
Transac_6		.784					0.636
Transac_5		.779					0.583
Transac_4		.777					0.636
Transac_3		.762					0.586
Transac_7		.760					0.634
Transac_2		.717					0.549
BPNS_6			.875				0.718
BPNS_7r			.837				0.632
BPNS_16r			.834				0.656
BPNS_9			.777				0.682
BPNS_2			.659				0.611
BPNS_15			.625				0.496
TI6_3				.835			0.662
TI6_1				.815			0.614
TI6_6r				.753			0.632
TI6_2r				.739			0.597
TI6_4				.737			0.582
TI6_5r				.711			0.545
BPNS_13					.859		0.711
BPNS_1					.817		0.668
BPNS_8					.804		0.660

	Transform	Transact	Relatedness	TI6	Autonomy	Competence	Communalities
BPNS_17					.784		0.576
BPNS_5r					.727		0.610
BPNS_4						.871	0.689
BPNS_3r						.846	0.602
BPNS_10						.759	0.681
BPNS_12						.730	0.648
BPNS_14r						.646	0.489

Note. Principal Component Analysis was employed for extraction.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization

n = 472

The questions for each factor are shown to be loaded together in Table 3.9 above, with high and positive loadings for the constructs' elements. Based on these loadings, the study computed the AVE. The total loadings for a factor were divided by the total number of questions in the factor to get the average loading. The AVE for each factor was calculated as the square of average loading. Convergent validity is achieved for each construct when the AVE ≥ .50 (equal to or greater than) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981, cited in Sürücü & Maslakçı, 2020). The computed AVE for the factors were: TI6 (.59), Transactional leadership (0.59), Transformational Leadership (.56), BPNS- Competence (0.60), BPNS – Relatedness (.60), and BPNS-Autonomy (.64). Table 3.10 confirmed that the measures had convergent validity.

Table 3. 10

Correlation among demographic variables and latent constructs

	Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Gender	**N/A**									
2	Age	.105*	**N/A**								
3	Degree	-.065	.300**	**N/A**							
4	Tenure	.138**	.485**	.158**	**N/A**						
5	Turnover_Intention	.024	.029	.155**	.082	**.768**					
6	Transactional	.052	.121**	.076	.166**	.483**	**.768**				
7	Transformational.	-.088	-.044	-.141**	-.083	-.585**	-.323**	**.748**			
8	BPNS_Competence	.008	-.018	-.056	-.018	-.418**	-.348**	.421**	**.775**		
9	BPNS_Relatedness	.031	.028	-.065	-.066	-.260**	-.197**	.307**	.430**	**.775**	
10	BPNS_Autonomy	.042	-.133**	-.181**	-.109*	-.441**	-.386**	.450**	.464**	.407**	**.800**
	Average Variance Extracted	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**.59**	**.59**	**.56**	**.60**	**.60**	**.64**

Note. Diagonal items = √AVE

n = 472

Discriminant validity is evaluated by comparing the correlations between constructs (off-diagonal elements) with the square root of AVE represented as diagonal elements. Sürücü and Maslakçı (2020) explain that discriminant validity is established when the correlation is less than the square root of the Average Variance Extracted. As illustrated in Table 10, the diagonal elements considerably exceed the correlations among constructs, suggesting that discriminant validity has been achieved for the constructs. The next section will discuss the trustworthiness of the qualitative data.

Trustworthiness of Qualitative data

Unlike quantitative studies, qualitative research does not strive for replication, according to Stahl and King (2020). Instead of attempting to replicate findings, qualitative researchers concentrate on recording, analysing, and writing about exceptional situations that are likely to result in different findings with other researchers, in different locations, and days. Even with the same data, various authors can provide wildly different results. This is because qualitative researchers place less value on the quantitative idea of validity. After all, they see reality as socially constructed (Stahl & King, 2020). Instead, they strive for credibility, which inspires readers' belief in the researcher's findings. Readers should not expect to replicate the precise findings in their research, even with this confidence. Qualitative researchers use particular research techniques to assure reliability. Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Lemon & Hayes, 2020) base their evaluation of trustworthiness on four broad standards. They include credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. According to Lemon and Hayes (2020), these criteria are interdependent and can be used in place of numerical assessments to evaluate the reliability, internal validity, external validity, and objectivity of qualitative research. The methods for achieving these objectives in this study are described below.

Credibility. This is the alternative to the quantitative study's internal validity (Lemon & Hayes, 2020). Credibility in a qualitative investigation pertains to the level of authenticity and precision in the results obtained from a study, which depends on both the researchers' trustworthiness and the chosen methodology. To increase credibility, researchers can employ techniques such as triangulation, extended engagement with data, relentless observation, member checks, and peer debriefing, as suggested by Stahl and King (2020).

In the present study, the researcher ensured credibility by allowing respondents to voluntarily participate devoid of fear, pressure, or harassment. Respondents were aware they could withdraw their participation without repercussions and were encouraged to share their thoughts openly. The researcher assured them that all information and perspectives would be treated with respect and with the utmost confidentiality.

The researcher also used member checking of the qualitative data as a means of ensuring the study's credibility. Member checking is a vital procedure for determining credibility in a research study (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The act of member checking, which is also known as respondent validation, involves verifying with study participants if the research aligns with their perspectives. This process may take place after data collection or analysis, or when initial findings become available (Busetto et al., 2020).

To establish trustworthiness, the researcher allowed the interviewees to review information on the interview transcriptions and remark on any inaccuracies or misrepresentations. Each participant was given a physical copy of the transcript and asked to check it before accepting it or reporting any irregularities. During the process of member checking, the researcher requested the participants to confirm or add other viewpoints not captured in the interviews. As a result, the researcher could incorporate the participants' viewpoints into the overall study. This strategy ensured that the data gathering was genuine and trustworthy.

Transferability. The term "transferability" in qualitative research represents what "external validity" and "generalisability" are to a quantitative study. Transferability is the assessment of how applicable the study's results are to other circumstances, contexts, and

locations. While transferability in qualitative research cannot be proven with 100% confidence, the researcher can show that it is extremely likely, to support the reliability of the study and, as some researchers contend, patterns and descriptions from one context may apply to another. Overall, the significance of a study is reduced if one cannot learn from it some extensions that might match with a subsequent set of conditions (Stahl & King, 2020).

To ensure the applicability of qualitative research, the researcher provided a comprehensive description of the research methodology, elucidating the procedures and methods used for gathering and analysing data, to allow other scholars to read the findings, make their assessments, and extrapolate to other scenarios (Stahl & King, 2020; Nowell et al., 2017).

Transferability, in the opinion of Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Lemon & Hayes, 2020), encompasses both the ability to generalise findings and the representativeness based on contextual similarities. According to these scholars, it should be evident that, if transferability is to occur, the person desiring to apply it elsewhere bears the burden of proof, not the initial investigator. Further, they stated that the researcher's duty is completed when sufficient descriptive data is provided to allow a reader to make such 'generalisability' judgments.

Confirmability. Confirmability is established when findings are based on participant replies instead of on the researcher's prejudice or personal interests (Nowell et al., 2017). Confirmability pertains to establishing that a researcher's conclusions and interpretations are unequivocally drawn from the data, which entails providing a rationale for the researcher's findings and interpretations (Stahl & King, 2020). The data should be able to stand on its own without any subjective influence from the researcher. Confirmability is frequently proved by offering an audit trail. This audit trail serves as evidence that the researcher's decisions and

choices regarding theoretical and methodological issues are based on a clear rationale and that the findings accurately reflect the participants' responses. The goal is to demonstrate that the researcher's interpretations and conclusions are not affected by conscious or unconscious biases (Nowell et al., 2017).

Although bias in studies may never be eradicated, the researcher made every effort to minimise it. This was accomplished in several ways. First, by recording the interview data to avoid bias in interpretation. Secondly, leading questions were avoided, and all respondents had adequate time to consider each question before providing an answer. During the research process, a trusted colleague of the researcher provided honest and transparent feedback on the study. The researcher's colleague/peer-debriefer, who had experience in research methodology and was equally a doctoral student, evaluated the interview questions, the coding process, and the transcripts to see if the researcher had appropriately synthesised the data. No adjustment was required after the discussion with the peer debriefer about the coding. Confirmation was made by the interviewees through member checking.

Dependability. Dependability is an alternative to quantitative reliability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in Lemon & Hayes, 2020). They further stated that a dependable study would be able to be replicated by the same researcher or another at a later date, using the same procedures, and the results would be consistent. Neuman (2003), on the other hand, contends that when qualitative researchers employ alternative approaches, it results in unique and distinctive outcomes. Qualitative research is characterised by an interactive data collection process and a continuously evolving research environment, which makes it challenging to replicate results (Neuman, 2003). This viewpoint is further supported by Saunders et al. (2016),

who assert that findings obtained through non-standardised research methods, such as interviews, are not meant to be replicated, as they accurately represent the reality at the time of their collection rather according to Lincoln and Guba(1985, cited in Lemon & Hayes, 2020), the essence of qualitative research is to write a narrative that illuminates a reader's perspectives or provokes thought in them.

However, as future researchers may want to apply the same methods in a future study with different participants to compare findings, researchers must make sure that the research process is logical, verifiable, and properly recorded to attain dependability in a research project. Readers are better qualified to assess the study's dependability by being able to trace how it was conducted (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, cited in Lemon & Hayes, 2020). Auditing the methodologies employed in the research study serves as a means to demonstrate its dependability (Nowell et al., 2017).

The interview guide was adhered to, and the researcher ensured that the collection and reporting of data were thorough and aligned with the research goals. The study methodology is also supplied with a thorough explanation. A peer debriefer equally audited every aspect of the research process to ensure that any prospective researcher would likely obtain comparable results if he/she conducted the study in similar settings.

Triangulation of the Study

Triangulation is employed to improve the study's validity by cross-checking and comparing different sources of data to verify the accuracy of information obtained for the topic under investigation (Cohen et al., 2017; Bush, 2012). Employing mixed methodologies in this study, deepened and enriched the comprehension of the influence of leadership styles on both

teacher motivation and teacher turnover intentions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Cohen et al., 2017). Four types of triangulations have been identified in educational research by Denzin (1970 cited in Arias Valencia, 2022) which include - theoretical, investigator, data, and methodological triangulations. The researcher sought to respond to the research questions utilising data from two sources (questionnaires and interviews), hence only methodological triangulation is addressed in this study. The rationale behind this approach is that the shortcomings of one method can be complemented by the advantages of the other. By utilising a combination of methods, the researcher hopes to achieve the most favourable outcomes from each technique while mitigating their weaknesses (Arias Valencia, 2022).

The researcher considered that the issues discussed concerning reliability, validity, trustworthiness, and triangulation are sufficient to ensure the study is relevant and valuable. The next section presents the study results.

Study Procedures and Ethical Assurances

Once the UNICAF Research Ethics Committee (UREC) gave its approval, the researcher went to the Lagos State Ministry of Education to gain permission to interview secondary school teachers for data collection. When the letter of request for approval was presented to the office of the Commissioner of Education, the researcher was asked to send a similar letter to the Head of Service (Public Service Office), Lagos State as the formal approval will be granted by that office. However, to avoid delaying the collection of data, the Commissioner's office contacted the different educational districts and requested they allow the researcher to proceed with data collection pending the issuance of a formal approval letter from the Head of Service (Public Service Office), Lagos State.

The current list of the schools in each district was obtained from the Ministry of Education. From this list, 55 schools were randomly selected for the quantitative research as earlier stated in Table 2. The formal approval letter was subsequently issued and delivered to the district representatives as required. See Appendix E.

The researcher personally visited each of the 55 schools. Some schools offered the researcher the opportunity to debrief the teachers in the staff room while in other schools, one-on-one conversations were held with the participants. The researcher gave information to the teachers about the aim of the research, how their identity and information provided will be preserved, and the right to revoke the consent to participate without penalty. Only the teachers who filled out the consent forms participated in responding to the questionnaires or in the interviews. While some teachers responded to the questionnaires on the researcher's first visit to the schools, others took a week or two to complete them. The researcher used teachers in the schools to gather and hold the questionnaires that were delayed pending the time of collection.

The study involved twenty-three interviews, ten of which were conducted in person and the remaining thirteen were carried out over the phone. The interviews conducted in person were held within the school premises. These interviews were arranged with the teachers' approval during the researcher's initial visit, where consent forms were also issued. Modalities for the interviews were agreed upon during the same visit. The interviews were mostly scheduled towards the end of the school day. Meanwhile, the phone interviews were conducted mostly in the evenings. All interviews were finished within one hour and fifteen minutes.

Some participants did not seem to like being recorded, and three of them expressed some reservations about the purpose of recording the interviews. The researcher explained that taking

down all their sentences was crucial for good data analysis and recording will allow accurate transcription of data and permit the researcher to pay more attention to what the participants were saying rather than focusing exclusively on taking notes. Pseudonyms were employed to protect the participants' privacy, and the names of the schools were omitted.

One difficulty the researcher ran into was that not all the interviewees were familiar with the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership, necessitating some clarifications about the concepts before the interviews. In the end, the interviews were captured using an audio recorder. The voice recordings were transcribed and checked by the participants to ensure accuracy, and their permission was obtained before the analysis of the data.

Ethical Assurances

A crucial ethical challenge in carrying out educational research is getting approval and access to the institutions in which the field research is conducted (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Cohen et al., 2017). Therefore, the collection of data was delayed until all necessary approvals were received, including UREC and the Lagos State Government through the Head of Service, Public Service Office, Lagos State. School principals were duly notified before data were collected from the teachers.

The protection of the participant's rights and welfare is a critical ethical imperative for all parties involved in a research endeavour (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). As stated earlier, participants signed the consent forms before they were issued the questionnaires or participated in the interviews. The respondents participated freely without undue influence. To avoid pressuring the respondents, no compensation was offered for participation.

The face-to-face interviews took place in quiet and private settings chosen by the interviewees and the telephone interviews were done at dates and times chosen by the respondents. The interview locations and timing enabled participants to share information without privacy concerns. Ideal interview settings are quiet and private locations (Sharma & Nambudiri, 2015). No incentive was offered for participation in the interview process. As recommended by Cohen et al. (2017), the consent of the interviewees was secured before recording the interviews.

Necessary measures were adopted to protect participants' confidentiality. The identity of the sampled schools as well as the participants was disguised with codes. For example, pseudonyms like School 1 and School 2 were used to label the schools. Interview participants were identified with pseudonyms like P1, P2, P3 etc. After the transcription of the recorded interviews, the interviewees were allowed to check the transcripts for agreement. To ensure confidentiality, the researcher stored the completed questionnaires and interview transcriptions in a steel cabinet accessible only to the researcher.

Data Collection and Analysis

The study involved collecting both quantitative data, through questionnaires, and qualitative data, through interviews, to obtain a robust comprehension of the relationship between study variables. Both types of data were collected concurrently.

Collection of Quantitative Data

For the quantitative data, the researcher personally met with the principals and, in some cases, vice principals of schools in the sample to request approval to collect data from eligible teachers. In some schools, the school administrators provided names of teachers who had been at

the school for over a year, and the researcher was allowed to debrief the teachers about the research in the staff room. The teachers who agreed to participate were given a consent form and a questionnaire to complete afterwards. The questionnaire covered all items, and participants were encouraged to answer all of them.

The form for obtaining consent contained information about the research, including the title, contact details of the researcher, the school of affiliation, the reason for conducting the study, the information required, and the intended usage. The participants were notified that participation was optional and that a respondent could withdraw at any moment freely. It also assured participants of the confidentiality of their identity and any information provided.

Some questionnaires were completed and returned on the same day in certain schools, while in others, they were returned after one or two weeks. A total of 550 questionnaires were issued (10 per school). Out of this number, 491 were returned. While scrutinising the returned questionnaires, 11 were found to be ineligible because the respondents were recruits who had not taught for up to one year, and 8 respondents failed to complete a substantial number of questions. A total of 472 of the 491 returned questionnaires were deemed appropriate for analysis, resulting in an 86% response rate. Statistical analysis of the survey responses was done using the IBM Statistical Software, SPSS, (version 22).

Collection of Qualitative Data

Interviews are considered to be an effective tool for collecting data as they provide individuals with the opportunity to express their life experiences in their own words and to interact with the researcher (Kvale, 2006). One advantage of interviewing is the increased probability that the participants will share vital, honest information about their principals'

leadership styles and how these affect their motivation and turnover intentions. For interview data, convenience sampling was used to select teachers for interviews based primarily on their willingness to participate. Despite efforts made by the researcher to convince teachers of the confidentiality of any information provided, most of the teachers were reluctant to participate in the interview process and rather preferred to complete questionnaires. Ultimately, a total of 24 (twenty-four) teachers were interviewed across the six districts. One of the teachers subsequently requested to withdraw from the research. Hence, the interview record of the participant was deleted thereby bringing the number of interview participants to 23 (twenty-three). Teachers who accepted to be interviewed completed the consent form and agreed on the modalities, time, and venue for the interview. Before conducting each interview, the researcher sought permission from the respondents to record the interview and informed them of their right to vacate the interview at any time without facing any consequences. The researcher also addressed the questions or concerns that the participants had regarding the interview process.

Semi-structured and probing questions were used during the interviews to gather data (Busetto et al., 2020). All interviews were recorded using a voice recorder. While ten interviews were conducted on a face-to-face basis, the remaining thirteen were carried out over the phone. The telephone interviews happened mostly in the evenings as preferred by the respondents while the face-to-face interviews took place in schools at locations selected by the participants. Following the interviews, the researcher transcribed the responses and presented them to the interviewees for member checking and approval.

Data Saturation. Through constant scrutiny and comparison of the gathered data, the achievement of data saturation was established after interviewing 23 participants as evidenced by

the repetition of information and the lack of fresh insights emanating from the data. Rich and diverse participant viewpoints supported all identified themes and categories. The ensuing data analysis and explication lay a solid foundation for the interpretations and suggestions made in this thesis.

Data Analysis Tools

Data analysis entails evaluating both qualitative and quantitative data independently before combining them to respond to the study questions (Creswell & Clark, 2018).

Analysis of Quantitative Data

Descriptive and inferential analyses were carried out on the quantitative data using SPSS, version 22.

Descriptive Analysis. Descriptive statistics serve the purpose of summarising and presenting key features of a dataset, providing a concise and meaningful overview. These statistics help in organising and simplifying copious amounts of data to reveal patterns, trends, and central tendencies (Kothari, 2004). Thus, descriptive measures such as mean, frequencies, percentages, and standard deviation, were used to offer insights into the distribution, dispersion, and shape of the data on the variables.

Inferential statistics. Inferential statistics were applied to examine how the study variables impact each other as well as to check the moderating ability of teacher motivation on the relationship between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles. Before conducting the analysis, a pre-analysis data screening was performed to check for data completion and outliers.

Correlation and regression analyses were carried out to address the first two research questions that focused on the influence of school principals' leadership styles. The first question explored the effect of these leadership behaviours on the motivation of secondary school teachers, while the second question investigated their effect on teachers' turnover intentions. Correlation analysis provides a numerical measure (correlation coefficient) that quantifies the degree of association between two variables (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2019). The analysis used correlation to identify relationships and the direction of connections between teacher motivation, teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles. Further, regression analysis aided in determining if leadership styles predict teacher motivation and turnover intentions to test the hypotheses. According to Tabachnick and Fidel (2019), employing multiple linear regression constitutes an appropriate statistical approach for evaluating the impacts of various continuous predictor variables on a continuous dependent variable.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to investigate research question 3, which asks whether teacher motivation influences the relationship between teacher turnover intentions and principals' leadership styles. Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) recommend employing this statistical method to assess how a quantitative variable modifies the relationship between two other quantitative variables. First, the pertinent variables were subjected to correlation analyses. Subsequently, a three-step hierarchical multiple regression was executed to investigate the impact of the moderator variable, teacher motivation (represented by the composite scores of the Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale in this study), on the relationship between each independent variable (transformational and transactional leadership styles) and the dependent variable (teacher turnover intentions). The first and second stages included control variables and

main effects (independent and moderator variables), while the third stage involved the introduction of the two interaction terms computed as the product of the predictor variables and the moderator variable.

Analysis of Qualitative Data

Upon completing the interviews and transcription processes, the researcher read through the transcripts to familiarise herself with the data before sorting through the information to find patterns and connections. The goal of this process, known as coding, is to comprehend the meaning of the information provided by participants (Miles & Huberman, 2013). By using open coding, the researcher organised the data based on common elements, looking for similar words and phrases across interviews. Then, with axial coding, relationships between these common elements were identified. Categories were formed by grouping similar ideas and explanations from the interviews. As the researcher analysed the transcriptions, new categories were added when new trends and patterns were noticed. Following this, the data was further distilled into specific codes chosen to symbolise the prevalent themes within the participants' responses.

Summary

The research approach employed for the study was described in this chapter. The study, which looked primarily at how leadership styles impact secondary school teachers' motivation and intentions to leave their jobs, and how teacher motivation affects the connection between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles was conducted using a concurrent triangulation mixed-method research design. The chapter provided details about the target population, sampling method, and data collection procedures.

Within this chapter, the examination of the validity and reliability of quantitative data was undertaken, along with the trustworthiness of qualitative data. Before analysing the reliability of quantitative data, an Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted on each test instrument's scores to determine their dimensionality and establish the measurement scales' reliability. The analysis used Principal Component Analysis with an orthogonal rotation and with Kaiser normalisation. The factor analysis led to the reduction of items in the transformational leadership and BPNWS scales.

The quantitative data instruments were analysed further for reliability using Cronbach Alpha statistics. The results showed scores above the generally accepted minimum reliability score of 0.70, demonstrating sound internal consistency of the test instruments. Content and construct validity were used to confirm the validity of the quantitative data. Content validity was confirmed by having two experts in leadership and research methodology as well as a peer debriefer review the questionnaire. Construct validity was achieved through convergent and discriminant validity analyses using principal components factor analysis with Promax rotation on the remaining 37 items of the questionnaire after the initial EFA. Each construct's Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was above .5, showing that convergent validity was achieved for all the constructs. The diagonal elements (square root of the computed AVEs) were higher than the off-diagonal elements, indicating discriminant validity. The reliability of the qualitative data was established by ensuring the credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability of both the qualitative information and procedures. This was achieved by providing adequate information to participants about the research, informing the participants of their rights, ensuring

confidentiality, carrying out member checking, outlining the research process, recording interviews, and using a peer de-briefer.

After that, data screening and coding were done to prepare the data for further analysis. Additionally, the ethical decisions made during the research process were equally highlighted.

The data analysis utilised the SPSS statistical software. Correlation and multiple linear regression analyses were employed to evaluate the influence of leadership styles on teacher motivation and teacher turnover decisions. Further, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to explore the interaction effect of the moderating variable on the link between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles. The subsequent chapter presents the outcomes of the study.

Chapter 4: Findings

Examining the effects of school principals' leadership behaviours on teacher motivation and turnover intentions in secondary schools in Lagos State, Nigeria, is the main goal of this mixed-methods study. The second goal is to determine whether teacher motivation modifies the relationship between turnover intentions and leadership styles.

For this inquiry, a mixed-methods strategy was used to leverage the advantages and potentials of both qualitative and quantitative procedures, which proved more effective than using either approach independently. While the qualitative component sought to learn more about the phenomenon and obtain an understanding of the viewpoints and experiences of the participants, the quantitative aspect aimed to uncover any significant connections between the variables being examined. This method facilitated a deeper and more thorough comprehension of the topic being studied.

The results of the investigation are presented in this chapter. Firstly, the descriptive and inferential results of the quantitative analysis are presented, followed by the thematic analysis of the qualitative data. Thereafter, a comprehensive evaluation of the findings is reported, culminating in a summary. Each result is presented and clarified in the context of the research questions and hypotheses.

Research Questions and Hypotheses:

RQ 1: What is the impact of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on the motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State? Two sets of hypotheses – (null and alternate) were formulated for testing this research question and they are stated thus:

H01: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha1: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H01a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha1a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transactional leadership style.

RQ 2: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on secondary school teacher turnover intentions in Lagos State? The following hypotheses will assist in answering the research question:

H02: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha2: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H02a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha2a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transactional leadership style.

RQ 3: What is the impact of teacher motivation on the relationship between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions?

H03: The association between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is not moderated by teacher motivation.

Ha3: The association between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is moderated by teacher motivation.

The study's findings are presented in two ways in this chapter: quantitative analysis (descriptive and inferential) and qualitative analysis.

Results

In this section, the presentation of results starts with the quantitative analysis findings before the qualitative results. SPSS version 22 was employed in the carrying out the quantitative analysis which involved performing descriptive and inferential analysis.

Quantitative Analysis

The result of the quantitative survey is presented starting with a description of the demography of the respondents that participated in completing the questionnaire, thereafter the quantitative analysis is presented.

Demographic Information of Survey Participants. The study utilised 472 questionnaires which were considered eligible for analysis after the data screening. Age, gender, highest academic qualification (degree), teaching experience, and tenure in current school comprised the background information elicited from the participants. Table 4.1 displays these demographics.

Table 4. 1

Survey Participants Demographic Statistics

Variables	Characteristics	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	191	40.5
	Female	281	59.5
Age (years)			
	21 - 30	72	15.3
	31 - 40	201	42.5
	41 - 50	151	32
	51 and above	48	10.2
Level of education			
	Diploma	8	1.7
	NCE	90	19.1
	Bachelors	282	59.7
	PGDE	18	3.8
	Masters	65	13.8
	Doctorate	9	1.9
Teaching experience in years			
	1 - 5	175	37.1
	6 - 10	125	26.5
	11 - 15	86	18.2
	16 - 20	40	8.5
	21 - 25	27	5.7
	26 and above	19	4.0
Tenure in years			
	1 - 5	298	63.1
	6 - 10	125	26.5
	10 and above	49	10.4

Note. Tenure =the duration of time that the participants have been teaching at their present schools.

The inclusion of participants' gender as a crucial control variable in this study stems from its potential impact on employee turnover intentions. Although more women are entering the labour market, men are still perceived to be the primary breadwinners in many communities. As a result, a male employee's need to work longer in an organisation may differ from that of a female employee (Oladotun & Öztüren, 2013). Table 4.1 displays a relatively even distribution

between the two groups in terms of gender among the study respondents. Though the majority of the participants were females, there was a good balance of gender in the teaching staff of Lagos State secondary schools, indicating that the study adequately represents both genders, allowing conclusions to be generalised in both circumstances.

The age distribution of participants was deemed important for the study because it is assumed that older employees are usually more concerned with job security and thus have a higher tendency to persist in their jobs than the younger ones. On the strength of the findings in Table 11 above, it is concluded that the most active workforce in the Lagos State Teaching Service is between the ages of 31 and 40, accounting for almost 43% of the distribution. This shows that the majority of respondents were of a younger generation, who are more inclined to hop from one job to the next within a short period in search of greener pastures.

The highest educational qualification reported by the bulk of participants was a bachelor's degree (59.7%) and the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) recorded 19.1%. However, while the NCE is a teaching qualification, not all bachelor's degree holders are trained teachers. The percentage of teachers with doctorate degrees is low. This could be considered a welcome development as the majority of the teachers would not see themselves as over-qualified for secondary school teaching. A strong positive correlation was reported between employees who perceive themselves to be over-qualified for their jobs and turnover intention (Chen et al., 2021).

The highest observed teaching experience of the respondents (37.1%) fell within 1 – 5 years, followed by those with 6 – 10 years of experience (26.5%), together they make up 63.6% of the total population. This could be fresh graduates who were unable to get jobs in other

industries and resorted to teaching as they sought other employment options. It could also be an indication that the schools have a high rate of teacher turnover.

Another key control variable that influences employee turnover intentions is years of service in the organisation otherwise referred to as ‘tenure’. It is deemed an important control variable because as an employee stays longer in an organisation, he/she forms ties with people in the organisation, and the desire to stay longer increases, resulting in higher employee retention (Oladotun & Öztüren, 2013).

No participant had a tenure of less than 1 year. Out of the total respondents, more than half (63.1%) had been teaching in their current schools for 1 – 5 years. It is assumed that a teacher who experienced a principal’s leadership behaviours for a year or more must have gathered credible information about the principal’s leadership behaviours enough to provide informed responses to the questionnaire. However, whether this majority had stayed long enough in the school to form lasting ties that could impact their turnover decisions is debatable.

Description of the research variables

SPSS was used to run a descriptive analysis of the study variables. This analysis showed the mean score, the standard deviation, and the variance of the composite scores of each of the variables. Means are used to determine the average value in a distribution. The reason the mean statistic is preferred over the median, which only reflects a score's relative position, is because it considers each case's precise score. On the other hand, the measure of variance was established using the standard deviation. The direction of the variation is indicated by a negative or positive sign. Table 4.2 presents the result of the descriptive statistics of the main variables of the study.

Table 4. 2

Description of the Variables of Interest

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Turnover Intent.	1.00	5.00	3.00	.99	.977
Transactional	1.00	5.00	3.41	.89	.799
Transformational	1.25	5.00	3.30	.89	.798
BPNS_Motivation	1.69	6.75	4.45	1.10	1.198

Note. $n = 472$

It can be observed from Table 4.2 that the mean scores of the variables ranged from 3.00 to 4.5. From the statistics, transformational leadership had a mean of 3.30 ($SD = 0.89$, $Min = 1.00$, $Max = 5.0$). A mean of 3.41 ($SD = 0.89$, $Min = 1.00$, $Max = 5.0$) was seen for transactional leadership while the observations for teacher motivation (BPNS) portray a mean of 4.45 ($SD = 1.10$, $Min = 1.69$, $Max = 6.75$). The statistics in Table 4.2 equally showed a mean of 3.0 for turnover intention ($SD = 0.99$, $Min = 1.00$, $Max = 5.0$).

Further, descriptive statistics of the items of each of the measuring scales is carried out to reveal the mean scores of each item as well as the standard deviations.

Transformational Leadership Style. The study aimed to find from the participants if the principals exhibited transformational leadership behaviours. In essence, the study aimed to ascertain if principals view teachers as unique individuals with distinct requirements and abilities, pay attention to their concerns and challenge them to think creatively and be innovative in solving problems. It also sought to find if the principals strive to make teachers see the need to work towards a common purpose, promote trust, engagement, and cooperation amongst the

teachers, seek the opinions of the teachers when solving problems, and spend time training and coaching the teachers.

The items on whether the principals view the teachers as individuals with different needs, and abilities showed a mean score of (M = 3.47); whether principals encourage teachers to come up with novel solutions to problems (M = 3.25); whether the principals pay attention to teachers' concerns (M = 3.29), whether the principals strive to make teachers see the need to work towards a common purpose (M = 3.34), whether the principals promote trust, engagement, and cooperation amongst the teachers (M =3.43), whether the principals seek the opinions of the teachers when solving problems (M= 3.20), whether the principals spend time training and coaching the teachers respectively (M= 3.24) and whether the principals are role models to the teachers (M= 3.21). The total mean for transformational leadership style was (M = 3.30). The mean scores of the eight items on transformational leadership style are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3

Description of Transformational Leadership

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
My principal views me as an individual with different needs, abilities, and aspirations.	472	3.47	1.128
My principal challenges me to think about problems in new ways.	472	3.25	1.128
My principal pays attention to my concerns.	472	3.29	1.163
My principal strives to make teachers see the need to work towards a common purpose.	472	3.34	1.191
My principal promotes trust, engagement, and cooperation among the teachers.	472	3.43	1.147
My principal seeks the opinions of the teachers when solving problems.	472	3.20	1.155
My principal spends time training and coaching the teachers.	472	3.24	1.162
My principal is a role model to the teachers.	472	3.21	1.236
Totals for Transformational leadership	472	3.30	0.894

Note: Scores range from 1 - 5.

The findings reveal that teachers perceived that the principals averagely displayed transformational leadership behaviours.

Transactional Leadership Style. The questions on transactional leadership aimed to ascertain from the participants whether principals set clear standards of performance, specify the tasks each teacher is to achieve, identify the rewards teachers will gain if work targets are met, monitor teachers' performance, keep track of mistakes, reward the teachers based on how well they perform their jobs, pay particular attention to mistakes and failures to meet set standards and deal with poor performing teachers who fail to improve, which are all typical transactional leadership behaviours. Descriptive statistics of transactional leadership are depicted in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4. 4

Description of Transactional Leadership

Transactional Leadership Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
My principal sets clear standards of performance.	472	3.50	1.125
My principal specifies the tasks each teacher is to achieve.	472	3.48	1.125
My principal identifies the rewards teachers will gain if work targets are met.	472	3.32	1.197
My principal monitors teachers' performance and keeps track of mistakes.	472	3.43	1.102
My principal rewards the teachers based on how well they perform their jobs.	472	3.41	1.195
My principal pays particular attention to mistakes and failures to meet set standards.	472	3.41	1.134
My principal takes steps to deal with poor-performing teachers who fail to improve.	472	3.30	1.132
Totals for Transactional leadership	472	3.41	0.894

Note. Scores range from 1- 5.

The findings indicate that teachers perceived that the principals exhibited transactional leadership behaviours. Nonetheless, compared to transformational leadership, transactional leadership has a slightly greater mean score.

Autonomy. The study tried to find out if secondary school teachers in Lagos State experience a sense of autonomy at work. Specifically, the study sought to determine if teachers' emotions are acknowledged at work; if they have the freedom to voice their thoughts and opinions; if they feel empowered to contribute to decision-making; if they experience work-related pressure; and if they can be their authentic selves while on the job. Table 4.5 shows the descriptive statistics for teachers' autonomy perception.

Table 4. 5

Description of Teachers' Sense of Autonomy

Autonomy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done.	472	4.62	1.808
I feel pressured at work. (R)	472	4.00	1.922
I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.	472	4.28	1.859
My feelings are taken into consideration at work.	472	3.99	1.907
I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.	472	4.24	1.800
Totals for autonomy		4.23	1.483

Note. Minimum score = 1 and Maximum score = 7

(R) = Reverse coded.

In Table 4.5, respondents provided the highest average score (4.62) for the statement expressing their ability to contribute significantly to decision-making about their job tasks. Conversely, the lowest average score (3.99) was given to the statement representing that participants' feelings are considered at work.

Competence. The study tried to determine if secondary school teachers in Lagos State feel competent in their jobs. The study aimed to investigate if the teachers feel competent in carrying out their work; if their colleagues acknowledge their expertise; if they have acquired new and interesting skills in their profession; if they feel like they have accomplished something at work most of the time, and if they have many opportunities to demonstrate their capabilities. The results of the teachers' perception of competence are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6

Description of Teachers' Sense of Competence

Competence	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I do not feel very competent when I am at work. [R]	472	4.99	1.868
People at work tell me I am good at what I do.	472	4.80	1.737
I have been able to learn interesting new skills on my job.	472	4.82	1.789
Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working.	472	4.60	1.765
On my job, I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am. [R]	472	4.07	1.831
Totals for Competence		4.66	1.393

Note. Minimum score = 1 and Maximum score = 7

[R] = Reverse coded.

According to Table 4.6, the item indicating that participants do not feel highly competent at work had the highest mean score (4.99), while the item indicating that participants do not often get the opportunity to demonstrate their abilities at work had the lowest score (4.07).

Relatedness. The scale measuring relatedness strived to discover if secondary school teachers in Lagos State feel connected with their fellow teachers in the workplace. Specifically, the questions on relatedness tried to ascertain if the teachers enjoy the company of their co-workers, have good relationships with them, prefer to work in isolation, view their colleagues as friends, feel cared for by their colleagues, and have close connections with many co-workers. The results showed that the statement expressing liking for colleagues received the highest average score of 4.90. It was followed by the statement showing that the participants considered

their fellow workers as friends which had a mean score of 4.75. Table 4.7 displays the corresponding scores.

Table 4. 7

Description of Teachers' Sense of Relatedness

Relatedness	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I really like the people I work with.	472	4.90	1.564
I get along with people at work.	472	4.50	1.697
I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work. ®	472	4.04	1.780
I consider the people I work with to be my friends.	472	4.75	1.665
People at work care about me.	472	4.37	1.599
There are not many people at work that I am close to. ®	472	4.14	1.730
Totals for Relatedness		4.45	1.303

Note. Minimum score = 1 and Maximum score = 7

® = Reverse coded.

Teacher Turnover. The scale measuring turnover intentions aimed to discover whether there is a significant tendency among the teachers in Lagos State to quit their jobs. The scale sought to investigate several factors, including the rate at which teachers consider quitting their jobs, the level of job satisfaction in fulfilling their personal needs, how upset teachers grow when they are not given the chance to accomplish their own professional goals, the frequency with which teachers contemplate obtaining a more suitable job, the likelihood of teachers accepting other kinds of work with similar remuneration, and how often teachers anticipate another workday with enthusiasm. The resultant statistics are displayed in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4. 8

Description of Teachers' Turnover Intentions

Turnover Intentions	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
How often have you considered leaving your job?	472	3.11	1.193
How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	472	2.74	1.287
How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	472	3.06	1.293
How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	472	3.24	1.264
How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	472	2.94	1.235
How often do you look forward to another day at work?	472	2.88	1.318
Totals for Teacher Turnover		2.99	0.989

From the findings, it could be deduced that the question regarding the frequency with which instructors dream of finding a new job that better fits their personal needs received the highest mean score (3.24), closely followed by the question about the frequency with which teachers have thought of quitting their current job (3.11).

Inferential Statistics

Correlation and regression statistics were employed to examine, evaluate, and deduce information regarding teachers' motivation, their turnover inclinations, and the leadership of the principals in government-owned secondary schools in Lagos State based on data from 472 teachers surveyed from the state. Linear correlation analysis is a common method in social science research to indicate how closely related two variables are (Senthilnathan, 2019). It involves calculating the linear correlation coefficient (represented as r or R). This coefficient

ranges from +1 to -1 and can be either positive or negative (Senthilnathan, 2019). When the correlation is zero, it indicates that the variables being studied have no relationship, while a correlation of -1 signifies an absolute negative correlation where one measure rises while the other reduces. An absolute positive correlation is denoted by a correlation of +1, indicating that both variables move in the same direction. Further, a significance level of ($\alpha = .05$) is used as the threshold for adjudging significance for this study. A *P*-value greater than .05 indicates that the result produced is considered "not significant," while a *P*-value less than or equal to .05 is considered "significant". Further, to evaluate the hypotheses and address the study questions, multiple regression analysis and a hierarchical multiple regression analysis were carried out.

Research Question 1/Hypotheses:

RQ 1: What is the impact of principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on the motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State? The null and alternate hypotheses for testing this research question are stated thus:

H01: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha1: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H01a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha1a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transactional leadership style.

The correlation analysis carried out between the leadership styles and teacher motivation indicates that there is a moderate and positive connection between these variables, $r(470) = .50$, $p < .001$. Conversely, a weak negative correlation, $r(470) = -.39$, $p < .001$ is found in the connection between transactional leadership and teacher motivation. The result suggests that if school principals' transactional leadership increases, teacher motivation will reduce, and if school principals increase the use of transformational leadership behaviours, teacher motivation will increase. These results are indicated in Table 4.9 below.

Table 4. 9

Correlations analysis - Teacher motivation and Leadership styles

	BPNS_Motivation	**Transformational.**	**Transactional**
BPNS_Motivation	1		
Transformational	.495**	1	
Transactional	-.390**	-.323**	1

Note. Significant level $p = 0.01$ (2-tailed).

$n = 472$

To delve deeper into the research question, a multiple linear regression analysis was performed to examine whether teacher motivation can be predicted by leadership styles. Multiple linear regression is used to evaluate how well two or more predictors can forecast a continuous outcome variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). In this instance, the continuous independent predictors were the leadership styles, while teacher motivation was the continuous outcome

variable. The goal was to evaluate the effect of these leadership philosophies on the motivation of teachers by regressing teacher motivation on the predictors.

Researchers conducting parametric tests, need to ensure that the data meets certain criteria known as assumptions (Verma & Abdel-Salam, 2019). The parametric assumptions of no extreme outliers, the assumption of normal distribution of the residuals, the assumption of linearity, homoscedasticity, and the absence of multicollinearity were assessed. Firstly, the data were checked for extreme outliers.

Outliers. A critical assumption of parametric tests is that extreme outliers are not present in any group that could potentially impact the results of the multivariate test. The box plot and other diagnostic methods, such as Cook's distance, are available to identify outliers (Cohen et al., 2013; Thieme, 2021). In regression analysis, Cook's Distance (Di) is a tool used to detect influential outliers among a set of predictor variables. It provides an estimate of the impact of a data point, on the regression model considering both its leverage and residual (Thieme, 2021; Boussiala, 2020). A suggested operational guideline is that Di > 1 is sufficient to identify an observation as influential. Boussiala (2020) proposes three general rules of thumb for identifying potential outliers:

1. Investigate any point where Di = 1
2. Investigate any point where Di = 3 times the mean of all distances
3. Investigate any point where Di = 4 divided by sample size

The box plots for each of the variables and the residual statistic from regression analysis did not portray any significant outlier. The maximum value for Cook’s Distance (Di) was .065, indicating the absence of any influential outlier.

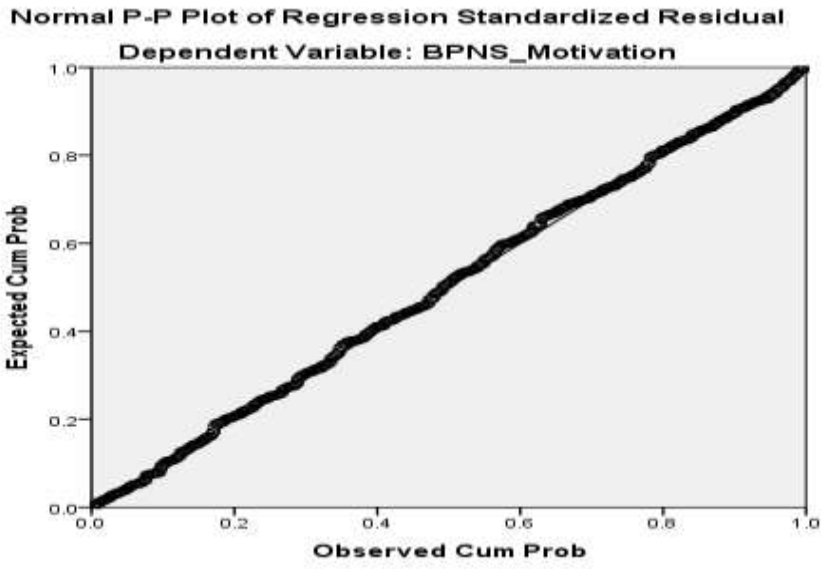
Linearity assumption. According to Williams et al. (2013), the assumption of linearity signifies the presence of a linear connection between the outcome and predictor variables. The linearity assumption was checked using the compare means command in SPSS. The linearity test results were significant between the outcome variable, the predictor variables as well as the moderator variable. The deviations from linearity for all of them were insignificant. Therefore, the assumption of linearity was met.

Normality assumption. Cohen et al. (2013) state that in parametric tests, it is assumed that the residuals or deviations from the mean value of the dependent variable for every independent variable value are normally distributed in the population. To check this assumption, a visual examination of a Q-Q plot (Cohen et al., 2013) or a cumulative probability plot known as the P-P plot can be useful. If the data points approximately fall along a straight diagonal line, then it is likely that the dataset follows a normal distribution, as noted by (Matsaany et al., 2016; Sedgwick, 2013).

To assess the normality assumption, a probability plot (P-P plot) was employed. The points closely matched the normality line, which suggests that the residuals are normally distributed, hence satisfying the assumption of normality. Figure 3 below shows the P-P scatterplot checking normality for leadership styles as predictors of teacher motivation.

Figure 4. 1

P-P Plot checking the normality of the residuals

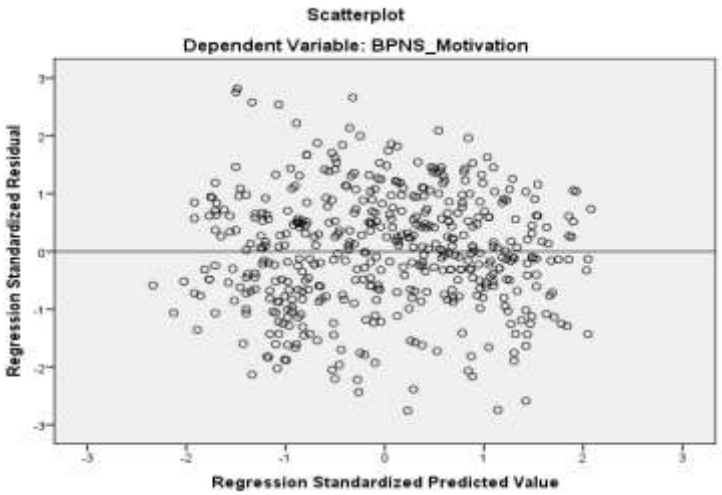


Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity is a crucial assumption for linear regression, implying that the variance of the error is consistent across the response variable values. To verify homoscedasticity, a scatterplot with the residuals plotted against the dependent variable is the most effective method, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2019). A scatterplot is deemed homoscedastic if a horizontal strip drawn across the plot demonstrates a similar spread pattern for the corresponding datasets. In regression modelling, a model is considered robust if it satisfies the assumption of homoscedasticity in the residuals, among other factors. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2019), mild heteroscedasticity may not significantly impact the tests, but substantial heteroscedasticity can considerably undermine the analysis. In this study, a residuals scatterplot was utilised to evaluate homoscedasticity, and the data indicated no distinct pattern, confirming that this assumption was met (Matsaany et al., 2016; Williams et al., 2013; Verma &

Abdel-Salam, 2019). Please refer to Figure 4 below to view the residual scatterplot testing for homoscedasticity.

Figure 4. 2

Residual scatterplot testing for homoscedasticity



Multicollinearity assumption. Multicollinearity arises in regression analysis when two or more independent variables are strongly associated with each other, rendering them uninformative or interdependent in the regression model. Detecting multicollinearity can be achieved through the use of varied techniques such as the eigenvalue method, correlation coefficient, and variance inflation factor (VIF). In this study, VIF values were used to check for multicollinearity. Shrestha (2020) stated that VIF values ranging between 5 to 10 indicate highly correlated variables, which can cause problems with the regression model. However, since all

VIF values in this study were less than 5, the assumption of no multicollinearity was satisfied (Matsaany et al., 2016; Verma & Abdel-Salam, 2019; Shrestha, 2020).

Independent Observations. Another underlying assumption in regression analysis is that the observations must be independent of each other. The Durbin-Watson statistic is employed to verify this assumption, which produces values from 0 – 4 (Verma & Abdel-Salam, 2019). Values between 1.5 and 2.5 denote the absence of autocorrelation in the data. This analysis produced a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.6 which is close to 2 and falls within the range of 1.5 to 2.5. As a result, it can be concluded that there is no autocorrelation (Hassan, et al., 2019).

Result of the multiple regression. Based on the results of the multiple regression analysis, which involved the independent variables of leadership styles predicting teacher motivation (the response variable), it can be inferred that the combined effect of the two leadership styles explains 30.4% of the variation in teacher motivation (R^2=.30, $F(2, 469) = 102.59$, $p < .001$).

Considering the unique individual contributions of the predictors, the results indicate that transformational leadership positively predicts teacher motivation, $\beta = .412$, $t = 10.128$, $p < .001$, indicating that if the transformational leadership behaviours of principals increase by a unit, the motivation of Lagos State public secondary school teachers will increase by 0.51 units holding all other variables fixed.

Equally, the findings reveal that transactional leadership is a negative predictor of teacher motivation, $\beta = -.257$, $t = -6.319$, $p < .001$. This suggests that if there is a unit increase in transactional leadership behaviours of principals, the motivation of Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary school teachers will decrease by .32 units if all other variables are held

constant. This finding further substantiates the correlation analysis which indicated that transformational leadership of principals in Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools positively correlated with teacher motivation while transactional leadership of principals is negatively related to teacher motivation. The null hypotheses **H01** and **H01a** are thus rejected and alternate hypotheses **Ha1** and **Ha1a** are supported. Table 4.10 displays the result of the regression analysis.

Table 4. 10

Multiple Regression - Leadership Styles Regressed on Teacher Motivation

Model						
	B	***SE***	***β***	***t***	***p***	**95% CL**
Constant	3.853	0.275		13.995	.000	[3.312 – 4.394]
Transformational	0.505	0.050	.412	10.128	.000	[0.407 – 0.603]
Transactional	-0.315	0.050	-.257	-6.319	.000	[-0.413 - -0.217]

Note. F (2, 469) = 102.59, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .304$, $R^2_{adj} = .301$.

Research Question 2/Hypotheses:

RQ 2: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on secondary school teacher turnover intentions in Lagos State? The following hypotheses assisted in answering the research question:

> **H02:** The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.

Ha2: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transformational leadership style.

H02a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.

Ha2a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transactional leadership style. Table 4.11 below presents the correlation analysis of leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions.

Table 4. 11

Correlation analysis - Turnover intentions and Leadership styles

Variables	Turnover Int.	Transactional L.	Transformational L.
Turnover_Int	1		
Transformational_L	-.585**	1	
Transactional L.	.483**	-.323**	1

Note. Significant level = p = 0.01 (2-tailed).

The results of the correlation analysis portray that the transformational leadership style and teacher turnover intention have a moderately, negative connection, $r(470) = -.59$, $P < .001$. On the other hand, there is a moderate positive connection between teachers' intentions to leave and principals' transactional leadership behaviours, $r(470) = .48$, $P = .001$. The result suggests that the turnover intentions of teachers reduce as principals increase the use of transformational leadership practices, and on the other hand, teachers' turnover intentions increase as principals increase transactional leadership practices.

The scale presented in Table 4.12 was employed to interpret the strength of the correlations (Akoglu, 2018. p. 92).

Table 4.12

Interpretation of Pearson's Correlation Coefficients (Dancey & Reidy)

	Coefficient, r	
Strength of Association	Positive	Negative
Weak	.1 to .3	-0.1 to -0.3
Moderate	.4 to .6	-0.4 to -0.6
Strong	.7 to .9	-0.7 to -0.9
Perfect	+1	-1

To further evaluate the hypotheses, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed which enabled the establishment of the predictive ability of the leadership styles on teacher turnover intentions.

Research Question 3/Hypotheses:

RQ 3: What is the impact of teacher motivation on the relationship between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions? Below are the hypotheses testing this research question.

H03: The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is not moderated by teacher motivation.

Ha3: The relationship between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is moderated by teacher motivation.

To answer research question 3 and evaluate the ability of teacher motivation to moderate the connection between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions, a correlation analysis involving the main variables as well as the control variables was first carried out. The correlation analysis assisted in establishing the type and extent of the correlations among the variables.

The results of this correlation analysis showed a weak positive connection between teacher turnover intention and the educational level of participants (Degree, a control variable), $r(470) = .16$, $p = .01$. Correlation with the other control variables, gender, age, and tenure were equally weak and positive, $r(470) = .02$, $r(470), = .03$, and $r(470) = .08$ respectively but they were not significant. Table 22 presents the correlation between demographic variables and the main variables.

Table 4. 12

Correlation among demographic variables and the main variables

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Gender	1							
2	Age	.105*	1						
3	Degree	-.065	.300**	1					
4	Tenure	.138**	.485**	.158**	1				
5	Turnover_Int	.024	.029	.155**	.082	1			
6	Transactional	.052	.121**	.076	.166**	.483**	1		
7	Transformational	-.088	-.044	-.141**	-.083	-.585**	-.323**	1	
8	BPNS_Motivation	-.001	-.051	-.128**	-.083	-.469**	-.390**	.495**	1

Note. * Significant level = 0.05 (2-tailed).

** Significant level = 0.01 level (2-tailed).

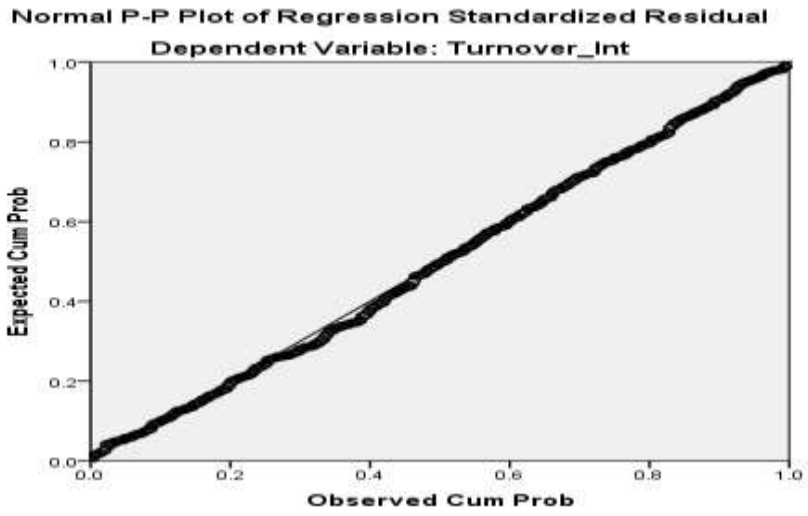
n = 472

Finally, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was carried out to ascertain the following: (a) if leadership styles can predict turnover intentions, and (b) if teacher motivation moderates the association between turnover intentions and leadership styles. The control variables of gender, age, degree, and tenure were treated as predictor variables to determine their impact on the outcome variable. The key assumptions of this statistical analysis were checked.

The Assumption of Normality. A visual examination of the P-P scatterplot confirms that the assumption of normality was fulfilled since the expected value points on the scatterplot closely matched the normality trend line (Matsaany et al., 2016) as shown in Figure 5 below.

Figure 4.3

P-P plot of regression standardised residuals



Independent Observations. This analysis produced a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.7 which is close to 2 and falls within the range of 1.5 to 2.5. As a result, it can be concluded that there is no autocorrelation (Hassan, et al., 2019).

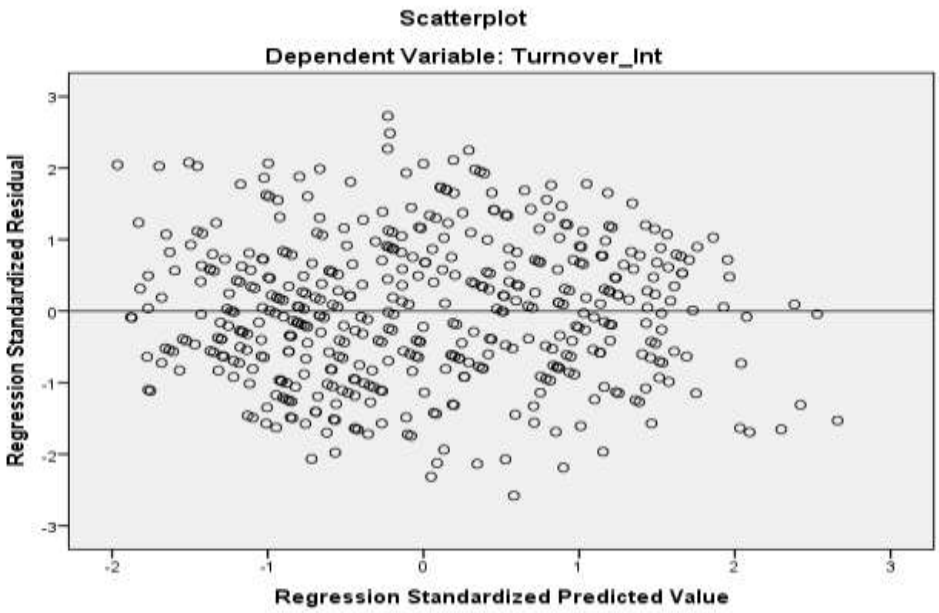
Multicollinearity Test. Using the Variance Inflation Factor, a check of the collinearity statistics reveals that multicollinearity is not a concern. The independent variables had a collinearity tolerance ranging from .968 -.988 and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) ranging from 1.050 to 1.507. No VIF value was up to 10, indicating a lack of multicollinearity. According to Matsaany et al. (2016), a VIF of more than 10 indicates substantial multicollinearity, which may call for the variable or variables to be eliminated from the model. This made it possible to carry out further analysis to check if teacher motivation affects the link between turnover intentions and leadership styles. The data also met the assumption of non-zero variances (Turnover intention =

.977, Transactional leadership = .799, Transformational leadership = .798, BPNS motivation = 1.198)

The assumption of homoscedasticity. This was evaluated by visually checking the standardised residual scatterplot. The scatterplot showed no clear pattern indicating that the data can be assumed to be homoscedastic (Verma & Abdel-Salam, 2019). See Figure. 4.4 below.

Figure 4. 3

Scatterplot of standardised residual on the standardised predicted value



Before conducting the hierarchical multiple regression, the means of the independent and moderator variables were centred (standardised) to distinguish the effects of the predictor variables from the effects of the interaction terms (Field, 2013). After standardising the means of the variables, the hierarchical regression analysis was done. In the first block, the control

variables of gender, age, highest degree, and tenure were entered. The main effects, (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and the moderator variable (teacher motivation) were entered in block 2. In block 3, the interaction terms (transformational leadership x teacher motivation) and (transactional leadership x teacher motivation) were entered as the last variables into the equation. The crucial statistical test for the hypotheses in research question 3 is the test of the incremental variation accounted for by the interaction terms. A significant interaction term with a positive beta indicates that the moderator is strengthening the independent variable's predictive association, whereas a negative beta indicates that the moderator is limiting the predictive effect of the independent variable.

Result of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded the following findings: In stage 1, the control variables (gender, age, degree, and tenure) predicted teacher turnover and explained a significant, albeit small, (3.1%) variance in turnover intentions (R^2 =.03, F (4,467) = 3.742, p = .005). The relationship between the variables was weak, with an R-value of .176. A different outcome was found from the analysis in the second stage of the analysis.

In step two of the hierarchical regression, after controlling for gender, age, degree, and tenure a significant correlation between the two leadership philosophies and the turnover intentions of teachers was discovered. This stage of the regression analysis indicated that an additional 43% variance in turnover intentions was accounted for by the two leadership styles, over and above the amount of variance explained by the control variables (R^2 = .46, F(7, 464) = 56.625, p < .001).

The addition of the two interaction terms in stage 3 of the regression analysis showed that the two interaction terms accounted for only an additional .3% variance in teacher turnover intention (R^2 = .46, F(9, 462) = 44.374, p < .001). Although the model is significant, the interaction terms did not add any significant predictive value to the outcome variable.

The results portray that teachers' intentions to leave their jobs are negatively predicted by transformational leadership in Lagos, β = -.41, 95% *Cl (*-.545, -.371), p < .001, implying that if transformational leadership behaviours exhibited by principals are increased by a unit, the turnover intentions of schoolteachers in Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools are expected to decrease by .46 units holding all other variables constant.

Likewise, teacher motivation was also a negative predictor of the turnover intention of schoolteachers (β = -.14, 95% *Cl (*-.198, -.050), p = .001), implying that a unit increase in the motivation of teachers, will decrease turnover intentions of Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary school teachers by .12 units holding all other variables constant.

On the other hand, the findings show that schoolteachers' turnover intentions are positively predicted by transactional leadership behaviours exhibited by school principals (β = .294, 95% *Cl* (.407, .806), p < .001). This finding suggests that for a unit increase in transactional leadership practices of principals, the turnover intention of teachers at Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary school will increase by .33 units holding all other variables constant. Table 4.13 shows the results of the hierarchical multiple linear regression.

Table 4. 13

Hierarchical Multiple Regression - moderated effect of teacher motivation

Model	Effect	B	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	95% Cl		VIF
							LL	*UL*	
	Constant	3.950	.344		11.468	.000	3.273	4.626	
	Gender	-.029	.070	-.015	-.422	.673	-.166	.108	1.050
	Age	-.007	.005	-.056	-1.383	.167	-.016	.003	1.420
	Degree	.067	.036	.068	1.871	.062	-.003	.138	1.143
	Tenure	.005	.058	.003	.083	.934	-.109	.118	1.346
	Transformational	-.458	.044	-.414	-10.305	.000	-.545	-.371	1.389
	Transactional	.325	.042	.294	7.739	.000	.242	.407	1.240
	BPNS_Motivation	-.124	.038	-.137	-3.280	.001	-.198	-.050	1.507
	Interaction Term 1	.053	.035	.054	1.519	.130	-.016	.121	1.074
	Interaction Term 2	-.005	.039	-.005	-.131	.896	-.082	.072	1.115

Note For Model 3,* $R^2 = .464$, $R^2_{adj} = .45$, $\Delta R^2 = .003$

β is reported after all main effects have been entered.

It may be inferred from the above results that teacher motivation, transactional leadership style, and transformational leadership style are statistically significant predictors of schoolteachers' intentions to leave their jobs. Whereas transactional leadership positively predicts teachers' intentions to leave, teacher motivation and transformational leadership are negative predictors of the variable in government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos. These results further substantiate the correlation analysis which indicated that transformational leadership of principals in Lagos State public secondary schools and teacher motivation negatively and significantly correlated with teacher turnover intentions while transactional

leadership of principals had a significant positive association with teacher turnover intentions. Based on the above results, null hypotheses H02 and H02a were rejected and alternate hypotheses Ha2 and Ha2a were supported.

Looking at the unique contributions of the interaction terms, which explained only .3% of the total variance in the outcome variable, the p-value of the interaction term 1 (Transformational leadership*teacher motivation) was not statistically significant, (β = .054, 95% *Cl* (-.016, .121), p =.130). Again, the findings also showed that the p-value of the interaction term 2 (transactional leadership*teacher motivation) was also not statistically significant, (β = -.005, 95% *Cl* (-.082, .072), *p* =.89). Hence, the null hypothesis (**H03**) is not rejected.

The summary of the empirical decisions on the hypotheses is detailed in Table 4.14.

Table 4. 14

Summary of Decisions on the Study Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Conclusions
H01: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.	**Rejected**
Ha1: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transformational leadership style.	**Not Rejected**
H01a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.	**Rejected**
Ha1a: The motivation of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transactional leadership style.	**Not Rejected**
H02: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transformational leadership style.	**Rejected**
Ha2: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is negatively impacted by transformational leadership style.	**Not Rejected**

Hypotheses	Conclusions
H02a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is not impacted by transactional leadership style.	**Rejected**
Ha2a: The turnover intention of secondary school teachers in Lagos State is positively impacted by transactional leadership style.	**Not Rejected**
H03: The association between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is not moderated by teacher motivation.	**Not Rejected**
Ha3: The association between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is moderated by teacher motivation.	**Rejected**

Qualitative Analysis

Each interviewee consented to the interview by signing a consent form. All the participants who consented to be interviewed were given a copy of the interview protocol in advance and requested to look at the characteristics of the two leadership philosophies before the interview. Interviewees were selected across the six educational districts and from different schools.

Demographic Information of Interviewees

All the interview participants were teachers from government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos State with a minimum of one year of experience in classroom teaching. To safeguard the participants' privacy and identification, they were assigned two-letter pseudonyms. For details of participants' pseudonyms, gender, age, teaching experience, length of time in current school, and highest educational qualification, see Table 4.15 below.

Table 4. 16

Interviewees' Demographics

Interviewee	Gender	Age	Years of Teaching Experience	Years in current School	Highest Educational Qualification
P1	Male	44	10	3	Master's Degree
P2	Male	35	12	3	Bachelor's degree
P3	Male	42	10	5	Master's Degree
P4	Male	32	9	2	Master's Degree
P5	Male	30	5	4	Bachelor's degree
P6	Female	45	15	1	Bachelor's degree
P7	Female	28	3	1	Bachelor's degree
P8	Male	31	7	6	PGDE
P9	Female	41	15	5	Bachelor's degree
P10	Female	40	10	10	NCE
P11	Female	57	29	7	Bachelor's degree
P12	Female	52	25	12	NCE
P13	Female	50	20	9	PGDE
P14	Male	53	18	18	Bachelor's degree
P15	Female	60	30	11	Master's Degree
P16	Male	54	15	5	Bachelor's degree
P17	Male	50	7	2	Bachelor's degree
P18	Male	48	12	1	Bachelor's degree
P19	Female	32	8	1	Bachelor's degree
P20	Male	35	10	3	Bachelor's degree
P21	Male	47	7	3	Master's Degree
P22	Male	43	13	3	Bachelor's degree
P23	Male	39	6	2	Bachelor's degree

A greater number of the interview respondents were males. The respondents were aged between 28 and 60 years. Many of the respondents had degrees in fields unrelated to education.

While the majority of the interviewees had bachelor's degrees, some of them had higher degrees, and very few of them reported they had a Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE). None of the interviewees had a doctoral degree. Some of the participants got their highest qualification while teaching through part-time programmes. The majority of the interviewees had spent five years or less teaching in their current institutions.

Before the interviews, the researcher's colleague/peer-debriefer, who had experience in research methodology reviewed the interview questions. His suggestions led to a slight modification of the interview questions. The modified interview questions are found in Appendix I.

After completing the interviews, the researcher transcribed the data and carried out member-checking before the coding process.

Identification of Codes and Categories

The researcher adopted a very arduous and time-consuming manual coding method in analysing the qualitative data. The choice of manual or computer-based coding methodologies in qualitative data analysis is determined by some criteria like the time frame, size, and budget for the project, as well as the researcher's preference and competence (Basit, 2003, cited in Saldana, 2013; Mattimoe et al., 2021). Being a novice to qualitative data analysis, the researcher opted for manual coding using Microsoft Word and Excel.

The researcher initially immersed herself in each transcript, gaining familiarity before employing a manual line-by-line descriptive coding system (Saldaña, 2013). Initial codes closely mirrored interviewee accounts, with keywords and phrases being duly noted and highlighted. This systematic coding, coupled with reflective processes, persisted throughout the coding

process. The second phase of coding was aimed at identifying common elements and patterns facilitating the development of categories. New categories were added when new trends and patterns were noticed. According to Saldaña's (2013) perspective, coding cannot be considered a precise procedure, but rather it can be seen as how the researcher understands the data. Themes were then developed contingent on the study questions and considering the positive and negative experiences described by the teachers that either motivated, demotivated or affected their turnover decisions.

Two distinct analyses were conducted. The first aimed to establish the dominant leadership style practised by school principals, analysing responses to interview question 6, which seeks a description of the school principals' leadership style. Subsequently, the remaining interview questions were analysed collectively to derive themes in response to the three research questions.

A combination of deductive and inductive approaches was utilised in the coding and identification of categories and themes for responding to the research questions. Bingham and Witkowsky (2022) contend that a data analysis process integrating both deductive and inductive approaches fosters a more organised, rigorous, and analytically sound qualitative study. Extracts of the codes and categories can be found below:

Table 4.17

Principals' Dominant Leadership Styles

Part.	Themes	Categories	Codes	Code Description	Extracts
P1	Transactional leadership	Strict, Micromanagement	Adherence to rules, strict monitoring, performance focus.	Adherence to rules and strict monitoring define a transactional leadership style, emphasising control and performance scrutiny.	"My principal is strong in following rules, meeting deadlines, and monitoring the performance of teachers."
P2	Transactional leadership.	Directive, lack of autonomy,	Telling teachers what to do, micromanaging, issues threats, contract-based, exchange, no cordial relationship, giving and taking.	Directive micromanagement reflects a transactional leadership style, limiting autonomy and relying on explicit instructions.	"Always telling teachers what to do as if the teachers cannot do any good thing on their own. She loves to micromanage."
P4	Transactional leadership	Authority and threats	Authority, deadline focus, use of threats for motivation	Authority and the use of threats characterise a transactional leadership style, focusing on compliance through control mechanisms	"The principal is all about authority, issuing of deadlines, meeting deadlines. ...often uses threats of punishment to motivate teachers."
P7	Transactional leadership	Monitoring and rewarding/sanctioning of identified expectations.	Focuses on supervision, rewards, and sanctions, gives orders, clear expectations	Supervision, rewards, and sanctions characterise a transactional leadership style, emphasising the control of identified expectations.	"She (principal) focuses on staff supervision. She uses rewards and sanctions to keep teachers on track. ...Clear expectations."
P9	Transactional leadership	Obeying rules, very strict	Rule-focused, strict, control-oriented, lack of trust in decision-making.	A focus on rules, strictness, and a lack of trust in decision-making characterise a transactional leadership style emphasising adherence to established rules.	"He likes looking at rules all the time. ...He likes being in control all the time and does not trust anybody to make a good decision concerning school matters."
P10	Transactional leadership	Resistance to change, desire for control.	Not open to introducing new things, interferes with everything, likes to be in control of everything.	Rule governance, resistance to change, and a desire for control define a transactional leadership style focused on stability and control.	"He uses transactional leadership to govern the school. ...He gets agitated if somebody raises an objection to any of his decisions."

Part.	Themes	Categories	Codes	Code Description	Extracts
P11	Transactional leadership	Lack of receptivity to feedback, and use of incentives for motivation.	Query, incentives	The use of queries and incentives reflects a transactional leadership style, relying on tangible rewards and punishments for motivation.	"Does not listen to reason, will give you a query but sometimes gives incentives to the teachers to encourage them to do better."
P12	Transactional leadership	Authoritarian, lack of patience, denial of benefits, punitive approach.	Domineering, dominating, criticising a lot, denies teachers benefits, likes punishing.	Domineering behaviour, lack of patience, and denial of benefits indicate a transactional leadership style, emphasising authority and control.	"She is a transactional leader, very hostile and does not have the patience to listen to her teachers. ...Denies teachers of certain benefits."
P13	Transactional leadership.	Rule adherence, unfriendly	Obeying rules, very strict, not approachable	Rule adherence, strictness, and unapproachability define a transactional leadership style, prioritizing rule compliance and maintaining distance.	"My principal uses the transactional type. Everything is about obeying the laid down rules. She is very strict and is not very approachable."
P16	Transactional leadership	Detail-oriented, micromanages	Attention to details, behaving correctly, pressurizes teachers to conform, fastidious with codes and conventions.	Attention to details and micromanagement reflect a transactional leadership style, emphasising precision and control over tasks.	"He pays close attention to details. ...Pressurizes teachers to perform their duties exactly as they should."
P17	Transactional leadership	Authoritarian approach, poor communication leadership	fear, autocratic, barking orders and enforcing rules, monitors a lot and does not dialogue.	Fear, authoritarianism, and poor communication indicate a transactional leadership style that lacks open dialogue and emphasises control.	"My principal is more of a transactional leader than a transformational leader. ...Does not dialogue."
P21	Transactional leadership	Strict supervision, poor communication and control	Supervision, monitoring, does not allow innovation, directive, humiliation, a consequence for everything.	Strict supervision, lack of innovation, and poor communication reflect a transactional leadership style	"Supervises a lot, always a process or procedure for everything. ...Monitors teachers like a hawk as if he enjoys finding opportunities to humiliate them."

Part.	Themes	Categories	Codes	Code Description	Extracts
				emphasising control and conformity.	
P5	Transformational leadership	Positive leadership support	Listening, open communication, encouragement, positive influence.	Open communication, encouragement, and positive influence indicate a transformational leadership style, emphasising support and collaboration.	"Listens to teachers. He does not hesitate to get teachers' opinions about issues happening in the school. ...Encourages us to put in our best."
P8	Transformational Leadership	Achievement orientation, encouragement, support for skill development.	An achiever, encourages teachers to learn new skills, coaches, gives feedback, supports	An achievement-oriented and supportive leadership style reflects a transformational approach, emphasising growth and skill development.	"Is an achiever, he knows what he wants for the school and he is working towards that. ...Encourages teachers to learn new skills."
P14	Transformational leadership	Democratic approach, supportive and a role model.	democratic, appeals to conscience, encourages, coaches, listens, does not coerce or threaten, patient, role model	A democratic approach, support, and serving as a role model reflect a transformational leadership style, emphasising collaboration and inspiration.	"My principal uses a transformational leadership style. ...Coaches new teachers sometimes, listens to teachers and is very approachable."
P18	Transformational leadership	Supportive and friendly leadership	Supportive, amiable, listens to teachers' opinions, encourages, has many traits that teachers emulate, fair but firm.	Supportive and friendly leadership, fairness, and encouragement indicate a transformational leadership style that fosters positive relationships.	"He is a goal-getter, very amiable, supportive, and liked by both teachers and students. ...Fair but firm."
P19	Transformational leadership	Supportive and friendly	Effective, approachable, counsellor, mentor, understanding	Supportive and friendly traits, including mentorship and understanding, define a transformational leadership style that values relationships	"Effective, well-coordinated, approachable, sociable, understanding, and transformational. ...Counsellor, mentor."
P23	Transformational leadership	Supporting, influencing and encouraging	Charismatic, gets teachers' buy-in, listens, encourages teachers to find better ways of teaching, supports and cares	Support, encouragement, and influence define a transformational leadership style, prioritizing positive	"Charismatic and knows how to get teachers' buy-in, listens and treats teachers well. ...Supports and cares for everyone under his jurisdiction."

Part.	Themes	Categories	Codes	Code Description	Extracts
				relationships and growth	
P6	Both transactional and transformational leadership	Strict but supportive	Keeping rules, corrects, coaches, fair, attention to teachers' needs, gives feedback, does not belittle, withholds benefits until work is done.	A blend of strictness and support defines a leadership style that incorporates elements of both transactional and transformational approaches	"He doesn't like anybody going against the rules. ...Coaches us, especially the new teachers. He is very strict but fair."
P3	Both transactional and transformational leadership	Supporting and monitoring	Charisma, influence, support, monitors, schedules, rewards	Charisma, influence, and support indicate a blend of transactional and transformational leadership, emphasising both support and monitoring.	"My principal has a charisma that endears him to many teachers. He knows how to influence the teachers to get things done happily."
P15	Both transactional and transformational leadership	Strict but supportive	Disciplines, does not tolerate nonsense, monitors, listens, cares, coaches, good orator, advises, encourages teachers to improve themselves.	Strict discipline, support, and encouragement define a leadership style that integrates elements of both transactional and transformational approaches.	"In terms of discipline, his leadership is good. ...Teachers and students like him. The way he handles the school makes it easy for people to stay for a long time."
P20	Both Transformational and Transactional leadership	Strict but supportive	Strict but fair, can withhold benefits, approachable, supportive, role model, delegates, listens, assists teachers.	A combination of strictness and support characterises a leadership style that integrates elements of both transactional and transformational approaches.	"The principal of my school uses both transactional and transformational leadership styles. ...Delegates responsibility very well."
P22	Both Transformational and Transactional leadership	Supportive, caring and strict.	Caring, does not condone laziness, easy to confide, goes extra mile, trusts, supports	Caring, support, and strictness define a leadership style that incorporates elements of both transactional and transformational approaches.	"Wonderful and caring person, does not condone laziness, is very caring even about personal issues confronting staff members. ...Trusts, supports."

Table 4.18

Relationship between Leadership Styles, Motivation and Turnover Intentions

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
	Supportive leadership	Support and trust:	Teachers believe that a principal who provides adequate teaching materials, coaches, listens, cares and trust them is supportive.	"…teachers are motivated by principals that provide adequate support to them like ensuring that teaching aids are provided, assisting them when students misbehave, siding with them when there are issues with external people, helping them to grow and develop their teaching abilities, and providing coaching when required by the teachers. Teachers feel motivated with a principal they can trust" (P4). "Teachers express the importance of trust in the teacher-principal relationship, emphasising trust is a key element for teachers to feel empowered and effective in their roles". (P7)
Supportive leadership enhances teacher motivation	Respect & Recognition	Positive Recognition, and Respect.	Teachers believe that Positive recognition, trust, and respect from the principal promote their motivation	"Whenever I am praised or given a thumbs up for my performance, it makes me realize that the effort I am putting to ensure the students learn is recognised" (P1) "I am motivated where I am respected and trusted". (P4) Among other things, the principal recognizing and acknowledging the good work I have done is a big motivation. (P3) "I feel motivated when the efforts I am putting into my work is seen and commended". (P19).
	Friendly atmosphere	Effective Leadership Creates a Good Environment:	Teachers believe that Transformational leadership style is an effective leadership style that contributes to a positive teaching and learning environment	"It creates a good environment for the teachers to do their work well without fear and stress and it enables a conducive environment for students' learning". (P19).
	Friendly atmosphere	Cordial Relationship and Peaceful Atmosphere:	Teachers perceive a friendly atmosphere as creating a conducive environment, fostering positive relationships among colleagues, which	"A friendly atmosphere in the school is very motivating and, in my mind, it is the way the principal leads the school that will either create such an atmosphere or not". (P8)

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
			enhances teachers' motivation to perform their duties effectively.	"Teachers give their best when the relationship is cordial". (P1) ". To be honest, I hardly think about other jobs right now because. I like the atmosphere here" (P3).
	Friendly atmosphere	Cooperation and Trust Result in Happiness	Teachers believe that when there is cooperation and trust between the teachers and the principal, there will be peace and happiness.	"Teachers are motivated because they trust him, and he also trusts the teachers. We work in tandem with him. The work is much but the teachers here are reasonably happy". (P23) "There is a convivial atmosphere in this place, we are like one family. We are not earning so much but we are happy". (P6)
	Friendly atmosphere	Openness, Calmness, and Socialization	Teachers believe that a principal who is open, calm and socializes with teachers creates a friendly and conducive atmosphere that contributes to teacher motivation.	"His openness, calmness and socialization motivate me." (P20)
	Friendly atmosphere	Collaborative Professional Culture	Teachers narrate the positive and supportive atmosphere among teachers within the school which signifies the absence of negative behaviours such as backbiting and highlights a seamless and cooperative working environment. The teachers in this school engage in respectful and supportive relationships, fostering a culture of collaboration.	"The way teachers relate here is impressive. The backbiting and stuff like that prevalent in most schools are non-existent here. We do our work seamlessly and cooperate with each other". (P22)
	Autonomy support	Teachers are involved in decision-making	Teachers believe that supportive leadership encourages teacher input and participation in decision-making, increasing teacher autonomy and motivation	"My principal tries to carry us along in everything that happens in the school. During staff meetings, we discuss issues concerning the school and teachers make contributions. Decisions are taken collegially except in the decisions coming from the District or the Ministry of Education" (P6) "During staff meetings, the agenda of the meeting is made known and for each topic, teachers are allowed to contribute to the discussions … and nobody interferes with our teaching". (P22)

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
	Autonomy support	Trust in Experienced Teachers	Teachers report that autonomy is granted based on trust in teachers' competence and experience, enhancing motivation	"...if the principal trusts you as in, if he is satisfied that you know what you are doing, he hardly interferes but for the new teachers, it is not so". (P3)
	Autonomy support	Innovative teaching	Teachers believe that having classroom autonomy encourages teachers to introduce creative and effective teaching methods, enhancing motivation	"In the classroom, you use your lesson notes to teach your subjects and you can introduce anything within reason which will help to drive home the lesson to the students". (P6) "You are free to teach your lesson as you like as long as your methods achieve the objective". (P19) "I feel motivated to do my best when I am given a free hand to decide how to teach my students". (P19)
	Autonomy support	Motivation Through higher responsibilities	Teachers believe that a principal who assigns higher responsibility to them values and trust them.	"I feel motivated and encouraged each time I am given higher responsibilities like anchoring staff meetings on behalf of the principal" (P3). "Sometimes, giving me higher responsibilities is motivating because it makes me feel valued and important to the school" (P8)
	Competency support	Motivation through Adequate Teaching Materials	Teachers find motivation in having access to all necessary teaching materials, as it significantly facilitates their work. The responsibility for ensuring the availability of these materials is attributed to the principal, emphasising the importance of effective leadership in the provision of essential resources for teaching.	"Having all the teaching materials is very motivating because it makes your work easier. It is the duty of the principal to ensure that materials are provided". (P5)
	Competency support	Promotion of Higher Education and Professional Growth	The principal serves as a source of motivation for teachers to pursue higher education and enhance their professional growth. This involves personalized guidance and occasional instructions on specific subjects as well as organising workshops and seminars for professional development	""He [principal] motivates us to better ourselves by obtaining higher education. For instance, he advised me to work toward obtaining a degree or certificate that would help me advance in my career as a teacher. He occasionally gives us instructions on particular subjects". (P22) "…the school invites lecturers and experts in different subject areas to the school for seminars from time to time where we learn new techniques for teaching various subjects and sometimes the principal invites

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
				psychologists to give us lectures on how to handle difficult students" (P19). "I always feel motivated any time he [principal] recommends us to go for training". Professional training in subject areas is scarcely available but teachers attend seminars, workshops, and conferences once in a while when the opportunity comes up. Teachers find any opportunity to attend such training motivating because it is an opportunity for preparing for career growth" (P3)
	Competency Support	Proactive Teacher Development Initiatives	Teachers narrate the principal's proactive involvement in enhancing teaching skills and professional development among the teachers. It involves instances where the principal willingly shares information and encourages teachers to participate in training opportunities to facilitate continuous learning.	"He is always willing to volunteer information to the teachers on teaching skills. Teachers are nominated to go for training when the opportunity arises". (P8) Any time he stumbles on something he feels will be useful to teachers, he used to inform us about it and would ask us to read up on it. Sometimes, he prints some articles and gives them to subject teachers concerned to read". (P9)
	Competency support	Self-initiated improvement	Teachers describe how they take the initiative to enhance their personal and professional skills independently, without relying on the guidance or direction of the principal.	"We don't wait for the principal; we try and improve ourselves. Some of us are doing our master's degree, some PGDE. Personally, I see improving myself as a powerful weapon that will launch me out of this to a better job soon". (P2)
	Competency Support	Constructive Feedback and Professional Growth	Teachers narrate instances where feedback provided to teachers is characterised by its politeness and focuses on areas for improvement. It signifies a constructive feedback approach aimed at supporting teachers in areas where they may not be performing optimally, coupled with suggestions for improvement.	" By giving polite feedback to teachers on areas they are not doing well and suggesting to them what they can do to get it right" (P19)

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
	Competency Support	Constructive Feedback and Professional Growth	Teachers narrate instances where feedback provided to teachers is characterised by its politeness and focuses on areas for improvement. It signifies a constructive feedback approach aimed at supporting teachers in areas where they may not be performing optimally, coupled with suggestions for improvement.	” By giving polite feedback to teachers on areas they are not doing well and suggesting to them what they can do to get it right” (P19)
Peer collaboration supports teacher motivation and retention	Teachers support each other	Mutual Encouragement :	Teachers report that through peer collaborations, they encouraged each other emotionally and professionally.	“My relationship with the teachers in this school is helping me to develop my teaching skills. Here, teachers are always eager to help each other”. (P7) “I felt like leaving because I couldn’t cope with the overbearing attitude of the principal but some of the teachers who had been here for some time came to me and calmed me down. They promised to help me anytime I have a challenge and they have not failed in their promise since then”. (P9)
	Teachers support each other	Information Sharing	Teachers report that they share information and support each other's competency for mutual improvement through sharing information about the industry	“…my relationship with my colleagues has helped me because it is a way of obtaining information about what obtains in the industry, helping ourselves more, and adding more value to ourselves”. (P1) “My relationship with the teachers in this school is helping me to develop my teaching skills”. (P7)
	Teachers support each other	Socialization and Belongingness	Teachers believe that the feeling of belongingness derived from being part of the team transcends beyond the school into their personal lives.	“having good friends in your place of work is a big plus. Don’t forget that we spend more of our time at work, so if you are liked in your place of work, it helps you to relax more in your job. We attend each other’s events, sometimes we sew uniforms (ashoebi in the local parlance) for these purposes and grace each other’s events like marriages, burials, and thanksgiving services”.(P3)
	Teachers support each other	Opportunity for comparing techniques	Teachers believe that relating with other teachers provides them with an opportunity to collate and compare teaching ideas and techniques which boosts their confidence in teaching	“Relating with their helps and adds an edge to my teaching because it provides the opportunity for us to collate ideas and it is a motivation to us because when you get ideas of something you don’t know from your colleagues definitely it will give you more, ….how will I put it,… more help and confidence to your teaching,

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
				so relating with my colleagues is very, very nice because it also helps me to achieve my aim as a teacher". (P5)
	Teachers support each other	Collaborative Financial Support	Teachers report that peer collaboration helps them in saving money which they can use to buy bulk household items through organising thrift groups within themselves.	"We help each other by having small thrift groups which is our main way of saving bulk sums of money for individual projects. So, my relationship with fellow teachers has helped to motivate me". (P3)
	Teachers support each other	Teacher Collaboration for Hands-On Learning	Teachers believe that through collaboration with peers, they have been able to learn new hand-on teaching skills which improved their teaching competency	'My relationship with the teachers in this school is helping me to develop my teaching skills. Here, teachers are always eager to help each other. The more experienced ones provide the less experienced ones with hands-on skills that you cannot gain from textbooks".(P7)
	Teachers support each other	Teacher Unity and Supportive Class Coverage	Teachers in this setting exhibit a strong sense of unity and support, fostering a collaborative atmosphere. The practice of covering for one another during unforeseen circumstances, such as lateness or absence, is prevalent. This mutual support system is particularly evident in the willingness of colleagues teaching the same subject to step in and cover classes for each other, ensuring a seamless learning environment.	"We cover for each other. We are in unity and that helps a lot. If you are running late or for some reason, you are unable to come to school in a particular day, you can call on a fellow teacher who teaches the same subject as you to cover the class for you and the teacher will do it well". (P11)
	Teachers support each other	Teacher Support and Compassionate Community	The teaching community in this environment demonstrates a remarkable level of concern and support for one another. In times of personal challenges, such as illness or bereavement, teachers extend encouragement, both emotionally and, at times, even financially. The prevalent culture is one of genuine care, where colleagues readily offer a helping hand and share in each other's joys and celebrations.	"Teachers show concern for each other. They encourage each other. If a fellow teacher is sick or is bereaved, they encourage the teacher in different ways, even financially. They are always eager to lend a helping hand. They rejoice with you when you have a course to celebrate". (P12)

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
	Principals encourage peer collaboration	Principals support Peer Learning and Knowledge Sharing	Teachers narrate instances where experienced individuals, particularly older teachers, are utilised to impart knowledge to newer ones. The principal emphasises a culture of peer learning, encouraging individuals with specific expertise, such as using Zoom, to share their knowledge with others. This reflects collaborative learning and the transfer of skills within the schools, initiated by the principal.	"He also uses the older teachers to teach the new ones" (P5) "…tries to encourage us to learn from each other. Anybody who has more knowledge about any particular thing, the principal will encourage him to share the knowledge with others. Like immediately after the Covid time, the principal encouraged those who have learned how to use Zoom to teach others in case the need arises again to use Zoom for teaching" (P6)
	Principals encourage peer collaboration	Supportive community and compassionate leadership	Teachers describe a situation where a principal demonstrated compassion by actively encouraging teachers to support a colleague who faced personal challenges, fostering a sense of care and community.	"There was a time he encouraged the teachers to rally around our colleague whose husband was very ill. We were happy to contribute our widow's might for the man's treatment. That teacher has not forgotten about it". (P6)
Personal passion leads to motivation and retention	Joy and Fulfilment in Teaching	Personal passion for teaching contributes to motivation and retention.	Despite challenges, some teachers express a genuine love for teaching, contributing to their reluctance to leave.	"Well, I have always loved teaching. I don't know if I will enjoy doing something different. Impacting the life of these young ones fulfils me, so I have hardly thought of leaving teaching" (P12). ". I love teaching, especially when expounding knowledge of Mathematics in a simplified way to students. I can never leave teaching Mathematics as it is my passion. I derive joy and pleasure from doing this and for now, I like the school I am working at". (P18) "I love teaching, I have a passion for teaching. I once thought of going for a doctoral degree so that I can go into lecturing in higher institutions, but to leave teaching completely, no". (P15)
Unfavourable work conditions contribute to demotivation and turnover	Inadequate support	Lack of Support Impacting Motivation and turnover	Teachers express feelings of demotivation due to a perceived lack of support from the principal, especially in challenging situations involving students or parents. It reflects the impact of the	"I feel demotivated when I don't get support from my principal, like when there is a challenge with students or parents, and the principal leaves me to deal with it by myself." (P1)

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
			principal's absence or non-involvement on the teacher's motivation	
	Micromanagement	Strict Adherence to Rules and Micromanagement	Teachers perceive a leadership style that emphasises strict adherence to established rules and procedures, even in situations where flexibility might be warranted.	"…sometimes she insists on doing things by the book without considering that something could make you differ from the rules". (P1) "She micromanages and many teachers don't like her style of leadership". (P2)
	Micromanagement	Culture of Fear and Restricted Expression	Teachers perceive an environment characterised by fear, where the expression of opinions or thoughts is restricted due to concerns about potential misquotation and the resulting consequences.	"there is a kind of fear amongst the teachers. Nobody is free to express what is in their minds for fear of being misquoted and the victimization that may result. People carry out their duties out of fear of the principal and not because they are inspired to do so". (P4) "If a principal is known to micromanage or be haughty and nasty, many people would not like to work under such a principal". (P11)
	Micromanagement	Control-Seeking Leadership	Teachers describe leaders who attempt to control every aspect of the school's operations, indicating a leadership approach that may limit autonomy and decision-making at lower levels, extending to the level of micromanagement, where they not only oversee but also actively seek control over day-to-day activities and decisions within the school.	". He interferes in everything and wants to be in control of everything happening in the school" (P10)
	Inadequate support	Hindered Access to Work Resources Negatively Affect Motivation	Teachers narrate instances where delays or refusals by the principal to provide essential materials hinder the teacher's ability to perform effectively, consequently affecting motivation	"What brings down my motivation is when I need something to do my work or some resources that will make my work easier or let me say, effective and she is slow in giving those materials or refuses to give them". (P1)
	Inadequate leadership support	Lack of Consultation in Decision-Making:	Teachers express a sentiment that there is a lack of effort to actively seek their input or ideas,	"Teachers' ideas are not solicited and are not valued even in matters concerning us". (P4)

Themes	Categories	Code	Code Description	Example Quote from Transcript
			especially in matters that pertain to their roles and responsibilities.	
	Inadequate support	Lack of Trust in Leadership Due to Unfulfilled Promises	Teachers express discontent with the leader's leadership style, citing a pattern of promises that are not delivered as expected or in a timely manner.	"I am not motivated by her leadership style because she doesn't deliver on her promises. If all that is promised is delivered promptly, maybe her leadership style will be somewhat motivating, but the way it is, there is nothing to motivate me'. (2) "The principal promised to request more teachers and pay us something extra for the additional job we are doing but did he do these things …No. We are still waiting". (P17)
	Inadequate support	Negative Impact on Work-Life Balance	Teachers advocate the need for a better work-life balance, emphasising the desire for more personal time after the school day to attend to family matters.	"I do believe teachers should be given more time for themselves e.g. closing at 3: pm. Closing at 5:pm does not give teachers time to attend to family issues. That is the aspect I do not like about my principal". (P18)
	Inadequate support	Threats and job insecurity	Teachers express concern about principals using threats such as job termination or issuing queries to enforce compliance. This threatening leadership style contributes to a sense of insecurity among teachers, impacting their overall job satisfaction and potentially motivating them to seek employment elsewhere.	" Principals should not be threatening the teachers all the time, …. if you don't do this, I will sack you, if you don't do this, I will give you a query and all that. When a principal starts doing that, it will affect the teachers, they will feel insecure in their work, and they will start looking elsewhere". (P6)

Emerging Themes

The analysis of the qualitative data portrayed that teachers have different opinions about the leadership behaviours of the school principals. Table 4.16 shows the summary of themes on the principals' dominant leadership styles.

Table 4. 15

Codes on Dominant Leadership Style of Principals

Themes	Theme Description	Categories
Transactional Leadership Style	This theme describes a leadership style focused on transactional aspects, emphasising rules, control, and rewards or sanctions based on identified expectations. It also reflects a lack of openness to feedback and the use of punitive measures.	Directive, lack of autonomy, Strict, Micromanagement, Authority and threats, Monitoring and rewarding/sanctioning of identified expectations, Resistance to change, desire for control, obeying rules, strict, Lack of receptivity to feedback, and use of incentives for motivation, unfulfilled promises, punitive approach., unfriendly, Detail-oriented, Controlling.
Transformational Leadership Style	This theme highlights a transformative leadership style, emphasising positive support, encouragement, skill development, and a democratic and supportive approach. Leaders in this style act as role models, influencers, and sources of encouragement.	Positive leadership support, Achievement orientation, encouragement, support for skill development., Democratic approach, supportive and a role model, Supportive and friendly leadership, Supporting, influencing and encouraging,
Combination of Transactional & Transformational leadership Styles	This theme suggests a combination of transactional and transformational elements. Leaders here balance strictness with support, incorporating both monitoring and caring aspects into their leadership approach.	Strict but supportive, Supporting and monitoring, Strict but supportive, Supportive, caring and strict.

A majority of the participants perceived their principals' leadership style to be transactional. For instance, participant P2 had this to say about his principal…

> We are used to hearing our principal making statements like "You will not be paid if you do not submit this or submit that by Monday." Issuing threats here and there. She precisely makes us see the whole thing as a contract-based

> venture where teachers perform their duties in exchange for the salary that is paid at the end of every month, and if you fail to do your part you will not be paid or worse. So, there is no cordial relationship. It is just purely giving and taking. In my opinion, her leadership is transactional.

Another interviewee, P16 stated "He pays close attention to details. He is strict in the observance of formalities or rules. He is very careful to behave correctly and pressurises teachers to perform their duties exactly as they should. He is very fastidious, particularly with rules or conventions". P4 also stated that "the principal is all about authority, yes, issuing of deadlines, meeting of deadlines. Our principal often uses threats of punishment to motivate teachers. 'If you don't do this, you will be queried' kind of statements." Thus, describing a give-and-take relationship that characterises transactional leadership style.

Few participants proudly described their principals as adopting a transformational leadership style. The leadership behaviours these teachers associated with their principals include encouraging teachers to put in their best, supporting teachers, listening to teachers, having an open-door policy, setting good examples, coaching teachers and being visionary. Participant P8 had this to say about his principal,

> …my principal is an achiever; he knows what he wants for the school, and he is working towards that. He pushes the teachers to read up on new ideas in teaching different subjects and to practice the new ideas in class and this makes the teachers develop better teaching skills. He coaches when he has the time and gives you feedback like he wants you to improve not as a way of bringing you down. He encourages teachers to help each other and is very supportive.

While P14 described her principal thus:

> My principal is very democratic in nature. She appeals to our conscience to perform our responsibilities. She does not coerce or threaten you. She explains to you why you should do anything and tries to get the buy-in of teachers in any major decision in the school. She coaches new teachers sometimes. She listens to teachers and is very approachable. She encourages teaching staff to work hard. She smiles even when correcting a teacher, making it easier to take the corrections. She is patient, calm, dutiful and a role model to the teachers and students.

The remaining interviewees, P3, P6, P15, P20 and P22 see their principals as using the two leadership styles. P3 had this to say…

> …. my principal has a charisma that endears him to many teachers. He knows how to influence the teachers to get things done happily. Even though there is not much he can do in terms of increasing teachers' salaries, he knows how to fight for the rights of the teachers. He supports us very well especially when there are issues with parents or the community. At the same time, he monitors teachers very well. He uses rewards at times to make teachers get interested in doing some things, and he is also a no-nonsense person.

P6 described his principal thus:

> …. he doesn't like anybody going against the rules. You must come to work on time, you must submit your lesson note on time, and so on but he tries to correct us from time to time and coaches us, especially the new teachers. He is very strict

> but fair. He has a way of making you believe in yourself, and he pays attention to the needs of the teachers. I like his supervision style because he gives you feedback on what you are doing well as much as he will correct you on the areas you are not doing well. He does not belittle teachers or shout at teachers over mistakes. He does not go all out looking for mistakes that he can hold against you. But he can withhold your benefits until you finish your duties. He is a good leader.

From the above, it is clear that participants recognised aspects of transactional and transformational behaviours in their school principals' leadership styles, but more teachers associated their principals with transactional leadership behaviours more than transformational leadership.

Research Question Themes

Five main themes emerged in response to the research questions. These themes include, *leadership support enhances teacher motivation and retention*, *personal passion leads to fulfilment and retention, peer collaboration supports teacher motivation and retention, unfavourable work conditions contribute to demotivation and turnover intentions*, and *leadership style relates to teacher motivation and turnover*. See Table 4.17 for the summary of the themes responding to the research questions.

Table 4. 20

Summary of Emerging Themes Responding to Research Questions

Themes	Theme Description	Categories	Research Question Being Addressed
Supportive leadership enhances teacher motivation.	This theme condenses the various facets of leadership styles and their impact on teacher motivation and teacher turnover decisions	Respect, Trust & Recognition, Supportive leadership Friendly atmosphere Autonomy support Competency support	***Research Questions 1 and 2***
Peer collaboration supports teacher motivation and retention.	This theme points out the importance of peer support and collaboration in fostering a positive and motivating environment among teachers.	Teachers support each other Principals encourage peer collaboration	***Research Questions 1 and 2***
Personal passion leads to motivation and retention.	The theme focuses on the intrinsic motivation that stems from a teacher's passion for the profession. It emphasises how an individual's genuine love for teaching contributes significantly to their motivation and, consequently, their decision to remain in the teaching profession.	Joy and Fulfilment in Teaching	***Research Questions 1 and 2***
Unfavourable work conditions contribute to demotivation and turnover	This theme highlights the challenges and negative impacts teachers face and explores factors such as heavy workloads, inadequate support, and unfavourable working conditions that demotivate teachers and lead to turnover intentions.	Inadequate support Micromanagement Favouritism Heavy workload and stress Toxic atmosphere Poor communication and low esteem, Poor Remuneration and low esteem	***Research Questions 1 and 2***
Leadership style relates to teacher motivation and turnover intentions	The theme points out the belief of teachers that motivated teachers experience increased job satisfaction and are more likely to stay	Motivation enhances job satisfaction and retention	***Research Question 3***

These overarching themes have associated categories, which are explored in the section below.

Theme 1 - Leadership support enhances teacher motivation and retention.

Leadership support can take numerous forms, depending on the teacher's specific requirements. Educators who perceive their principals to embody transformational leadership styles or a blend of transactional and transformational approaches articulated various types of support they enjoyed from the principals that positively motivated them. The teachers reported that they seek the support of principals in cases of severe student behaviour issues, dealing with difficult and angry parents, and personal issues. The research shows that leadership support for these teachers also includes providing coaching and mentoring for new and inexperienced teachers, providing relevant professional training, ensuring the availability of adequate teaching materials, offering guidance, listening to teachers, giving meaningful feedback, and treating teachers as trusted professionals.

The theme, "*leadership support enhances teacher motivation and retention"* is discussed under four categories. The first category was autonomy support, describing teachers' freedom in teaching their subjects and participation in school decisions. The second category was identified as competency support which portrays how principals encouraged the teachers to improve their teaching skills and teaching capabilities, and the third category – is respect and recognition while the fourth is a friendly atmosphere. The categories under this theme are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Autonomy Support. Choice, freedom, rationale, collaboration, objective feedback, and inclusiveness are encouraged in an atmosphere that supports autonomy (Hocine & Zhang, 2014).

The findings showed that the teachers who had more freedom in designing and teaching their subjects and participated in school decisions felt valued and motivated. For instance, P19 reported, “I feel motivated to do my best when I am given a free hand to decide how to teach my students. A teacher knows the individual differences of his/her students and therefore is in the best position to know how to impart knowledge to them.”

Some teachers reported that their principals involved them in school decisions. P6 said, “My principal tries to carry us along in everything that happens in the school. During staff meetings, we discuss issues concerning the school and teachers make contributions. Decisions are taken collegially except in the decisions coming from the District or the Ministry of Education.” P8 quipped, “There is hardly any major decision taken concerning the affairs of the school the principal does not seek the opinion of teachers. The principal listens to the teachers and considers teachers’ opinions.” P15 explained that “…teachers have a say in the decision-making of the school. The principal will always solicit the teachers’ opinions. Even though teachers’ opinions are not taken all the time, most of the time the principal listens and takes the advice of the teachers.” People's need for autonomy is met by participatory or consultative decision-making, which gives them a platform to voice their thoughts and feelings while also giving them influence and control over their job activities (Forner et al., 2020). This is true for teachers as well. By including teachers in decision-making, the school community is encouraged to work collaboratively. Teachers take an active role in determining the course of the school. This collaborative approach encourages a sense of ownership and shared responsibility for the success of the school, increasing teacher engagement and dedication. The connections between teachers, administrators, and other stakeholders are strengthened when teachers feel appreciated

and involved in decision-making. This collaborative environment encourages open communication, respect for one another, and a shared dedication to the school's objective, ultimately resulting in the development of a positive school culture. As P12 noted, “When a principal fails to involve teachers in the decision-making, the principal is indirectly telling the teachers that they don’t matter.”

Principals equally supported teacher autonomy by allowing them to use their experience and discretion in the classroom to deliver lessons to the students. A few teachers indicated that they enjoy classroom autonomy. This is exemplified in the statement made by P6: “In the classroom, you use your lesson notes to teach your subjects and you can introduce anything within reason which will help to drive home the lesson to the students.” Teachers’ experience and expertise determine how much autonomy certain principals allow the teachers in the delivery of lessons. P3 reported, “As far as our work is concerned, if the principal trusts you, as in, if he is satisfied that you know what you are doing, he hardly interferes but for the new teachers, it is not so. He monitors them well until he is sure they can stand on their feet very well.” P19 stated, “You are free to teach your lesson as you like as long as your methods achieve the objective,” confirming that teachers in his school have classroom autonomy.

Competency support. Many Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary school teachers consider the provision of opportunities for improvement and growth in their careers to be motivating. The principals intellectually stimulate the teachers by encouraging them to further their studies and improve themselves. P8 noted that “He [the principal] pushes the teachers to read up on new ideas in teaching different subjects and to practice the new ideas in class which makes the teachers develop better teaching skills.” P3 had this to say, “My principal advises us

on courses we can take to improve ourselves, like taking some courses on 'the Coursera platform. He encouraged some of us who are not education majors to do PGDE (Post Graduate Diploma in Education) so that we will be qualified teachers." P22 equally described how his principal inspires the teachers to better themselves, "He [principal] motivates us to better ourselves by obtaining higher education. For instance, he advised me to work toward obtaining a degree or certificate that would help me advance in my career as a teacher. He occasionally gives us instructions on particular subjects."

Some principals help teachers to improve on their jobs by organising seminars in school where particular topics relating to teaching methodologies are discussed. P19 quipped "…the school invites lecturers and experts in different subject areas to the school for seminars from time to time where we learn new techniques for teaching various subjects and sometimes the principal invites psychologists to give us lectures on how to handle difficult students."

Principals further support the teachers who are doing courses by exempting them from some school activities. P3 said, "he [the principal] is very considerate when you are doing a course. He will not include you in some extra-curricular activities to give you some free time to study." "I always feel motivated any time he [principal] recommends us to go for training." Professional training in subject areas is scarcely available but teachers attend seminars, workshops, and conferences once in a while when the opportunity comes up. Teachers find any opportunity to attend such training motivating because it is an opportunity to prepare for career growth. Out of the teachers interviewed only 2 teachers talked about external training, seminars, or workshops. P5 stated, "Some of us participated in the just concluded Audio-Visual Capacity Building Programme for Public School Teachers, organised by the Lagos State Government."

Some teachers revealed that principals encourage knowledge sharing among the teachers. According to P23, principals help to improve teachers' skills by using experienced and knowledgeable teachers to teach and mentor the less experienced ones. P8 mentioned that the principal "encourages teachers to help each other and is very supportive." Thus, supporting teamwork, knowledge sharing and the feeling of belongingness. As reported by P6, the principal,

> …tries to encourage us to learn from each other. Anybody who has more knowledge about any particular thing, the principal will encourage him to share the knowledge with others. Like immediately after the COVID time, the principal encouraged those who have learned how to use Zoom to teach others in case the need arises again to use Zoom for teaching. Teachers are also selected to attend state-organised conferences at different times.

Principals display individual consideration when they create time to coach and provide teachers feedback in a friendly manner. Novice teachers benefit a lot from this since they gain confidence and new teaching skills through such feedback. However, just a few teachers mentioned that their principals make out time to coach and provide teachers with feedback. P6 stated that the principal "tries to correct us from time to time and coaches us, especially the new teachers". P8 was quick to point out that "He [principal] coaches when he has the time and gives feedback like he wants you to improve not as a way of bringing you down."

Delegating responsibilities is another way principals intellectually stimulate, motivate, and increase teacher competence. P20 stated "He also supports teachers to improve by assigning them greater responsibilities. For instance, he entrusts them with tasks such as leading assemblies, presiding over staff meetings in the absence of the principal, and making

presentations during end-of-year events or staff meetings. I am gradually overcoming my shyness as a result of such delegations." P8 noted, "It is motivating when he [principal] gives me higher functions like supervising the lesson notes of new teachers or sends me out to represent the school in any official capacity because to me these things show that the principal wants me to grow in my profession." Interviewee P3 shares a similar opinion as he stated, "I feel motivated and encouraged each time I am given additional responsibilities like anchoring staff meetings on behalf of the principal. That tells me that he believes in me and sees me as capable. I can therefore dream that one day I will stand in a similar position as the principal of a school." P5 mentioned that he gets motivated by principals who trust their teachers. He believed that micromanaging principals "do not trust the expertise of their teachers and are not comfortable giving the teachers higher responsibilities. I need to know that my principal regards me as a human being who deserves to be listened to, not somebody that doesn't have enough sense to know the right thing to do on occasions."

Respect and Recognition. The majority of the interviewees agreed that respect and recognition by principals motivate them as shown in this statement by P2 "… the principal recognizing and acknowledging the good work I have done is a big motivation. When you are working hard and people especially the principal tell you that you are doing a good job, it makes you want to do more, you would want to give more." P11 stated that the recognition may come as verbal praise, a gift, or even a thank-you note. It goes a long way to motivate teachers. P1 equally listed positive recognition as his number one motivator. He quipped "Whenever I am praised or given a thumbs up for my performance, it makes me realise that the efforts I am putting to ensure the students learn are recognised." Interviewee P7 described it as 'recognition'

and ‘encouragement’. In her words, “… when teachers do something good and you recognise them for what they did and you appreciate them, even verbally, it will surely motivate them to do more.” P6 stated that her principal does not hesitate to appreciate the teachers for their efforts, and this makes teachers happy working with him while P5 stated that his school principal gives them kudos when they achieve set objectives like when their students perform well in external examinations. P15 described how her principal uses awards to recognise diligent teachers at the end of every academic year which lures others to work hard to increase their chances of winning awards in subsequent years.

Friendly atmosphere. Participants describe a friendly school atmosphere as an important attribute that encourages teacher motivation. P8 said “A friendly atmosphere in the school is very motivating and, in my mind, it is the way the principal leads the school that will either create such an atmosphere or not. An irritable atmosphere makes work difficult and stressful.” Principals’ leadership styles contribute to the atmosphere of a school. P5 said, “The principal’s leadership style has a direct impact on a teacher's decision to stay or leave a school. It is leadership that determines the atmosphere of an entire school. The ideas of the principal usually filter down to the teachers, staff, and students and eventually become the norm.”

Some of the teachers described a friendly school atmosphere with different words like 'peaceful,' 'cordial,' 'convivial,' and 'friendly ambience'. Such are the environments these teachers believe can lure teachers into staying in the schools resulting in low turnover intentions. Teachers who work in schools with a friendly atmosphere are happier and more motivated. P5 stated, “I love working under my current principal who does not listen to gossip and who promotes peace in the school.” P6 stated, “There is a convivial atmosphere in this place, we are like one family.

We are not earning so much, but we are happy." Many of the teachers feel that having a good relationship with the principal impacts the turnover intentions of teachers. P7 had the following to say, "…. if you have a good relationship with your leader, you will definitely want to remain there but if you don't you might want to leave to other places."

Theme 2: Passion for teaching leads to fulfilment and retention. Teachers expressed a deep and abiding passion for teaching characterised by an unwavering enthusiasm for imparting knowledge, fostering learning, and inspiring students to reach their full potential. This shows a genuine commitment to teaching, a joy in witnessing the growth of others, and a persistent belief in the transformative power of education. This theme is discussed under the category- joy and fulfilment in teaching.

Joy and Fulfilment in Teaching. Some teachers expressed positive emotions including joy and fulfilment, that they derive from their work. This group of teachers experience a deep sense of emotional satisfaction and happiness in the act of teaching which has kept them in the teaching profession. Such teachers find joy and fulfilment not solely from external factors (such as salary or recognition) but from the intrinsic rewards of teaching itself. This could include the joy of imparting knowledge, witnessing student growth, and contributing to the learning process. This is exemplified in the statements from P18 "I love teaching, especially when expounding knowledge of Mathematics in a simplified way to students. I can never leave teaching Mathematics as it is my passion. I derive joy and pleasure from doing this and for now" and P12 "I have always loved teaching. I don't know if I will enjoy doing something different. Impacting the life of these young ones fulfils me, so I have hardly thought of leaving teaching."

Teachers who experience joy and fulfilment in teaching tend to be more emotionally connected and committed and remain in the field for a longer time. This positive emotional connection to their work serves as a motivating factor that goes beyond external challenges.

Theme 3 - Peer collaboration supports teacher motivation and retention.

This theme explains how principals and coworkers support teachers' need for relatedness. Teachers are motivated in schools where teacher collaboration exists. When teachers work together, they have the opportunity to exchange ideas, learn from one another, and share their expertise. Cooperation can improve teachers' subject knowledge, instructional methodologies, and teaching skills. This ongoing professional development may help them become more competent and confident instructors. Peer collaboration was reported in different forms by the teachers.

***Principals encourage peer collaboration*.** Teachers thrive in schools where principals encourage teachers to collaborate as reported by many teachers. For instance, the participants declared that some principals encouraged teamwork and shared knowledge where the experienced teachers in the school coach, supervise, or mentor the inexperienced ones. Meaningful relationships emerge from such collaborations which help to boost the competence and confidence of inexperienced teachers. P2 explained that teacher-peer cooperation is particularly effective because it strengthens teacher connections, allows teachers to exchange best practices, and helps new teachers learn from more experienced ones. Peer support increases motivation and a sense of belonging, which eventually improves teacher competency. P7 had this to say in agreement with the statement above.

> You can say that I am gaining experience here. My relationship with the teachers in this school is helping me to develop my teaching skills. Here, teachers are always eager to help each other. The more experienced ones provide the less experienced ones with hands-on skills that you cannot gain from textbooks.

In all the schools where teachers suggested that principals employ transformational leadership or a blend of transactional and transformational leadership styles, there was a strong emphasis on fostering peer collaboration. Likewise, in the schools where teachers indicated their principals primarily employ transactional leadership, peer collaboration was also reported. However, in the remaining schools, teachers reported that peer collaboration was almost non-existent.

Principals encourage peer collaboration by introducing team bonding activities in the school, giving teachers group assignments, or initiating mentorship programs, where experienced teachers support and collaborate with newer or less-experienced colleagues.

Teachers support each other. Teaching could be physically and mentally demanding. Stress is an unavoidable component of the job, whether it is coping with a particularly tough student or balancing work and family life (or both). In any of these scenarios, having a good relationship with other teachers can be beneficial. Peer collaboration provides a network of coworkers who are supportive and understand the challenges teachers encounter. A healthy work environment, stress relief, and increased teacher morale can be achieved by exchanging experiences, talking about difficulties, and providing encouragement. Teachers support each other in a variety of ways, such as stepping in for an unavoidably absent colleague, sharing knowledge, offering financial assistance when necessary, and providing emotional support to their peers. For instance, P9 stated:

> When I came here initially, especially coming from the background of a very caring and supportive principal, I felt like leaving because I couldn't cope with the overbearing attitude of the principal but some of the teachers who had been here for some time came to me and calmed me down. They promised to help me anytime I have a challenge and they have not failed in their promise since then. Some of them have left the school, and two of them retired but their support and the support of the other teachers have been tremendous.

Teacher collaboration and support often go beyond school affairs. P3 said that "We attend each other's events, sometimes we sew uniforms (ashoebi, in the local parlance) for these purposes and grace each other's events like marriages, burials, and thanksgiving services. We help each other by having small thrift groups which is our main way of saving bulk sums of money for individual projects." This was collaborated by P6 who narrated how the teachers willingly contributed to the treatment of a colleague's sick husband.

Except for P4, P8, P10, and P17, all the other participants agreed that collaborating with their fellow teachers motivated them, contributing to their professional growth and instilling confidence in their teaching abilities. While P8 and P17 maintained that their relationships with colleagues did not serve as a motivating factor, P4 and P10 shared accounts of how the principal's leadership style led to a division among teachers, resulting in a lack of trust. The significance of peer collaboration in motivating teachers is encapsulated in the following statement by P2, who was asked why he chose to remain at the school despite his apparent desire to leave. He said "I would have sought for at least a transfer to another school, but the kind of rapport we the teachers have here is what is keeping me back. My teaching has become much

better because the teachers here are always eager to share knowledge and to help each other whenever necessary. We have each other's back."

In all, it can be inferred from the participants' comments that as teachers interact, they develop deep bonds with one another and have a sense of belonging to the institution. The culture and environment of the school may change as a result of this sense of belonging.

Theme 4 – Unfavourable work conditions contribute to demotivation and turnover intentions. The fourth theme depicts leadership behaviours that increase demotivation and turnover intentions. The theme consists of seven categories each suggesting a reason that could demotivate teachers or influence teachers' decision to quit teaching or seek a transfer to other schools. These categories are labelled toxic atmosphere, inadequate leadership support, poor communication and low teacher esteem, poor remuneration, micromanagement, heavy workload and stress and finally, favouritism.

Toxic School Atmosphere. Some Lagos state government-owned (public) secondary school teachers are repelled by an unfriendly atmosphere in the schools. P3 declared,

> I know of teachers who left schools because of the attitude of their principals. Some of them left even without another job in sight, they just couldn't bear the attitude of their principals any longer. The attitude of principals has an impact on the ambience of the school. If the principal is friendly, it promotes a friendly ambience in the school and vice versa. I don't think I can work with a cantankerous principal who undermines my efforts or fails to appreciate my contributions to the school or who bullies teachers.

If a principal continually uses threats to get teachers to perform tasks, it creates an atmosphere of fear and insecurity, which can increase teachers' turnover intentions. P6 testified that he left his former school because of the attitude of her principal. She said,

> I left my former school because of the principal's behaviour. It has a lot to do with it [teachers' leaving the school]. Principals should not be threatening the teachers all the time, …. if you don't do this, I will sack you, if you don't do this, I will give you a query and all that. When a principal starts doing that, it will affect the teachers, they will feel insecure in their work, and they will start looking elsewhere, that is just it.

P7 feels that it is the responsibility of the principal to ensure that an atmosphere of peace reigns in the school. She declared "One thing I have learned over the years is that when you work in a place and you don't have peace of mind because your leader is very controlling rather than supportive, you would want to look for somewhere else where you will feel happier, feel motivated, feel accommodated, and where you will learn to grow in your career."

P4 described an example of a toxic atmosphere existing in his school. He stated,

> He [the principal] indulges in a divide-and-rule kind of leadership, using his sycophants to spy for him. Therefore, there is a kind of fear among the teachers. Nobody is free to express what is in their minds for fear of being misquoted and the victimisation that may result. People carry out their duties out of fear of the principal and not because they are inspired to do so.

P8 opined that "Not all leaders are friendly and when a teacher feels he is being bullied or oppressed he/she may want to leave because of the atmosphere, or if the working condition is not

encouraging or is hostile such a person will not want to remain in a place like that. Nobody wants to work in a hostile environment."

Inadequate Leadership Support. The majority of the participants thought that inadequate leadership support increases teachers' intentions to leave Lagos public secondary schools. P6 believes that "when a principal is understanding and helpful, the teachers would like to stay." P5 stated, "If a principal is supportive, teachers feel more confident to work and find it easier to use their judgment in the classroom. But where the principal is not supportive, teachers are usually afraid, they won't want to break the rules, they will want to play by the books to remain safe and this kills ingenuity."

The participants specifically mentioned the inability of the school principal to provide teaching materials when needed as a good example of inadequate support of leadership. Out of the teachers interviewed 12 teachers talked about the provision of adequate teaching materials in the schools. The principal of the school is in charge of seeing that adequate instructional tools are available. The availability of teaching aids makes teaching and learning more effective. One of the participants (P12) summed up the importance of teaching aids in the following sentence:

> By providing enough teaching materials in the school in the different subject areas, the principals help to make the work easier for teachers and this is motivating. Without adequate materials, teachers suffer to drive home the points on certain topics. What would have taken a teacher one class period to teach most times ends up taking over two periods when there are inadequate teaching materials.

P1 noted, "…what brings down my motivation is when I need something to do my work or some resources that will make my work easier or let me say, effective and she is slow in giving those materials or refuses to give them". P2 expressed the impact of not having adequate teaching resources when he said, "Many things that we need as teachers to teach our subjects, we do not get them, yet they expect us to perform magic in the classrooms. These are just some of the reasons that make me think of leaving sometimes." P4 declared "We don't even have adequate facilities, especially in the labs and in the library. Where we cannot have the ideal maybe because of funds, at least the principal can make efforts to improvise. The principal who fails to get teaching materials for teaching and learning is failing in his/her duties." He concluded by saying "I will leave anytime the opportunity comes."

Another area where teachers felt the absence of support or inadequate support from school leadership is with the discipline of disruptive students. Dealing with continual disruption and serious disobedience of students and the difficulties associated with irate parents can exacerbate the already difficult responsibilities of teaching, especially for inexperienced teachers. Even the most experienced teachers have difficulty selecting effective disciplinary tactics in situations of that nature. P1 expressed how demotivated he feels whenever he fails to get the necessary support from his principal in such circumstances "I feel demotivated when I don't get support from my principal, like when there is a challenge with difficult students or parents, and the principal leaves me to deal with it by myself." P1 went further to state that "At times like that, you would expect the principal to stand by you and defend the policy of the school. So, if that doesn't happen, you feel as if you are abandoned and things like that bring thoughts of

leaving the school to one's mind. It has happened to me, but I don't want to go into more details."

Teachers complained about the lack of training sessions, seminars, or workshops that would have allowed them to develop professionally during their teaching careers. Very few teachers acknowledged having the opportunity to attend such workshops and seminars. Attending seminars and workshops helps rekindle teachers' enthusiasm for their line of work. Teachers might be motivated to explore innovative approaches in their classrooms and overcome any professional obstacles they may encounter by interacting with other teachers, learning new techniques, and obtaining new insights.

P4 vehemently stated, "One of my most personal reasons for wanting to leave my current job is that there is no plan for our professional development." He further stated, "…. I have perceived that there is no specific plan, there is no concrete plan to ensure that everyone in the school improves at what they do." He added, "…. you might be promoted to a higher position by the ministry but if you don't have the requisite knowledge to carry out the job, you will fail."

Poor Communication and Low teacher esteem. Teachers perceive poor communication, the use of humiliating language, and constant criticism as abusive behaviours that contribute to their decisions to leave their positions. A majority of the teachers expressed their displeasure with the manner of communication of their principals. P1 21 reported that "A number of times, the principal has shouted at teachers, 'Are you stupid?' At another time he asked a teacher, 'What do you use your brain for?' I find nothing motivating about such behaviours. You can correct a teacher without humiliating him/her." As per P4, "Teachers don't like being shouted at as if they are children." P1 narrated an experience that happened in his school where the biology teacher

left the school because the principal insulted him in the presence of students. P17 confirmed that in his school a "teacher left this school because the principal verbally abused him at every opportunity". P6 reported that some school principals "call teachers names like 'incompetent' and 'lazy' in front of others." It is therefore not surprising that P6 who had indicated how happy she was with her principal's leadership style concluded with this statement "But still, if the principal, for instance, humiliates me in front of the students or even other teachers, I will seek a transfer or even leave teaching."

Teachers may become less motivated to work at their highest level if they get repeated criticism. They might begin to doubt the efficacy of their efforts, which could cause their excitement and passion for teaching to wane. Again, teachers who endure continual criticism could find it difficult to find satisfaction in their job. It can be challenging for them to find joy and fulfilment in their work because the negative comments can overshadow any pleasant experiences in the classroom.

The findings equally portray teachers' perception of low esteem of the teaching profession which increases the turnover intentions of teachers. Teachers' sense of fulfilment and purpose in their careers may be undermined by feeling disrespected and undervalued. This feeling may harm their general well-being and lead to a decline in their dedication to teaching. For instance, P17 opined "The motivation to continue teaching is sparse – the salary and benefits are not good enough, you are seen as a never do well because you're a teacher." This probably accounts for the reason some of the interviewees indicated they would consider another type of job that has a better status even though it pays the same as their current teaching positions. P8 opined "I would love to continue teaching, the only challenge I have with teaching in our country

to be precise is the fact that teachers are poorly paid and poorly regarded. For these reasons, I have from time to time considered leaving teaching for greener pastures." P4 had this to say,

> I will gladly accept that different job with the same compensation. You see, teaching is regarded in this part of the world as a poor man's job except for higher institution lecturing. My friend's girlfriend refused to marry him insisting that he should leave teaching and get another job before she will marry him because her family will be furious with her if she agrees to marry a common secondary school teacher. That tells the whole story of how teachers are regarded around here.

Poor Remuneration. The interviewed participants listed poor remuneration as one of the factors that trigger teacher turnover intentions. Most of the teachers talked about their pay package and considered their salary to be small and not able to meet their financial needs. Thus, teachers in some schools had devised ways of bringing the effects of poor remuneration to a minimum by engaging in different types of petty trading. P6 declared "We do other things to get some money during our spare time. Like some of us sell items even to fellow teachers. Some open their shops after school to make more money. Some others have motorcycles (popularly known as okada) or small buses which they use for transportation after work. That is how we make ends meet."

Despite knowing that public school teachers' salaries are determined and paid by the government, a large percentage of the teachers believe that principals have a role to play in increasing their remuneration like recommending hard-working teachers for promotion and ensuring they get their entitlements from the government on time.

Micromanagement. Many teachers described the negative effects of micromanagement and excessive monitoring by the school principals on teacher turnover intentions and motivation. P1 observed that the principal "…supervises the teachers too much and criticises them a lot. She behaves as if she is the only knowledgeable person in the school. Everything must be done according to her instructions. You dare not go against her instructions."

Teachers grow irritated and upset at work because they feel as though everything they do is being checked, and this often leads to stress. Not only that, but teachers also lose their sense of competence and autonomy in highly controlled environments leading to other work-related problems. P4 talked about a fellow teacher who left the school because of the principal's attitude. He stated, "Teachers don't leave schools they leave principals and I think that describes the link perfectly. Some principals are difficult to work with. They make life very difficult for teachers through excessive monitoring and verbal abuse. Treating teachers as if they are nonentities who cannot think for themselves just like our present principal." P1 quipped "We are mature and educated adults and we have the interest of our students at heart but sometimes our principal fails to realise that."

Teachers find it difficult to relax in a heavily controlled environment. P1 stated that the principal "monitors us very closely, so we can't even relax." While it is important to note that a certain amount of direction and assistance is required for efficient administration and school progress, excessive control and monitoring provide little room for teachers to express their professional judgment and autonomy. Teachers may feel robbed of their freedom to make judgments and modify their teaching strategies to best meet the requirements of their pupils when they are continually observed and given instructions on every aspect of their work.

According to some of the interviewees' observations, this can result in a feeling of irritation, disempowerment, and decreased motivation. This is exemplified in the statement of P5 who noted that “A principal who likes to work by the rules, and who believes so much in monitoring teachers does not motivate teachers. Creative teachers will not stay long under such leadership except if they are forced to do so due to financial constraints. Even then, they will hardly put in their best.”

Heavy Workload and Stress. Teachers in public schools had to contend with classroom congestion, longer teaching periods, and more non-teaching activities, among other new demands brought on by the increased number of enrollees. Overcrowding not only requires teachers to dedicate more time and attention to their students but also reduces their effectiveness while increasing stress for the teachers. P6 commented “The workload here is very tedious more than in private schools, we have more students in each class and the number of scripts to mark in a week is enormous. The classes are filled, and you are not even able to give individual attention to all the students.” Similar sentiments were echoed by P4 who said “…, the workload is much. As a science teacher, you are sometimes asked to teach more than two science subjects to all the SS classes, especially when teachers leave abruptly," portraying that principals are not able to replace teachers who leave quickly; rather, they share the work among the remaining teachers, thereby overworking the teachers.

Favouritism. Another factor that came out strongly as a teacher turnover trigger is principals practising favouritism in the school as reported by some of the interviewees. "P12 voiced her disenchantment with her principal’s attitude of favouring some teachers. She said, “She [Principal] just takes decisions on matters, even those involving the teachers, and more often

than not, those decisions favour her people to the detriment of the other teachers. This attitude annoys teachers a lot. She is too tribalistic." P4 lamented that his principal "indulges in a divide and rule kind of leadership, using his sycophants to spy for him. Therefore, there is a kind of fear among the teachers. Nobody is free to express what is in their minds for fear of being misquoted and the victimisation that may result," while P19 had this to say, "He [Principal] had cronies among the teachers who collected information for him about the other teachers and he believed everything they said. Those teachers paraded themselves like they were princes and princesses. Of course, they were the ones most favoured by their mentor. It was choking."

Teachers who sense favouritism may feel disheartened and underappreciated. Observing others being given preferential treatment might make people feel unjust and demotivate them from performing at the top of their ability. Favouritism can also cause conflict and strained relationships within the teaching team. Unfavoured teachers may harbour resentment towards both the principal and their favoured coworkers. This can result, in a toxic work environment characterised by gossip, backbiting, and decreased cooperation.

In all, the responses of the teachers clearly show that teachers do not like being stressed at work as a result of the principals' micromanagement, constant criticism, favouritism, heavy workload or a toxic work environment and they do not enjoy being made to feel, unappreciated as if their contributions do not matter. They will eventually leave teaching for other jobs where they are valued and have the freedom to be creative.

Theme 5 - Leadership style relates to teacher motivation and turnover. All the interviewees except for P8 and P13 perceived that a relationship exists between the three constructs (turnover intentions, leadership styles, and teacher motivation).

An overwhelming majority opinion seems to suggest that the leadership practices of school principals significantly affect teacher motivation, which in turn affects teacher turnover intentions. While supportive and transformational leadership tends to boost motivation and decrease turnover intentions, controlling or autocratic styles can have the reverse effect. P4 opined,

> Yes, there is a direct relationship between all three, because not everyone is self-motivated, some people are usually easily motivated by the environment and by what is obtainable. So having responsible and positive leadership, a leadership that is in tune with the needs of the staff, and that pays attention to teacher motivation is key to the reduction of teacher intention to leave a school. Such leadership will easily identify what motivates the staff. The right leadership would pay attention to staff motivation and that, in turn, will definitely improve teacher turnover.

P7 stated, "….one thing I have learned over the years is that when you work in a place and you don't have peace of mind because your leader is very controlling rather than supportive, you would want to look for somewhere else where you will feel happier, feel motivated, feel accommodated, and where you will learn to grow in your career."

The outlying perception from P8 is that teachers may opt to depart from their schools despite having a positive rapport with their principal, and even in cases where administrators employ diverse leadership approaches to motivate them. In a similar vein, P13 claimed that even if their principal exhibits outstanding behaviour and gives sufficient motivation, they would still decide to resign if they come across a more appealing employment opportunity or have a strong

personal reason to do so. However, according to P3 “We all know that teachers’ salary is nothing to write home about which makes many teachers want to leave teaching, but if a principal is good at motivating his/her teachers through different means, this could help in dousing teachers’ desire to leave a school.”

Combined Evaluation of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The results from the examination of the two distinct research methods—quantitative and qualitative analysis—are combined and evaluated in this section. Using the concurrent triangulated mixed-methods strategy necessitates collecting data simultaneously from both methodologies, doing separate analyses, and combining the results at the evaluation stage (Dawadi et al., 2021). A narrative method was used to weave the comparison and assessment of the qualitative and quantitative data around the research questions. Fetters et al. (2013) explained that in the narrative approach, the qualitative and quantitative findings are reported separately.

This study theorised and empirically investigated the effects of leadership behaviours (transformational and transactional), on teacher motivation and teacher turnover intentions. The study had four primary objectives: examine the impact of transactional and transformational leadership philosophies on teachers' intentions to leave the field, examine the relationship between these philosophies and the motivation of Lagos State government-owned secondary school teachers, determine whether motivation affects the relationship between government-owned secondary school teachers' intentions to quit and their principals' leadership philosophies. Using the study’s objectives as a guide, the outcome of the investigations highlights significant discoveries.

The majority of the findings confirmed or expanded the existing research on motivation, turnover intentions, and leadership in the school setting. The results support Bass' (1999) assertion that the Full-Range Leadership Theory includes all the traditional leadership styles and that every leader exhibits some aspects of all of them albeit with a preference for one over the other. The quantitative findings showed that the total mean score for transformational leadership style was (M = 3.30) and the total mean score for transactional leadership was 3.41. In the qualitative analysis, more than half of the teachers interviewed perceive their principals to be using a transactional leadership style, a few of the teachers perceive their principals to be adopting more transformational leadership behaviours while the remaining perceive their principals as adopting equal measures of the two leadership behaviours. Consequently, it is concluded that principals in Lagos State public secondary schools demonstrate components of transactional and transformational leadership styles, but the majority of them favour transactional leadership practices. This aligns with Emiru's (2018) research findings in Ethiopia, which revealed that school principals tend to adopt a transactional leadership style more frequently than a transformational one. Similarly, Thompson and Akudo's (2020) study on public secondary school principals in Anambra State, Nigeria, found a prevalence of transactional leadership behaviours over transformational ones.

The descriptive finding on the fulfilment of the need for autonomy provided the highest average score (4.62) for the statement expressing teachers' ability to contribute significantly to decision-making about their job tasks. Conversely, the lowest average score (3.99) was given to the statement representing that participants' feelings are considered at work. This data suggests that teachers who were surveyed place a high priority on having autonomy in making decisions

about their work duties. They have the confidence and capability to influence and contribute to the way their work is done. However, the lower score for the statement representing that participants' feelings is considered at work points to a possible area for improvement in the workplace, suggesting that despite having the capability to contribute and influence decisions, teachers feel that their contributions, concerns or emotional well-being are not given the attention or acknowledgement they require. This result highlights how important it is to create an atmosphere at work where teachers' contributions, emotional needs and concerns are taken into consideration to provide them with a more fulfilling professional experience.

According to the descriptive analysis on the fulfilment of the competence need, the item indicating that participants do not feel highly competent at work had the highest mean score (4.99), while the item indicating that participants do not often get the opportunity to demonstrate their abilities at work had the lowest score (4.07). This might mean that though teachers generally feel they are provided with chances to display their competencies in the workplace, they do not feel highly competent and confident to do so. This could indicate a potential need for professional development or support to enhance teachers' confidence in their skills.

Looking at the descriptive statistics, on the satisfaction of the need for relatedness, the item indicating that participants do not feel highly competent at work had the highest mean score (4.99), while the item indicating that participants do not often get the opportunity to demonstrate their abilities at work had the lowest score (4.07). These findings suggest that, on average, secondary school teachers in Lagos State demonstrate a high level of satisfaction with their relatedness needs in the workplace. The notably positive scores for liking colleagues and considering them as friends imply a strong sense of camaraderie and positive interpersonal

relationships among the teachers. This finding underscores the importance of social connections and positive interactions among colleagues in contributing to the overall satisfaction of relatedness needs among secondary school teachers in the region.

From the descriptive findings on turnover intentions, it could be deduced that the question about how often teachers imagine securing a new job that better meets their unique requirements received the highest mean score (3.24), closely followed by the question about how often teachers have considered leaving their current job (3.11). Both results show that teachers are seriously considering leaving their jobs. Teachers generally exhibit a significant degree of thought or reflection about future changes to their work environment meaning that there is a substantial propensity among teachers to imagine other professional options that line more closely with their individual preferences and requirements, as indicated by the higher mean score for dreaming of finding a new work that better fits personal demands.

The following is a condensed overview of both quantitative and qualitative findings from the study.

Leadership styles and teacher motivation. This section explores the effect of the leadership behaviours of school principals—both transactional and transformational—on the motivation of teachers in schools. Teachers were requested to assess their principals' leadership philosophies and how these affect their motivation on a 7-point scale. Findings revealed an important link between teacher motivation and leadership styles of principals. The average score for teacher motivation was 4.45, autonomy 4.23, relatedness 4.45, and competence 4.66. These results are considered moderate. Correlation analysis demonstrated a positive and moderate

relationship between transformational leadership and teacher motivation, r (470) = .50, $p < .001$, meaning that as transformational leadership practices increase, teacher motivation also increases.

Furthermore, a multiple regression analysis showed that transformational leadership behaviours are positive predictors of teacher motivation ($\beta = .412$, $t = 10.128$, $p < .001$), indicating that if the transformational leadership behaviours of principals increase by a unit, the motivation of Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary school teachers will increase by 0.51 units holding all other variables fixed.

The qualitative findings provide evidence that teachers in Lagos State public secondary schools are motivated by a leadership style that supports teachers in the classroom, involves teachers in decision-making, listens to teachers, encourages peer collaboration, coaches, and mentors, readily gives feedback, provides professional training, and challenges teachers' abilities by giving them higher responsibilities. Again, the findings confirm that teachers thrive in a friendly atmosphere where leaders support, respect, appreciate, and recognise their efforts and where teachers are well remunerated. According to Slemp et al. (2018), leaders with an autonomy-supportive style typically acknowledge the opinions of their employees, promote self-initiative, provide opportunities for choice and contribution, communicate in an informative rather than directive way, and refrain from using rewards or penalties to influence behaviour. Rothmann and Fouché (2018) found that autonomy-supportive school principals allow teachers to take control of their jobs and allow teachers to have more influence in their work environment, have fewer laws, recognise teachers' skills, provide constructive feedback, listen to their perspectives before making decisions, and influence them to be assertive. These behaviours are mostly associated with the transformational leadership style. This agrees with the literature on

transformational leadership. For instance, Yukl (2015) maintained that individualised consideration is provided by transformational leaders by supporting, mentoring, and coaching with respect and dignity as well as by considering the individual needs of followers and treating them in keeping with their capabilities, resulting in the evolution of followers into leaders (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Almintisir et al., 2013). According to Lin et al. (2020), a correlation exists between transformational leadership and the well-being of employees at work. A study conducted by Kim and Park in 2020, revealed that implementing transformational leadership enhances organisational learning, creates a favourable work environment, and facilitates knowledge exchange. The constructive feedback that transformative leaders deliver serves to boost the self-confidence of their followers (Almintisir et al., 2013). This agrees with the self-determination theory which postulates that when employees work in an autonomy-friendly atmosphere, they will engage in more self-directed activities, address hurdles and difficulties more freely, and feel more supported and connected (Deci et al., 2001).

The discovery that the motivation of teachers is positively related to transformational leadership is in line with earlier studies by Moreno-Casado et al. (2022); Kovjanic et al. (2012), Eyal and Roth (2011), Eres (2011), and Hetland et al. (2011). These studies discovered a significant connection between transformational leadership and fulfilling all three fundamental needs. Other studies conducted in other climes by Alghazo and Al-Anazi (2016), Lee and Kuo (2019), and Abdullah et al. (2018) also found solid and positive connections between teacher motivation and a transformational leadership style, although these studies were based on different theoretical frameworks other than the self-determination theory.

As a result, it can be deduced that the principals' transformational leadership behaviours as perceived by teachers in Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools, served as a motivating factor for the teachers.

The research question's second finding reveals a weak but unfavourable correlation, $r(470) = -.39$, $p < .001$) between teacher motivation, (measured by a composite score of the fulfilment of the requirements of competence, relatedness, and autonomy) and transactional leadership style. This means that as the transactional leadership practices of principals in Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools increase teacher motivation decreases.

Furthermore, multiple regression analysis indicated that transactional leadership style is a negative predictor of teacher motivation ($\beta = -.257$, $t = -6.319$, $p < .001$). This suggests that if there is a unit increase in transactional leadership behaviours of principals, the motivation of Lagos State public secondary school teachers will decrease by 0.32 units if all other variables are held constant.

The qualitative results demonstrated that several of the transactional leadership behaviours were viewed as demotivating by educators who identified their leaders as employing a transactional leadership style. Monitoring of teachers was considered excessive, and the feedback provided by these principals was seen as criticism. Some teachers mentioned that some of the principals do not keep to their promises. The teachers also mentioned that principals who always insist on following laid down rules and deadlines, and who want the teachers to stick to particular methods of teaching do not trust them and such principals fail to recognise that teachers are trusted professionals. Eyal and Roth (2011) describe transactional leaders as those who retain tight strategic control by insisting on adherence to established standards, monitoring

work quality, and evaluating individual and team performance. From their study, Eyal and Roth (2011) discovered that the perceptions of transactional leadership in principals were linked with the controlled motivation of teachers. This agrees with the finding of Kanat-Maymon et al. (2020), who found a link between controlled motivation and transactional leadership. Advocates of the Self-Determination Theory argue that individuals' fundamental needs are not adequately fulfilled when they experience controlled motivation (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Van Tuin et al., 2020).

While there is limited empirical research on how transactional leadership fulfils fundamental psychological needs, Moreno-Casado et al. (2022) discovered a positive link between teachers' transactional leadership and students' psychological need frustration in their Spanish study. In a similar vein, Hetland et al. (2011) found that active management by exception, (one of the facets of transactional leadership), adversely affects the fulfilment of the three fundamental psychological needs, leading to decreased teacher motivation. Likewise, Judge and Piccolo (2004, cited in Kalsoom et al., 2018) identified that laissez-faire leadership and management by exception were significantly and negatively associated with employee motivation. Hyseni et al. (2021) noted in their study that all three attributes of transactional leadership were less effective in motivating teachers. Again, Ahmad et al. (2022) reported that utilising contingent reward (another facet of transactional leadership) did not result in the success of a project, nor did it motivate followers to take charge of their lives– on the contrary it had the opposite effect. Transactional leadership's contingent reward is equally seen to have a negative and substantial effect on followers' performance, according to Howell and Avolio (1993). All these corroborate the findings of the present research but contradict the findings of scholars like

Eğriboyun (2019) in Turkey, Kim and Lee (2012) in Korea and Menghasa (2015) in Ethiopia who found a strong association between motivation and transactional leadership.

Leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions. According to the study's findings, teachers' intentions to leave government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos State are correlated with the leadership style of their principals. The research employed both quantitative and qualitative analyses to determine how leadership styles affect the motivation of teachers. Results reveal that teachers in these schools have a moderately high turnover intention. Specifically, the questions about the frequency teachers dream about getting a different job that meets their requirements scored the highest mean, followed by the question on how frequently they consider leaving their current jobs.

Further examination using Pearson's Product Correlation unveiled a strong and adverse association between the teacher turnover intentions of teachers and the transformational leadership behaviours of principals. In contrast, a significant positive and significant association was identified between the transactional leadership style of principals and teacher turnover intentions. In simpler terms, an increase in the adoption of transformational leadership styles by principals correlates with a decrease in teacher turnover, while an increase in transactional leadership practices corresponds to an increase in teacher turnover intentions.

These results were corroborated by the multiple regression analysis, which showed that transformative leadership in Lagos State's government-owned (public) secondary schools negatively predicts teachers' intentions to leave their jobs. On the other hand, teacher turnover intentions are favourably predicted with transactional leadership. These results suggest that if the transformational leadership behaviour of principals is increased by a unit, a decrease in teacher

turnover intentions by .46 units is expected, with all other variables held constant. On the contrary, a unit increase in the transactional leadership of principals will increase teacher turnover intentions by .33 units, holding all other variables constant.

The qualitative results show that many of the participants who were interviewed were contemplating leaving their current schools or quitting teaching altogether. Although there are many factors influencing this decision, the most prominent ones are unsupportive leadership behaviours and inadequate compensation. It was observed that all the participants under transactional leadership voiced their intention to leave. While five teachers under either a transformational leader or a combination of both transactional and transformational leadership expressed their contentment with their current workplace and had no plans to leave, one teacher who was among the interviewees expressed a desire to retire. This insinuates a positive link between a decrease in teachers' turnover intentions and transformational leadership. By fostering an environment where employees are empowered to participate in decision-making, prioritising long-term goals, and striving for personal growth and self-fulfilment of employees, transformational leaders increase their employees' commitment to the organisation and promote retention (Martins et al., 2022). Scholars such as (Wells & Peachey, 2011; Green et al., 2013; Caillier, 2016; Razzaq et al., 2019; Park & Pierce, 2020; Yücel, 2021; Ali et al., 2021; Martins et al., 2022; Moreno-Casado et al., 2022) have all reported a negative relationship between these variables which correspond with the results of this research.

Some teachers expressed a profound and enduring devotion to teaching, marked by an unwavering passion for sharing knowledge, cultivating learning, and motivating students to achieve their utmost potential. This level of commitment to teaching independently propels them,

reinforcing their determination to persist in the profession. This aligns with the autonomous motivation theory of Self-Determination Theory. The theory has it that individuals engaged in an activity autonomously perceive it as their choice (Kaplan et al., 2022). They derive satisfaction from the task, express a genuine desire to engage with it, and are likely to persist in the activity as a result (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The second part of this result supports the conclusions of previous research, including Razzaq et al., 2019, who discovered that transactional leadership leads to increased turnover intentions among workers in Lahore. This agrees with the finding of Pitchayachananon and Anantasopon (2019) in their study on private firms in Thailand and the finding of Naseer et al. (2017) that unveiled a favourable correlation between Pakistani nurses' turnover decisions and transactional leadership.

Qualitative evidence in this study suggests that many government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos State do not provide teachers with the necessary tools and facilities to effectively teach and meet the expectations of the system. These conditions range from basic teaching supplies to physical facilities. These and other unfavourable work conditions demotivate teachers to the point where most of them wish to leave their school or quit teaching altogether. Factors that emerged in support of the above align with findings from other scholars and they include - a toxic school atmosphere (Anjum et al., 2018; Iqbal et al., 2022), inadequate leadership support (Shuls & Flores, 2020; Borman & Dowling, 2008), micromanagement (Limon & Dilekçi, 2021), poor remuneration (Alifuddin & Widodo, 2021; Bentil et al., 2019), poor communication (Nwagbara et al., 2013), low teacher esteem (Heffernan et al., 2022; Bentil et al.,

2019), inadequate teaching materials (Loeb et al., 2005), and a heavy workload (Heffernan et al., 2022; Wushishi et al., 2013) and favouritism (Özbek, 2015).

The teacher participants who perceived their principal leadership styles as transactional reported the exhibition of these traits by their principals and expressed a desire to either change schools or leave teaching completely. Thus, converging with the quantitative findings that positively associated teacher turnover intentions with transactional leadership behaviours.

The impact of teacher motivation on the connection between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles. The research delved into the influence of teacher motivation on the connection between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles, examining if teacher motivation moderates this relationship. Nevertheless, multiple regression analysis revealed that motivation does not act as a moderator in this association. Instead, the study, from the viewpoint of teachers, indicates that leadership style positively influences teacher motivation, and as teachers become more motivated, their turnover intentions decrease. Thus, describing a mediation rather than a moderating effect. According to Deci and Ryan (2008), followers demonstrate better job commitment and reduced intentions of leaving their jobs when a leader offers sufficient support for meeting the three essential needs (Rothmann & Fouché, 2018).

Summary

The chapter presented a comprehensive overview of the study's results and completed an evaluation of the findings. The teacher participants in this study used their own experiences to determine what they thought were the most relevant leadership strategies influencing teacher motivation and teacher turnover intention. The quantitative analysis was designed to ascertain relationships and the predictive abilities of leadership styles on teacher motivation as well as

teacher turnover intentions. Results from this section of analysis unveiled that whereas transactional leadership negatively predicts teacher motivation and positively predicts teacher turnover intentions, transformational leadership positively predicts teacher motivation and negatively predicts teacher turnover intentions. Identifying patterns and trends in participant responses to emphasise the critical leadership characteristics that influence a teacher's motivation and turnover intentions was the goal of the qualitative aspect of the study. The analysis from this section of the study established autonomy support, competence support, respect and recognition, and a friendly atmosphere as the categories under supportive leadership strategies that enhance teacher motivation. Other themes that emerged as enhancing teacher motivation were encouraging peer collaboration, better remuneration and passion for teaching. The analysis equally showed that a toxic atmosphere, insufficient leadership support, poor communication, low esteem, poor remuneration, micromanagement, favouritism, as well as heavy workload, as the categories under unfavourable work conditions that contribute to turnover decisions of Lagos State school teachers. The qualitative findings of the study are thus considered to complement and corroborate the quantitative results. The conclusions and implications are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

This research was borne out of an increasing amount of interest in figuring out how school leadership could get teachers to feel motivated in their profession, take psychological ownership, and stay long and dedicated to their jobs. Therefore, the study aimed to evaluate the impact of some leadership philosophies on teacher motivation as well as on teachers' inclination to leave their jobs. Equally important to the study is the identification of the impact of teacher motivation on the interaction between turnover intentions and leadership style. Given Burns's (1978) conceptualisations of leadership and the corresponding measures he developed to assess it, which revolve around the notion that leadership can be either transactional or transformational, these two leadership philosophies therefore served as the leadership styles of interest for this research.

Transactional leadership theory emphasises the relevance of reward and punishment in motivating subordinates. This type of relationship is based on the reciprocal gains received from a mutual understanding/agreement where a leader provides compensation for the achievement of a predetermined goal (Burns, 1978). Bass (1985) argues that by describing the goals to be accomplished, how they will be realized, how performance will be assessed, and providing contingent rewards when the goals are completed, this type of leadership style motivates individuals to achieve the intended result (Bass, 1985).

However, it is believed that transformational leadership is very successful in motivating followers to achieve their objectives. Transformational leaders use their charismatic and influential attributes to motivate individuals to perform beyond expectations (Avolio et al.,1999). Likewise, workers who reported to a transformational leader were more inclined to perform

better because not only do transformational leaders motivate them, but they also equally gain their trust (Bass, 1985).

The self-determination hypothesis was then advanced by Deci and Ryan (1985), who claimed that to effectively inspire employees, ensure their peak performance, and promote well-being, three psychological demands must be addressed. Individuals require a sense of competence and mastery over their environment (need for competence), they need to feel that they are architects of their behaviour rather than victims of external influences (need for autonomy) and they need to feel accepted and have good relationships with others (need for relatedness). Due to the availability of the vast body of research discussing the interplay between the subjects of leadership, employee motivation, and retention, the question arose as to whether leadership and in particular transformational and transactional leadership would satisfy the three basic needs of teachers, and by so doing, motivate them into staying longer in their jobs.

The study hypothesised that (i) the motivation of the schoolteachers is positively impacted by transformational leadership style and negatively impacted by transactional leadership style (ii) the turnover intention of the schoolteachers is negatively impacted by transformational leadership style and is positively impacted by transactional leadership style. The study equally hypothesised that the interaction between principals' leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions is moderated by teacher motivation.

To carry out this investigation, the study employed a concurrent triangulated mixed-methods approach, collecting data from 472 participants through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with twenty-three teachers across public schools in Lagos State. The collected data were analysed using descriptive and inferential analysis to test the hypotheses.

Thematic analysis was done on the interview data to obtain a richer comprehension of the relationships between the constructs. Hence, analysis of the teachers' experiences and their perspectives regarding teaching in Lagos State public secondary schools provided insight into what motivates teachers and what influences their turnover decisions.

Implications of the Study

Corroborating recent studies like (Kovjanic et al., 2012; Kaplan et al., 2022 Eyal & Roth, 2011; Hetland, et al., 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011; Green et al., 2013; Sithole & Sudha, 2014; Caillier, 2016; Rothmann & Fouché, 2018; Hetland et al., 2015; Maaitah, 2018; Yücel, 2021; Martins et al., 2022; Park & Pierce, 2020), the discovery of the present research confirms that leadership styles can be used to impact teacher motivation and turnover decisions in a context like Nigeria. Additionally, the research findings point to the potential importance of transformational leadership in fostering autonomous work motivation and reducing turnover intentions of teachers. The following section offers a brief recapitulation of the primary findings and their implications.

Impact of Leadership Styles on Teacher Motivation

The investigation's main focus was on how Lagos State school principals' transactional and transformational leadership philosophies affected the motivation of their secondary school teachers. The research indicates that teachers are more motivated when working under transformational leadership, but less so under transactional leadership. This means that transformational leadership is better suited to meeting teachers' autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs, while transactional leadership falls short in this regard.

Teachers under transformational leadership felt they had the freedom to decide how to deliver lessons in the classroom and the freedom to take part in school decisions. Teachers felt

they had ownership and more control over classroom delivery and management. This greater autonomy in the classroom and school decision-making, according to these teachers, made them feel valued, trusted, and respected, as well as more confident in themselves as teachers.

Most teachers under transformational leadership also suggested they felt competent in their jobs as teachers. Participants in the study demonstrated a notable degree of confidence in their capacity to execute their tasks and meet their goals. Teachers benefited from mentorship both from the principals and from more experienced teachers. Many of the teachers reported they were able to strengthen their teaching skills through the experiences shared by other teachers and strong friendships developed from such collaborations which made them feel connected with other teachers and with the school. According to the theory of self-determination, when an individual's fundamental psychological needs are met, their autonomous motivation is strengthened, and thus, these expected results are likely to occur (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Transformational leadership addresses these psychological needs by providing support to followers, influencing followers, communicating with them in ways that energise them, showing empathy for the followers' unique needs, respecting follower's opinions, seeking followers' perspectives in making decisions, and convincing followers to think for themselves (Bass, 1985). This study builds upon existing literature that affirms the link between the fulfilment of fundamental psychological needs and transformational leadership (Kaplan et al., 2022; Hetland et al., 2011; Hetland et al., 2015; Kovjanic et al., 2012; Jenson & Bro, 2018; Messmann et al., 2022; Bojović & Jovanović, 2020; Hyseni et al., 2021). Teachers, whose psychological needs are fulfilled, feel a sense of belonging in their professional environment leading to increased enthusiasm and motivation for autonomous task completion (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Furthermore, this research has revealed that schoolteachers in Lagos State were not inspired by the transactional leadership behaviours of school principals, implying that the transactional leadership style does not meet the autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs of teachers in Lagos State. This agrees with the findings of Hyseni et al. (2021), who found all three attributes of transactional leadership to be less effective in motivating teachers. Ahmad et al. (2022) found that contingent reward did not motivate followers or result in project success, but instead had the opposite effect.

Teachers felt that principals' insistence on deadlines, excessive monitoring, undue control, and constant criticism were stifling and stressful. The teachers' feeling of competence was eroded as a result of the deadlines and criticisms, as they did not believe they were capable of accomplishing the assignments within the limits imposed by the principals. Likewise, while the teachers under transformational leadership felt they had stronger relationships with fellow teachers and the principals in their schools, most of the teachers under transactional leadership felt a limited connection to their colleagues as a result of the toxic atmosphere existing in the schools. Thus, peer connection stagnated because of distrust and fear of victimisation.

The transactional leadership style emphasises task completion, corrective monitoring, rewards, and punishment, which typically leads to controlled motivation. Self-determination theory posits that people's fundamental needs are not adequately fulfilled when they experience controlled motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Van Tuin et al., 2020; Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020). Going by this theory, transactional leadership was expected to result in a controlled motivation of the teachers (Hyseni et al., 2021; Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020). Contrarily, the result showed a negative relationship which could be likened to

amotivation. The reason for this discrepancy could be attributed to the teachers' perception that principals do not always deliver on contingent reward promises. According to the testimony of Howell and Avolio (1993), the most motivating component of transactional leadership is contingent reward. Leaders who fail to effectively follow through or are inconsistent on contingent reward commitments are regarded as ineffective by their followers (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Again, SDT postulates that people who participate in tasks for externally controlled purposes are under tension and experience a sense of obligation, and they will most likely stop participating once the incentive is eliminated (Vansteenkiste et al., 2009; Hagger et al., 2014; Van Tuin et al., 2020). Therefore, withholding a contingent reward promise could have dire consequences on the motivation of employees (Mengesha, 2015; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Thus, in Nigeria and similar contexts, leaders who employ a transactional style of leadership need to be mindful of the expectations they set and ensure that they follow through on their promises. Leaders and followers need to maintain some degree of trust. This could be achieved by leaders being consistent and fair in the application of rewards and punishments. This approach may help to keep followers motivated and engaged in achieving organisational goals.

Leadership Styles and Teacher Turnover Intentions

The second research question of the study aimed to investigate the influence of leadership styles on teacher turnover intentions. The study's results unveiled that teacher turnover decisions in schools in Lagos State diminish with the adoption of a transformational leadership style by principals. Empirical evidence suggests that in Nigeria, a developing nation marked by constrained resources, insufficient infrastructure, and modest employee compensation, transformational leadership proves more successful than transactional leadership in decreasing

teachers' propensity to resign from their positions. To encourage exceptional performance and retention of employees in a context similar to Nigeria therefore, leaders should prioritise the implementation of transformational leadership techniques.

The inverse association found between turnover intentions and transformational leadership style in the current research is congruent with Burns's (1978) postulation, which suggests that leaders who adopt transformational leadership can inspire employees to exceed their job requirements, leading to greater work contentment and loyalty to the organisation and its goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leadership encourages and stimulates employees, focusing on their needs, and connecting their goals and values to the organisation (Bojović & Jovanović, 2020).

In the same vein, Deci, and Vansteenkiste (2004) opine that people value the fulfilment of fundamental essential needs and would therefore gravitate toward circumstances that encourage the fulfilment of their needs and retreat from the circumstances that thwart their needs. As a result, transformational leadership is a favourable concept concerning the retention and motivation of workers in low-paying jobs.

Contrarily, the transactional leadership style was found to increase teacher turnover intentions. This agrees with the finding of Pitchayachananon and Anantasopon (2019) in their study on private firms in Thailand and the finding of Naseer et al. (2017) in their study on the interaction between nurses' turnover intentions and transactional leadership in Pakistan. It also aligns with the Transformational Leadership Theory. According to Bass and Avolio (2003), depending on the employee's assessment, transactional leadership styles may have a beneficial or negative impact on outcomes. Employees are affected positively when they think transactional

leadership is good, and negatively when they think transactional leaders are dishonest and not transparent (Bass & Avolio, 2003), or do not keep their promises. According to Ojokuku (2012, cited in Ntenga & Awuor, 2018), transactional leadership could lead to problems with expectations because the exchange process may be disrupted if the expectations of the followers are not realised,

Based on the descriptive findings related to turnover intentions, it can be inferred that the query concerning how often teachers contemplate seeking alternative employment that aligns better with their personal needs yielded the highest mean score (3.24), closely followed by the question about the frequency with which teachers have thought of quitting their current job (3.11). Both scores indicate a significant level of turnover considerations among teachers. On average, teachers express a notable level of consideration or contemplation regarding potential changes in their employment situation. The higher mean score for dreaming of getting a new job suggests a significant tendency among teachers to envision alternative professional opportunities that align more closely with their individual preferences and requirements. This implies that teachers in Lagos State public secondary schools have a moderately high turnover intention. This outcome is not unexpected given that more principals prefer the transactional leadership style, as ascertained from the analyses.

The Impact of Teacher Motivation on the Association Between Leadership Styles and Teacher Turnover Intentions

The study responded to its third research question which pertains to the effect of teacher motivation on the interaction between teacher turnover intentions and principals' leadership styles. The main discovery regarding this question portrays that teacher motivation, which

concerns the fulfilment of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs, is not a moderator of the connection between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles. However, findings from the qualitative data suggest that turnover decisions largely depend on the motivational strategies employed by a principal. Specifically, leadership strategies influence teacher motivation, which in turn affects teachers' intent to either quit or continue working in the school. Therefore, effective leadership should focus on teacher motivation to reduce turnover. This describes a mediation effect rather than a moderation effect and it agrees with the finding of Shareef and Atan (2019), which indicated that intrinsic motivation completely mediates the association between leadership, organisational citizenship behaviour, and turnover intentions. However, further research might be required to validate this theory.

In sum, this study, has established that transformational leadership provides teachers with choices and a say in decision-making, which has been seen to increase teachers' sense of autonomy (Katz & Assor, 2006; Rothmann &Fouché, 2018; Hocine & Zhang, 2014). Transformational leaders provide constructive comments, mentorship, coaching, knowledge sharing, and training, all of which are recognised supports for competence (Parsad et al., 2001 Ryan & Deci, 2000). Teachers' emotions of relatedness were also aided by transformational leadership, which created a friendly school atmosphere, encouraged teamwork, and encouraged peer collaborations (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Since their needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence, are satisfied, teachers under transformational leadership experience autonomous motivation and well-being frequently associated with the fulfilment of these core psychological needs (Kaplan & Madjar, 2017; Crehan, 2016; Hagger et al., 2014; Roth et.al., 2007; Gagné &

Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2002; Kovjanic et al., 2012; Bojović & Jovanović, 2020; Sarmah et al., 2022).

Conversely, transactional leadership which revolves around providing extrinsic compensation and monitoring followers' work, created a controlling situation that put teachers under pressure and reduced their sense of autonomy (Eyal & Roth, 2011). Therefore, the transactional leadership style, which entails rewarding good performance while punishing poor performance, was found to be negatively associated with psychological needs fulfilment (Hetland et al., 2011).

The study's findings close a significant research gap by illuminating how particular leadership philosophies affect teachers' motivation (satisfaction of basic psychological needs) and decisions regarding turnover. Very few studies have been conducted on this topic in the context of a developing nation like Nigeria. The study's findings support the basic tenets of both transformational leadership theory and self-determination theory.

Ultimately, these findings have significant implications for educational leaders in Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools and beyond. Principals embracing a transformational leadership style might effectively inspire and retain teachers, whereas those leaning towards a transactional leadership style could inadvertently contribute to turnover and dissatisfaction among their teachers.

Recommendations for Practice

Beyond demonstrating that transformational leadership promotes teacher motivation and lowers teacher turnover intentions, teachers' perceptions in the current study are valuable in contemplating ways of improving the support systems in the schools to achieve these outcomes.

Study participants contributed to the identification of some critical considerations for effective motivation and reduction of teacher turnover intention by sharing their experiences and by describing the factors that supported the fulfilment of their basic psychological needs, and turnover decisions. These have implications for the school principals, the state government, and school policymakers. The recommendations are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Leadership Support. The results of the qualitative findings show that teachers' motivation to remain in the Lagos State public secondary schools revolves around leadership support. This corresponds with the assertion of Ingersoll (2001) that a significant determinant of teachers' decision to persist in their line of work is the quality of administrative assistance provided by a school. Borman and Dowling (2008) define leadership support as the school's ability to assist and back up teachers concerning student conduct, curriculum, instructional techniques, and adaptation to the school atmosphere. Leithwood et al. (2020) identified four components of efficient administrative support, which include establishing distinct goals and priorities, providing personalized assistance, fostering a culture of cooperation, and developing a vision for the school.

The majority of teachers within the study's demographic are discontented with the support offered by their leaders. Teachers who fall under this category are constantly confused and often feel abandoned, incompetent, and frustrated. These feelings negatively affect their motivation, commitment to classroom delivery and intention to persist in teaching. Survey results from Loeb et al. (2005) showed that a lack of leadership assistance contributes to teacher turnover problems. Leadership support is further distilled into specific components as unmasked in the following paragraphs.

Autonomy Support. Principals of Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools can create support systems in their institutions in several ways to increase teacher autonomy, motivate teachers (Kaplan & Madjar, 2017), and reduce the rate of teacher turnover. Perhaps, the most effective way for principals to assist teachers is by actively listening to their needs and fostering a welcoming atmosphere in the school. School principals can create a culture of trust and collaboration within the school, where teachers are encouraged to take ownership of their classrooms and be innovative in their teaching methods. In addition, principals can delegate some decision-making power to teachers in areas where they have expertise and knowledge. This could include selecting teaching materials or developing lesson plans. By giving teachers a say in these areas, they can feel more invested in their work and be more motivated to improve student outcomes (Duze & Ogbah, 2013). This involvement allows teachers to express their opinions on issues that affect their jobs which nurtures creativity and rational thinking in teachers (Forner et al., 2020). Teachers who participate in the planning and decision-making process in the school exhibit a strong interest in teaching and typically have stronger plans to continue teaching (Boyd et al., 2011). Principals must have empathy because empathy allows them to understand the teachers' perspectives and be able to relate to them (Schwanke, 2022).

Furthermore, principals can boost teacher autonomy by minimising manipulation and intervention, reducing the use of words like ‘should’ and ‘must’ (Forner et al., 2020), showing an understanding of the teachers' perspectives and feelings, providing clear explanations for assigned duties, and empowering teachers to partake in choosing their tasks and goals (Deci & Ryan, 2011; Deci et al., 2017; Slemp et al., 2018; Sarmah et al., 2022).

While it may not always be feasible to provide complete autonomy in a school environment where teachers are bound to operate within predetermined structures and guidelines set by policymakers, the aforementioned examples demonstrate ways in which principals can optimize the opportunities for autonomy in the everyday functioning of the school.

Competence Support. One thing a school principal can do to support teachers' competency is to provide the required work tools – (necessary materials for effective teaching and learning). The teachers who use instructional materials are more confident, effective, and likely to be more productive (Makwinya, 2021). In very successful schools, efforts are made to enable teachers to succeed. This entails ensuring that they have access to the teaching materials they require, such as textbooks and other learning resources like computers and a good curriculum. They are expected to conduct their work in ways that will help them succeed (Darling-Hammond, 2013). Inadequate instructional materials were found to be one of the factors teachers found demotivating in this study. Without adequate teaching materials, teachers will not be highly effective in the classrooms and the quality of instruction will drop, frustrating teachers and contributing to low academic standards. This study reported that teachers are compelled to teach without the required laboratory equipment, computers, and textbooks. Literature has it that a lack of or inadequate instructional materials contributes to teacher turnover (Loeb et al., 2005). Principals are highly encouraged to support teachers by providing instructional materials required for the effective preparation and execution of their lessons. Where there are limited funds to procure the materials, principals can brainstorm with teachers on how best to improvise some of the most basic materials.

School teachers value and connect with principals who go out of their way to assist instruction by staying informed and demonstrating a commitment to improving the teaching-learning process. Working together with teachers will provide them with the opportunity to communicate their students' needs and this ensures that the best materials and resources are purchased. The state government should prioritise the provision of instructional materials in government-owned (public) secondary schools.

Secondly, professional development programmes are needed to improve teacher competency. Principals can provide opportunities for professional development, where teachers can learn new skills and stay up to date with the latest teaching techniques. This might take the shape of workshops, conferences, seminars, in-service training, or on-the-job training (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010). It can also take the form of peer observations, collaborative work with colleagues, or independent studies. The qualitative results showed that very few teachers attended professional development training. Continuous professional development keeps teachers up to date on the most innovative research-based practices while also strengthening professional unity and collegiality. Lack of continuous teacher professional training leaves teachers stagnated with obsolete ideas and techniques which could negatively impact delivery quality and educational outcomes (Ofojebe & Ezugoh, 2010; Borman & Dowling, 2008).

Principals need to assist teachers in finding related courses, workshops, seminars, or conferences they can attend outside the school or organise in-house knowledge-sharing activities where the inexperienced ones can learn from experienced and more knowledgeable teachers. Principals can go further by approving teachers’ requests to attend these programmes and by permitting travel away from the school where necessary.

Additionally, the Lagos State Ministry of Education can intervene in this regard by organising workshops and seminars to improve teachers' professional knowledge and skills. The conclusions drawn from teachers' perspective in this study is that teachers want leaders that will have a favourable impact on them and are interested in their professional development needs and career growth.

Darling-Hammond (2013) opines that teachers learn more when they can either loop with the same students or stay in the same or similar grade level for a while. When teachers are constantly moved from one class to another every year, it lessens their competence/effectiveness and at the same time act in a way that is rather insulting to them. Giving teachers the opportunity, resources, and connection time with students is crucial to a teacher's effectiveness and success (Darling-Hammond, 2013).

Support for relatedness. The findings related to peer collaboration, which proved to have a considerable effect on teachers' need for relatedness, teacher competency, teacher retention, and effectiveness, are among the most compelling in this study. Teachers in this study described strong bonds existing between them and fellow teachers which kept some of them from leaving the school despite the unfavourable behaviours of the principals. Therefore, activities that foster collaborative learning among teachers should be integrated into the school curriculum as a policy to increase the quality of teaching and strengthen teachers' long-term commitment. Darling-Hammond (2013) thinks that principals should not limit their attention to statistics about test results. There is a need for collaboration around excellent practices based on a solid foundation of trust. Recent research on improvements in student achievement discovers that when teachers work cooperatively in teams and when teams of teachers stick together over

time and develop their collective knowledge and capacity, there is a far significant improvement in student accomplishment in a school. It is one of the key responsibilities of the principals to see that this happens in schools (Darling-Hammond, 2013).

Principals can aid in the facilitation of excellent relationships among teachers by introducing team-building activities in the school and encouraging knowledge sharing among teachers. Employees' need for relatedness is met when they have a sense of belonging to the community and are surrounded by people who care about them and the people they care about (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Principals should take pride in their staff members coming together to celebrate achievements and provide support during challenging times. To promote such initiatives, principals can cultivate an environment of teamwork, empathy, and mutual support. This fosters a culture of success and enables the school to thrive (Schwanke, 2022).

Mentorships can have a great impact on teachers, especially new teachers in terms of making them feel supported. Since new teachers are less experienced, they value a mentor who motivates and promotes collaboration. They require the mentor to support them rather than be critical of them. Principals/mentors must focus on what they are doing well more often than what they are not doing well.

Principals should administer this mentorship programme by carefully selecting teacher mentors and setting aside time for mentors and mentees to meet and collaborate. If implemented properly, these initiatives can help new and experienced teachers form strong bonds that will not only improve their social well-being but also improve new teachers' competency.

Reward and recognition. Reward and recognition are quite important and, in fact, top priorities for Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary school teachers. The qualitative

data has revealed that when teachers feel appreciated, valued, and empowered, there is a higher degree of motivation, lower turnover, and greater school stability. In the same vein, the study found that teachers were demotivated by cantankerous principals who bully and verbally abuse teachers and who fail to recognise that teachers are trusted professionals to be respected. School principals should not limit their attention to statistics about test results. Building trust between and among professionals is important, as is recognising teachers as respected professionals - people who should not be ordered around or yelled at. Teachers should be seen by principals as colleagues who can collaborate and share expertise, as well as professionals looking to advance their careers (Darling-Hammond, 2013).

The study equally unveiled that teachers consider their pay package to be meagre and as a result, they engage in other activities to augment their earnings. It is, therefore, safe to infer that this indiscriminate moonlighting detracts from the time the teachers would have used to do their work and could be a major cause of staff truancy, and absenteeism (Ojedokun & Aladejana, 2012). The result of the study gives credence to the claims of scholars like Uyanne et al. (2020), Dabo & Azi (2016), Egu et al. (2011), and Korb & Akintunde (2013) that the bulk of teachers in Nigeria choose to teach as a primary occupation while waiting for better prospects in other professions.

Given the country's high inflation and ever-increasing commodity costs, it is not unexpected that financial rewards have become more important to teachers than ever before. The State government should in light of the harsh economic realities in the country endeavour to adjust the teachers' salaries to align with the inflationary rates. Teachers take care of their

families and other financial obligations with the salaries they earn. Where the remuneration is insufficient to care for these needs, they will seek 'greener pastures' elsewhere.

Again, schools will have a high chance of keeping their best teachers if salary packages are competitive with other jobs needing equivalent levels of education. "When employees perceive inequity, they experience a feeling of injustice and can decide to leave an organisation" (Kariuki, 2020, p. 199). Teachers will increasingly feel less important about themselves and their position in society as the number of people in the community who view teaching as a low-level job increases (Nwakasi & Cummins, 2018; UNESCO-IICBA, 2017). The onus falls on the State government to make sure that teachers' remuneration is at par with that of their contemporaries in other types of work. Perhaps, this might remove the perception of teachers as 'poor' and consequently, improve their social status. To prevent scenarios where teachers remain on the same salary level for an extended period, the state government must create a fair and transparent policy for the promotion of teachers based on their teaching experience and merit. Principals can equally use non-financial incentives, like appreciation, praise, empowerment, and the opportunity to perform higher responsibilities, as rewards or recognition for better performance. Most importantly, principals and educational administrators should ensure to deliver on all reward promises they make to the teachers.

Heavy Workload. The findings of the study, suggest that many educators in the government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos are encountering a considerable amount of workload. Although teaching is gratifying, it is a difficult and stressful profession that includes duties other than classroom instruction (Jomuad et al., 2021). Having a demanding workload and working long hours make teachers more prone to burnout. In addition to planning

lessons, teachers organise activities, develop curricula, cope with extracurricular activities, oversee classes, come up with innovative ideas, impart knowledge, uphold discipline, cover for other teacher absences and shortages, keep records, manage timetables, evaluate, and assess students' work, and inspire students through their words and deeds (Desouky & Allam, 2017 cited in Jomuad et al., 2021). These tasks can sometimes be overwhelming, especially for inexperienced teachers. When teachers are overworked, they run the risk of neglecting their own mental and physical health requirements if they are not given the right support. Such demanding circumstances often result in teacher burnout. Teachers who are burned out have a crisis that can influence both their academic and social lives, and their ability to teach, manage the classroom, and be productive in general.

A lack of dedication, illness, frustration, absenteeism, impatience, and substandard work performance are just a few indicators of teacher burnout (Jomuad et al., 2021). The issue will not disappear by itself. Burnout affects teachers' attendance, which affects students' academic performance whether it is psychological or physical. More implications are entrenched in extinguishing teacher burnout before it worsens into greater teacher turnover intentions.

Therefore, school administrators should take the initiative and offer the required support to lessen work-related stress through strategies like incorporating contemporary marking procedures to lessen the burden of assessment and encouraging teachers to engage in social activities and games. Policymakers should benchmark teachers' working hours for both teaching and non-teaching activities to the current international labour norms and integrate new technologies to promote automation and reduce repetitive tasks to relieve the stress caused by teachers' workloads. Second, to prevent undue strain on the school's remaining teachers, district

administrators and the state government should not waste time in hiring replacements for teachers who leave abruptly.

Training of Principals. Transformational leadership theory supports the acquisition of leadership behaviours and skills through training (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Thompson & Akudo, 2020). Thus, the Lagos State Government can adopt three strategies to promote transformational leadership in secondary schools. Firstly, it can recruit principals who display transformational leadership behaviours and are capable of developing and implementing behaviours that align with the four dimensions of transformational leadership. Secondly, the government can provide training to current principals on transformational leadership behaviours. Lastly, policymakers should include training on transformational leadership in the curriculum of faculties of education in universities and colleges. If more principals embrace the transformational leadership style, many teachers may become autonomously motivated, leading to lower truancy rates and fewer intentions to leave their jobs, as argued by Gagné et al. (2015).

The study Limitations

Employing a one-time administration of the questionnaire is a primary constraint of the research because one-time administration may not effectively establish causal connections between variables. To investigate causal relationships, a longitudinal approach would be essential. Additionally, the utilisation of self-report questionnaires introduces a potential bias in the quantitative results, as self-reported data is susceptible to participant biases such as selective memory or exaggeration.

Another potential limitation is the exclusive reliance on follower evaluations in the questionnaire data. Including ratings from leaders could enhance the study's depth compared to

data solely derived from followers, offering more comprehensive insights into the investigated phenomenon.

The timing of the questionnaire distribution may have inconvenienced teachers, considering that many schools had recently emerged from the COVID-19 lockdown. The distraction or lack of full attention from teachers while responding to survey items could have influenced the quality of their responses.

Overcoming respondent fear and bias posed a significant limitation in the study. In the study's setting, Lagos State, numerous participants initially hesitated to participate. Those who eventually agreed displayed reluctance towards being recorded, suspecting the study was an effort by their school principals or education authorities to identify and weed teachers critical of school leadership. Convincing them that the study was purely academic, and that recording was crucial for robust data analysis proved to be a time-consuming process. Despite these assurances, lingering concerns may have persisted among some participants.

Furthermore, an additional challenge surfaced when it became evident that some interviewees lacked familiarity with the characteristics of the leadership styles of interest. Consequently, clarifications were provided on these terms by the researcher who encouraged teachers to acquaint themselves with the terms before participating in the interviews. The potential lack of prior understanding posed a risk of influencing participants' responses. To address the challenge, the researcher adopted a cautious approach, refraining from directly mentioning the two concepts during the interviews. Instead, probing questions were employed to ensure clarity when interviewees introduced these concepts during the discussions.

Acknowledging challenges in integrating qualitative and quantitative data sets is essential, given the absence of clear examples illustrating integration, as highlighted by Bryman in 2006. Despite this, the researcher opted for a narrative method to compare the quantitative and qualitative data for convergence.

While the use of pragmatic philosophy allowed flexibility in employing various methods to elucidate details and validate findings, it might also be a limitation. The chosen data collection and analysis methods were based on their perceived efficacy in addressing research questions, potentially hindering replication by other researchers using different philosophical frameworks.

It is essential to consider the contributions of this investigation to the current literature on school leadership taking into account the acknowledged limitations.

Recommendations for future research

Building upon the contextualised findings from Lagos State, the following recommendations for future research are made.

Upcoming researchers should replicate this study in various regions of Nigeria to account for regional variations in educational systems, cultural influences, and economic disparities Consider the unique challenges faced by teachers and school principals specific to each region affect the leadership behaviours of principals of secondary schools, the motivation of teachers as well as the intentions of teachers to leave teaching.

Rather than using the cross-sectional survey employed in this study, future researchers might adopt a longitudinal design for a more accurate establishment of leadership behaviours affecting teacher motivation and turnover.

To gain a comprehensive understanding, research efforts should not only incorporate the perspectives of teachers but also those of school principals working within the specific educational system, grappling with local constraints. Exploring the experiences and challenges faced by principals can significantly enhance the comprehension of the unique influences of leadership styles on the motivation of teachers and on teachers' intent to exit the occupation.

Although the two leadership philosophies that were the subject of this study were transactional and transformational, it is advised that subsequent research focus on each leadership style and its facets to obtain a deeper understanding of how each influences teacher motivation and turnover decisions. Given the revealed significant effect of transformational leadership on teacher motivation and turnover inclinations of teachers in this study, future researchers could examine the effects of individual dimensions of transformational leadership on these variables. Understanding which of these dimensions significantly affects motivation and turnover intentions is essential.

The effect of peer support on the motivation and the turnover intentions of teachers is a significant implication of this research. Future studies should carefully examine how peer collaboration affects teachers' aspirations to leave their jobs in different contexts. It is crucial to look into how much teacher collaboration may reduce turnover and how leadership might help or hinder these kinds of partnerships.

Researchers should also explore conditions that facilitate optimal performance of transactional leaders regarding teacher motivation. Previous studies such as Eğriboyun (2019) and Menghasa (2015) have suggested a link between transactional leadership and motivation, especially in developing economies. Future research should investigate specific conditions under

which transactional leadership is most effective. It is advisable to explore the role of culture as a moderator in the interaction between transactional leadership and employee motivation.

Other researchers can expand the scope of this research beyond Nigeria to encompass other countries by conducting cross-country comparative studies to identify similarities and differences in the interaction between these variables. Future researchers should consider socio-economic factors that may exert a pronounced influence on teacher motivation and turnover, giving due attention to the role of economic disparities and their ramifications for school leadership.

Lastly, it is imperative that future studies evaluate the role that teacher motivation plays in mediating the interaction between leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions. This approach will help to understand the underlying processes and mechanisms through which leadership style influences turnover intentions and ensure that leaders are equipped not only with effective leadership styles but also with the skills to motivate and engage their teams, thereby reducing turnover intentions.

Conclusions

This research tried to find answers to three research questions relating to how leadership practices interact with teacher motivation and teacher turnover decisions, and the effect of teacher motivation on the association between teacher turnover intentions and leadership styles in government-owned (public) secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria. The research was done by gathering survey responses from 472 teachers and interviews with 23 teachers across the six educational districts in Lagos State.

Accordingly, the first major contribution of the present research is that it provides urgently needed empirical evidence on the connection between leadership styles, teacher motivation and teacher turnover in the context of a developing country, emerging from a volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous environment like Nigeria. The study finds that transformational leadership behaviours boost teacher motivation and reduce teacher turnover intentions. The study also reveals that teachers in Lagos State government-owned (public) secondary schools view transactional leadership adversely because it tends to jeopardize the gratification of their three essential needs. Owing to the importance of these needs, people tend to gravitate toward situations that allow them to be met and move away from the circumstances that thwart them (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004).

Importantly, the study shows that teachers' perceptions of supportive leadership can mitigate the negative effects of stress, heavy workloads, student behaviour problems, and low compensation. This underscores the need for principals to take responsibility for motivating and retaining their teachers. By creating a positive school climate and modelling transformational leadership behaviours, principals can help reduce turnover intentions among experienced and qualified teachers in government-owned secondary schools in Lagos State, whereas continued use of transactional leadership could be detrimental to this course. Leadership that stifles the satisfaction of the three essential needs is a potential risk to follower well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Transactional leaders with authoritarian tendencies and strong expertise may be able to drive success during times of organisational change in developing economies, potentially meeting the needs of their subordinates, because employees in developing economies prioritise

monetary rewards. Research suggests that factors such as autonomy, respect, work-life balance, and opportunities for personal and professional growth are also important to them. Moreover, while transactional leaders may bring short-term benefits, such as control and efficiency, their approach can also create an environment of fear and low morale. On the other hand, leaders who adopt a transformative and collaborative approach can foster a culture of trust and shared responsibility, which can lead to increased teacher engagement and creativity, ultimately contributing to the organisation's long-term success.

According to the study's findings, even though teachers may not be satisfied with their pay or the condition of school facilities, they can still be inspired to continue their teaching profession by the transformational leadership abilities of their principals. This suggests that school principals have a responsibility to promote teacher motivation and retain skilled teachers in the school system. Schools that work to create an enabling school climate where principals display transformational leadership behaviours would arguably reduce the turnover intentions of the experienced and qualified teachers in the schools (Dillon & Malick, 2020). Doing so would most probably bring about the desired change everybody is angling for - improvement in the standard of education provided to students at the secondary level. The researcher believes this study is especially timely in the wake of the mass exodus of Nigerians to other countries looking for credible education and a better life.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: UREC Provisional Approval

REAF_DSPA - Version 1.0

UNICAF UNIVERSITY
RESEARCH ETHICS APPLICATION FORM
DOCTORAL STUDIES PROVISIONAL APPROVAL

The Provisional Approval - Research Ethics Application Form (REAF) should be completed by Doctoral level candidates enrolled on Dissertation stage 1.

This form is a **provisional approval** which means that the UREC committee has accepted the initial description of the project but this is conditional as changes may have to be implemented following Dissertation Stage 2 and piloting in Dissertation Stage 3.

This is a conditional offer and acceptance of the project needs to be verified and confirmed upon completion of the Research Ethics Application Form in Dissertation Stage 3.

Important Notes:

- An electronic version of the completed form should be uploaded by the student to the relevant submission link in the VLE. Student's supervisor will then review the form and provide feedback commentary. Once supervisor's initial approval is given then the supervisor will forward this to doctoral.studies-aa@unicaf.org, for provisional approval by the Unicaf University Research Ethics Committee (UREC).
- Please type your answers and **do not** submit paper copy scans. Only *PDF* format documents should be submitted to the committee.
- If you need to supply any supplementary material, not specifically requested by the application form, please do so in a separate file. Any additional document(s) should be clearly labelled and uploaded in the relevant VLE link.
- If you have any queries about the form, please address them to your dissertation or project supervisor.

Appendix B: UREC Final Approval

UNICAF UNIVERSITY

UREC Decision, Version 2.0

Unicaf University Research Ethics Committee
Decision

Student's Name: Theodora Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu

Student's ID #: R1807D5637990

Supervisor's Name: Dr Rachel Monde Kabeta

Program of Study: UU-DOC-900-3-ZM

Offer ID /Group ID: O26687G27463

Dissertation Stage: DS 3

Research Project Title: Accepted: The relationship between Principals' leadership Style and Teacher Motivation
18.04.20 New: EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON TEACHER MOTIVATION AND TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Comments:

Phone Interviews - please add questions related to demographics.

Decision*: B. Approved with comments for minor revision

Date: 02-Sep-2021

*Provisional approval provided at the Dissertation Stage 1, whereas the final approval is provided at the Dissertation stage 3. The student is allowed to proceed to data collection following the final approval.

Appendix C: Permission to Use the BPNSW Scale

LAGOS BUSINESS SCHOOL
PAN-ATLANTIC UNIVERSITY

Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu <ichukwukelu@lbs.edu.ng>

Fwd: Permission to Use the Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction ar Work Scale
2 messages

Ify Chukwukelu <ifychukwukelu@gmail.com> Tue, Jul 27, 2021 at 10:16 PM
To: ichukwukelu@lbs.edu.ng

---------- Forwarded message ---------
From: info <info@selfdetermination@heory.org>
Date: Sat, 24 Jul 2021, 16:32
Subject: Re: Permission to Use the Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction ar Work Scale
To: Ify Chukwukelu <ifychukwukelu@gmail.com>
Cc: info <info@selfdeterminationtheory.org>

On behalf of Dr. Richard Ryan and the Center for Self-Determination Theory, you have our permission to use the SDT scales for your academic (non-commercial) purposes.

To access the SDT scales, go to: https://selfdetermination@heory.org/questionnaires/

You will need to "Register" (even if you've previously registered before) and enter your name and email and accept the terms and conditions.
Next you will need to check "I'm not a robot" and then Register.
If it says your email is already registered, try again and use a different email address or adapt your email address slightly and see if this works.

var/folders/40/8q53yr5x7y3gg/b3cwgwk3lm0000gn T/com.microsoft.Word/WebArchiveCopyPasteTempFiles/cid57J6C187-8B97-4A7A-957C-1AB3C122840A@home

CSDT is a non-profit organization dedicated to providing you with the latest SDT research, practice, and tools. These free resources depend on our members and generosity from friends like you. Consider becoming a CSDT Member or donating today.

Donate to Become a Member

---- On Sat, 24 Jul 2021 04:32:47 -0700 **Ify Chukwukelu <ifychukwukelu@gmail.com>** wrote ----

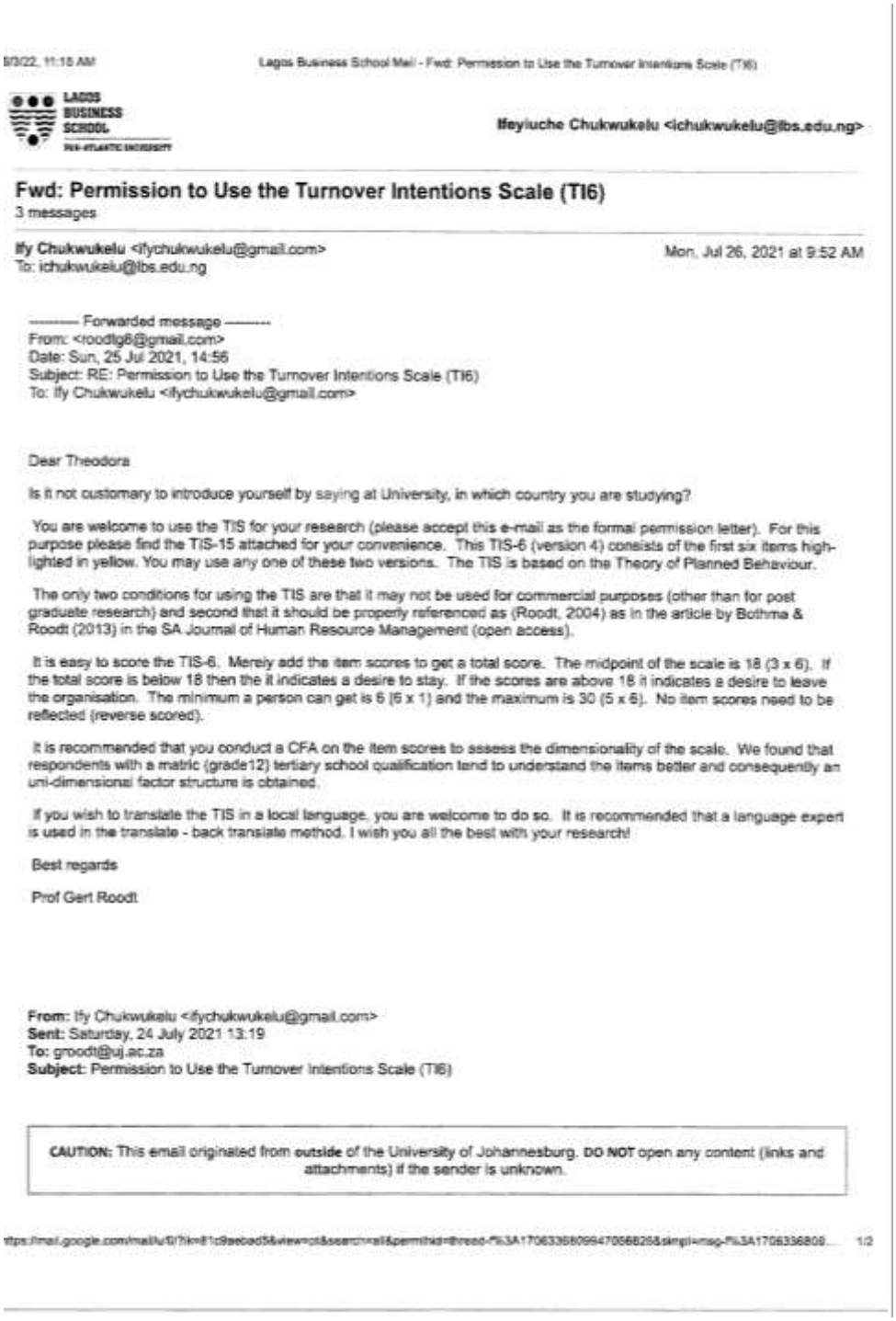
Dear Dr Deci & Dr Ryan,

I trust you are well.

My name is Theodora Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu, a student at Unicaf University, Zambia. I write to request for your permission to use the Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction at Work Scale for my doctoral research titled "Impact of Leadership Styles on Teacher Motivation and Teacher Turnover Intentions".
The purpose of my research is purely academic and there will be no commercial use of the BPNWS.

I look forward to your favourable response.

Appendix D: Permission to Use the Turnover Intention Scale



9/3/22, 11:18 AM Lagos Business School Mail - Fwd: Permission to Use the Turnover Intentions Scale (TI6)

LAGOS BUSINESS SCHOOL

Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu <ichukwukelu@lbs.edu.ng>

Fwd: Permission to Use the Turnover Intentions Scale (TI6)

3 messages

Ify Chukwukelu <ifychukwukelu@gmail.com> Mon, Jul 26, 2021 at 9:52 AM
To: ichukwukelu@lbs.edu.ng

---------- Forwarded message ---------
From: <roodtg6@gmail.com>
Date: Sun, 25 Jul 2021, 14:56
Subject: RE: Permission to Use the Turnover Intentions Scale (TI6)
To: Ify Chukwukelu <ifychukwukelu@gmail.com>

Dear Theodora

Is it not customary to introduce yourself by saying at University, in which country you are studying?

You are welcome to use the TIS for your research (please accept this e-mail as the formal permission letter). For this purpose please find the TIS-15 attached for your convenience. This TIS-6 (version 4) consists of the first six items highlighted in yellow. You may use any one of these two versions. The TIS is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

The only two conditions for using the TIS are that it may not be used for commercial purposes (other than for post graduate research) and second that it should be properly referenced as (Roodt, 2004) as in the article by Bothma & Roodt (2013) in the SA Journal of Human Resource Management (open access).

It is easy to score the TIS-6. Merely add the item scores to get a total score. The midpoint of the scale is 18 (3 x 6). If the total score is below 18 then the it indicates a desire to stay. If the scores are above 18 it indicates a desire to leave the organisation. The minimum a person can get is 6 (6 x 1) and the maximum is 30 (5 x 6). No item scores need to be reflected (reverse scored).

It is recommended that you conduct a CFA on the item scores to assess the dimensionality of the scale. We found that respondents with a matric (grade12) tertiary school qualification tend to understand the items better and consequently an uni-dimensional factor structure is obtained.

If you wish to translate the TIS in a local language, you are welcome to do so. It is recommended that a language expert is used in the translate - back translate method. I wish you all the best with your research!

Best regards

Prof Gert Roodt

From: Ify Chukwukelu <ifychukwukelu@gmail.com>
Sent: Saturday, 24 July 2021 13:19
To: groodt@uj.ac.za
Subject: Permission to Use the Turnover Intentions Scale (TI6)

CAUTION: This email originated from **outside** of the University of Johannesburg. **DO NOT** open any content (links and attachments) if the sender is unknown.

https://mail.google.com/mail/u/0/?ik=81c9aebad5&view=pt&search=all&permthid=thread-f%3A1706336809947056825&simpl=msg-f%3A1706336809... 1/2

Appendix E: Approval from Lagos State Public Service Office for Data Collection

LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

LS/C.530/S.I/532 **27th October, 2021.**

Tutor-General/ Permanent Secretary
Education District I
C/o Dairy Farm Primary Schools Complex
Agege, Lagos.

Tutor-General/Permanent Secretary
Education District II
Maryland Schools Complex
Maryland, Ikeja.

Tutor-General/Permanent Secretary
Education District III
St. George's Primary School
123, Awolowo Road
Falomo
Ikoyi, Lagos.

Tutor-General/Permanent Secretary
Education District IV
Domestic Science Centre
8, McEwen Road
Sabo-Yaba

Tutor-General/Permanent Secretary
Education District V
Agboju Schools' Complex
Agboju- Lagos.

Tutor-General/Permanent Secretary
Education District VI
Ewenla Street
Oshodi-Lagos.

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
RE: EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON TEACHER MOTIVATION AND TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS IN LAGOS, NIGERIA

I have the directive of the Head of Service to introduce **Theodora Ifeyiche Chukwukelu,** a doctoral student at UNICAF University, Zambia.

OFFICE OF THE HEAD OF SERVICE
PUBLIC SERVICE OFFICE

Block 20, The Secretariat, Obafemi Awolowo Way, Ikeja, Lagos, Nigeria. PMB 21530, Ikeja. Tel: 08191478881
E-mail: pso@lagosstate.gov.ng Website: www.lagosstate.gov.ng

2. **Theodora Ifeyiche Chukwukelu** is conducting a Research on **"Examining the Impact of Leadership Styles on Teacher Motivation and Teacher Turnover Intentions"**. The main objective of the Research is to examine the impact of leadership styles on teacher motivation and teacher turnover intentions in Nigeria public secondary schools.

3. On the basis of the foregoing, the Researcher is requesting for permission to gather information/data by administering questionnaires to facilitate the retrieval of relevant and comprehensive data from your Education District. (A copy of the questionnaire is herewith attached, please.)

4. I am to respectfully request that you accord the Researcher all necessary assistance towards the successful implementation of the Research project.

5. Kindly note that **Theodora Ifeyiche Chukwukelu** can be contacted on 07060070529.

6. Thank you.

O.Y. Bakare
For: Permanent Secretary

Appendix F: Informed Consent Form

UNICAF UNIVERSITY

UU_IC - Version 2.1

Informed Consent Form

Part 1: Debriefing of Participants

Student's Name: Theodora Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu

Student's E-mail Address: ifychukwukelu@gmail.com

Student ID #: R- 1807D5637990

Supervisor's Name: Dr Rachael Kabeta

University Campus: Unicaf University Zambia (UUZ)

Program of Study: Doctor of Philosophy

Research Project Title: Examining the Impact of Leadership Styles on Teacher Motivation and Teacher Turnover Intentions

Date: 31-Jul-2021

Provide a short description (purpose, aim and significance) of the research project, and explain why and how you have chosen this person to participate in this research (maximum 150 words).

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship existing between principals leadership styles, teacher motivation and the turnover intentions of secondary school teachers in Nigeria. Specifically, this study will try to ascertain the relationship between principals leadership and teacher motivation based on Self Determination Theory. The study will explore the relationship between principal s leadership styles and teacher turnover intentions. It will also to teacher motivation relates with teacher turnover intentions. Findings of this will help school administrators to understand the complexities and importance of teacher motivation and how teacher motivation affects a teacher s decision to leave a school. This study will help to establish the leadership style that best motivates teachers in Nigeria. The findings of the study could equally help school leaders to adopt leadership behaviours that can foster the right kind of school atmosphere to foster improved teaching and learning and ultimately better student performance in Nigeria.

The above named Student is committed in ensuring participant's voluntarily participation in the research project and guaranteeing there are no potential risks and/or harms to the participants.

Participants have the right to withdraw at any stage (prior or post the completion) of the research without any consequences and without providing any explanation. In these cases, data collected will be deleted.

All data and information collected will be coded and will not be accessible to anyone outside this research. Data described and included in dissemination activities will only refer to coded information ensuring beyond the bounds of possibility participant identification.

I, Theodora Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu, **ensure that all information stated above is true and that all conditions have been met.**

Student's Signature: _____

UU_IC - Version 2.1

Informed Consent Form

Part 2: Certificate of Consent

This section is mandatory and should to be signed by the participant(s)

Student's Name: Theodora Ifeyiuche Chukwukelu

Student's E-mail Address: ifychukwukelu@gmail.com

Student ID #: R- 1807D5637990

Supervisor's Name: Dr Rachael Kabeta

University Campus: Unicaf University Zambia (UUZ)

Program of Study: Doctor of Philosophy

Research Project Title: Examining the Impact of Leadership Styles on Teacher Motivation and Teacher Turnover Intentions

I have read the foregoing information about this study, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss about it. I have received satisfactory answers to all my questions and I have received enough information about this study. I understand that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without giving a reason for withdrawing and without negative consequences. I consent to the use of multimedia (e.g. audio recordings, video recordings) for the purposes of my participation to this study. I understand that my data will remain anonymous and confidential, unless stated otherwise. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Participant's Print name:

Participant's Signature: _____

Date:

If the Participant is illiterate:

I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form to the potential participant, and the individual has had an opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the aforementioned individual has given consent freely.

Witness's Print name:

Witness's Signature: _____

Date:

Appendix G: The Questionnaire

SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Demographic information will be aggregated in the report in order not to identify any individual respondents and will be used only for the purposes of this research.

1. **What is your gender?**

   a. Male

   b. Female

2. **What is your age? Please write your age in years.** .....

3. **What is the highest degree or level of education you have attained? Choose one option.**

   a. Doctorate

   b. Masters

   c. Bachelors

   d. NCE

   e. Diploma

   f. WASC

   g. Others, please specify .....

4. **How long have you been teaching?**

   1. 1 to 5 years
   2. 6 to 10 years
   3. 11 to 15 years
   4. 16 to 20 years
   5. 21 to 25 years
   6. 26 years and above

5. **How long have you been teaching in your current school?**

   1. Less than 1 year
   2. 1 – 5 years
   3. 6 – 10 years
   4. Above 10 years

SECTION 2:

Please read each statement carefully, then rate your current school principal in terms of how frequently he or she engages in the behaviour described.

		Rarely or Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Frequently or Always

1	My principal communicates a clear vision and a picture of the future	1	2	3	4	5
2	My principal inspires and encourages me to perform better.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My principal views me as an individual with different needs, abilities, and aspirations.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My principal challenges me to think about problems in new ways	1	2	3	4	5
5	My principal pays attention to my concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My principal strives to make teachers see the need to work towards a common purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My principal promotes trust, engagement, and cooperation amongst the teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My principal seeks the opinions of the teachers when solving problems	1	2	3	4	5
9	My principal spends time to train and coach the teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
10	My principal is a role model to the teachers.	1	2	3	4	5

		Rarely or Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Frequently or Always
11	My principal sets clear standards of performance.	1	2	3	4	5
12	My principal specifies the tasks each teacher is to achieve.	1	2	3	4	5
13	My principal identifies the rewards teachers will gain if work targets are met.	1	2	3	4	5
14	My principal monitors teachers' performance and keeps track of mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
15	My principal rewards the teachers based on how well they perform their jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
16	My principal pays particular attention to mistakes and failures to meet set standards.	1	2	3	4	5
17	My principal takes steps to deal with poor performing teachers who fail to improve.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3:

When I Am At Work

The following questions concern your feelings about your job during the last year. (If you have been on this job for less than a year, this concerns the entire time you have been at this job.) Please indicate how true each of the following statement is for you given your experiences on this job. Remember that your boss will never know how you responded to the questions. Please use the following scale in responding to the items.

	1 Not at all true	2 Untrue	3 Somewhat untrue	4 Neutral	5 Somewhat true	6 True	7 Very true
1	I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I really like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I do not feel very competent when I am at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	People at work tell me I am good at what I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel pressured at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I get along with people at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I consider the people I work with to be my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I have been able to learn interesting new skills on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	When I am at work, I have to do what I am told.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My feelings are taken into consideration at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	On my job I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	People at work care about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16	There are not many people at work that I am close to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	The people I work with do not seem to like me much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	When I am working, I often do not feel very capable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	People at work are pretty friendly towards me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 4:

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at your current job.
Please read each question and choose a number from 1-5 based on the rating scale that best applies to you and your feelings.

1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	**Never** 1	**Seldom** 2	**Sometimes** 3	**often** 4	**Always** 5
2	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	**Totally dissatisfying** 1	**Slightly satisfying** 2	**Moderately satisfying** 3	**Satisfying** 4	**Very satisfying** 5
3	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	**Never** 1	**Seldom** 2	**Sometimes** 3	**often** 4	**Always** 5
4	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	**Never** 1	**Seldom** 2	**Sometimes** 3	**often** 4	**Always** 5
5	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	**Highly likely** 1	**Likely** 2	**Neutral** 3	**Unlikely** 4	**Highly unlikely** 5
6	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	**Never** 1	**Seldom** 2	**Sometimes** 3	**often** 4	**Always** 5

Thank you for completing the survey!

Appendix H: Initial Interview Questions

Interview Questions - Initial Interview Questions

Demographic questions:

1. Could you please state your gender?
2. Please what is your age?
3. What is the highest degree or level of education you have attained?
4. For how long have you been teaching?
5. How long have you thought under your current principal?

RQ1: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on the motivation of secondary school teachers?

6. How vital is motivation to your job as a teacher?
7. Describe moments in your teaching career when you felt highly motivated?
8. What factors, in your opinion, led to your high motivation during those times?
9. What role do you feel that principal leadership behaviours play in the motivation of the teachers?
10. How would you describe the leadership styles of your current principal?
11. What traits or behaviours do you feel your principal exhibits that increase or reduce teacher motivation?

Research Question 2: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on secondary school teacher turnover intentions?

12. How often have you thought of leaving your job? Why?
13. How satisfying is your job in fulfiling your personal needs?
14. How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?
15. What role do you feel that principal leadership behaviours play in a teacher's desire to leave the school?
16. What traits or behaviours do you feel your principal exhibits that increase or reduce teachers desire to leave the school?

Research Question 3: RQ 3: Does teacher motivation moderate the relationship between teacher turnover intentions and principals' leadership styles?

17. In your opinion, is there a relationship between motivation of teachers, leadership style of principals and the desire of teachers to leave the school?

Appendix I– Modified Interview Questions

Modified Interview questions.

Interview Questions

Demographic questions:

1. Could you please state your gender?
2. Please what is your age?
3. What is the highest degree or level of education you have attained?
4. For how long have you been teaching?
5. How long have you thought under your current principal?

RQ1: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on the motivation of secondary school teachers?

6. How would you describe the leadership style of your school principal?
7. What leadership traits or behaviours of your principal motivate or demotivate you?
8. How does your relationship with other teachers contribute to your motivation in your school?
9. How does your principal encourage cooperation among teachers?
10. To what extent are teachers allowed to decide by themselves how to get their jobs done and make input in other school decisions?
11. How does your principal encourage teachers to improve in their jobs?

Research Question 2: What is the impact of school principals' leadership styles (transformational, transactional) on secondary school teacher turnover intentions?

12. How often have you thought of leaving your school or leaving teaching? Why?
13. How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?
14. Do you feel that a principal's leadership style can affect a teacher's intention to stay or leave a school or the teaching profession?

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between the motivation of teachers, the leadership style of principals, and teacher turnover intentions?

15. In your opinion, is there a relationship between the motivation of teachers, the leadership style of principals, and the desire of teachers to leave the school?