

**ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION
AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN SOME SELECTED PRIVATE
UNIVERSITIES IN SOUTHWEST NIGERIA**

BY

**ADENIJI, Anthonia Adenike
(MATRIC NO.: CU04GP0049)**

JANUARY, 2011

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**A PhD THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULLFILMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF
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DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS STUDIES,
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES,
COVENANT UNIVERSITY, OTA, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.**

JANUARY, 2011

CERTIFICATION

It is certified that this thesis titled “Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction Among Academic Staff in some Selected Private Universities in Southwest Nigeria” is based on original research work carried out by Adeniji, Anthonia Adenike under our supervision and that it has not been submitted for the award of any degree in this or any other University.

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DECLARATION

It is hereby declared that this research work titled **“Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction Among Academic Staff in some Selected Private Universities in Southwest Nigeria”** was undertaken by Adeniji, Anthonia Adenike and is based on her original study in the Department of Business Studies, School of Business, College of Development Studies, Covenant University, Ota, under the supervision of Professor Sola Fajana and Dr.Olufemi Adeyeye. The ideas and views of other researchers have been duly expressed and acknowledged.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to Christ – my Redeemer in whom dwells “the fullness of Godhead bodily” and in whom I am made complete. It is also dedicated to my life coach, God Servant – Bishop David Olaniyi Oyedepo and his amiable wife, Pastor (Mrs.) Faith Abiola Oyedepo both of whom have shown me the path of life.

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Adeniji, Anthonia Adenike
January, 2011

ABSTRACT

This study attempts to establish the relationships that exist between the different variables of organizational climate and job satisfaction among academic staff in some selected private Universities in South-West Nigeria. It also sets to ascertain if those related factors in organizational climate can cause satisfaction among academics thereby impacting on their academic excellence; and to determine if there are differences in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate. A total of 384 copies of questionnaires were administered to selected five (5) private Universities in the South-West Zone of Nigeria but a total of 293 questionnaires were returned fully and appropriately filled. The study made use of both descriptive and inferential statistics such as frequencies, means, and standard deviation, including Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Regression and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to obtain results. The results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in Southwest Nigeria at $F= 453.524$, $df= 292$, significant at 0.000 and at a correlation of 0.671, also significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed) . That the climates of an organization and job satisfaction vary together. Not only that, in the overall analysis that was done on the perception in the way junior and senior academics experience their organizational climate, it was found that there is a significant difference in the way both the senior and junior academics experience their organizational climate at $F= 430.768$. Further study research was recommended in comparative study on private and public University academics to view their perception of organizational climate in relation to their job satisfaction.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In both developed and most developing countries, there have been several job satisfaction studies of which very few of them have been focused on the job satisfaction of the university teachers in relation to their organizational climate. Similarly, earlier work revealed that most of these relevant studies were focused on Universities in United Kingdom and available researches were reported in the last two decades (Nicholson & Miljus, 1992; Gruneberg, et al 1976 and Gruneberg and Startup, 1978). Worthy of note is that none of these researches have focused on organizational climate and job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the university teachers. Infact, from 1996 till date, the work of Oshagbemi focused on UK and Malaysia University teachers (Oshagbemi, 1996; Oshagbemi, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1998; Oshagbemi 1999 & Oshagbemi, 2000).

Despite this scattered efforts on job satisfaction among academic staff in the UK and Malaysia, there is a dearth of research on the subject interest in Nigeria, importantly in relation to their organizational climate, hence, why this study is considered necessary at this time.

Organizations that have goals to achieve would require satisfied and happy staff in her workforce, (Oshagbemi, 2000). Importantly is the fact that for any university to take off and achieve its strategic goals would strongly depend on her capacity to attract, retain and maintain competent and satisfied staff into its employment. The university being an institution of higher learning that provides manpower needs to advance national development through both the public and private sector must itself be capable of ensuring adequate manpower planning and development she could therefore not afford to neglect need and essentials of workforce satisfaction. The Nigerian universities could be classified according to their years of establishment thus: first, second, third and fourth generation universities. The first generation universities are the universities established in the country before the 1970's. The second-generation universities are those universities established in the 1970's. The third generation universities are those universities established either by the federal or state governments in the 1980's and 1990's, while the fourth generation universities are those

universities established in the late 1990's and 2000's mainly by private individuals or organizations (Gberevbie, 2006). Universities whether private or public are training grounds for students doing the comprehensive courses in order to translate theory into practice. They conduct training in all kinds of programmes or disciplines. Both government and private sectors fund public and private universities respectively.

Against this background, University lecturers are currently facing many challenges in form of inadequate infrastructure, lack of enabling research environment, disparity in salary and allowances, inconsistent policy implementation between Federal and State governments may well affect their levels of job satisfaction (Kniveton, 1991). Infact some of these academics again are of the opinion that communication and decision-making problems exist in their institutions because the superiors take certain decisions without involving them which in turn creates additional negative work environment.

In addition to the above, the researcher also observed that unhappiness results from academics' job structure and compensation ranging from lack of feedback regarding personnel evaluation reports, management emphasis on particular administrative style, workload, lack of support from superior in terms of mentoring to salary package which further increased job dissatisfaction among employees.

The above raises concern regarding the attitudes of educators towards their work and their levels of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Steyn and Van Wyk, 1999).

An earlier study by Kestetner (1994) showed that almost half of new educators leave the field during the first five years of their employment. This is expected to be of great concern to all employees because unhappy and dissatisfied employees may translate into poor performance and high staff turnover.

The nature of organizational climate differs from one university to the other. Organizational climate serves as a measure of individual perceptions or feelings about an organization. Organizational climate includes management or leadership styles, participation in decision making, provision of challenging jobs to employees, reduction of boredom and frustration, provision of benefits, personnel policies, provision of good working conditions and creation of suitable career ladder for academics (Nicholson and Miljus, 1992). All of these are seen as frustrating factors to academics from the results of the study.

Based on the researcher's observations and interactions with members of the academic staff during the pilot study academics in selected private universities (i.e. the fourth generation universities) in the Southwest Nigeria indicate that there were some forms of dissatisfaction. They view their organizational climate with mixed feelings as characterized by; (a)Unchallenging jobs; (b)Shortage of personnel where lecturers are expected to perform responsibilities, which were supposed to be performed by other employees; © Lack of feedback about performance and evaluation exercise; (d) Lack of recognition for work done well through merit or announcements in meetings; (e) Lack of material resources and basic infrastructure that make work environment difficult for employees to carry out duties; (f) Poor communication where there is no two-way communication between managers and subordinates; and (g) Lack of staff development activities which prevent personnel from being equipped with knowledge and skill that they need in order to provide quality service.

Job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted concept, which can mean different things to different people. It is more of an attitude, in internal state. It could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative (Mullins, 1999). He examines job satisfaction (1) in terms of the fit between what the organization requires and what the employee is seeking and (2) in terms of the fit between what employees is seeking and what he/she is actually receiving. He emphasized that the level of job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables relating to (1) individual (i.e. personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age, marital status and orientation to work); (2) social factors (i.e. relationship with co-workers, group working and norms and opportunity for interaction); (3) cultural factors (i.e. attitudes, beliefs and values); (4) organizational factors (i.e. nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, employee relations, nature of the work, supervision and styles of leadership, management systems and working conditions); and (5) environmental factors (i.e. economic, social, technical and governmental influences). Sweeny and Mcfarln (2002) defined job satisfaction as the result of a psychological comparison process of the extent to which various aspects of their job (e.g. pay, autonomy, work load) measure up to what they desire. Thus, the larger the gap between what employees have and what they want from their jobs, the less satisfied they are; (employees tend to be most satisfied with their jobs when what they have matches what they want.

An employee's overall job satisfaction is the cumulative result of comparisons that she makes between what her job provides and what she desires in various areas. The fact that perceived importance makes such a big difference in how employees feel also has implications for management.

Obisi, (2003), listed factors that contribute to job satisfaction as; adequate salary, good working conditions, parental management, job security, opportunity for growth, positive and supportive environment, friendly nature of co-workers and colleagues responsibility and cordial relationship between the superior and the subordinates. Therefore, we can conclude that job satisfaction is a person's evaluation of his or her job and work context.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

The evolving competition in the higher education environment in Nigeria evident from the increasing number of new universities has called for good organizational climate that would allow these universities to retain their best hands. Though, university is universal, meaning lecturers are also mobile managers who must move to create employment for younger ones, yet, efforts should be made to encourage senior ones to reproduce themselves for national development. Reports by the NUC (2008) revealed that while universities are increasing, the number of qualified teachers is not increasing proportionately.

Thus, there had been constant mobility of these highly skilled persons from one university to another. Movement from federal and state universities to private universities is one and from federal to state and state to either federal or private are some of other forms. However the critical is the fact that it had been established that some of these lecturers hardly stay for long in such university before moving again,(Startup, Gruneberg and Tapfield, 1975). This mobility has been tagged as "brain drain".

Therefore, one of the reasons that informed this study has to do with the unique importance of organizational climate in relation to the job satisfaction among academics in the Universities which affect the realization of these institutions' vision. In so far as competent academics are necessary for academic performances, there is the need therefore to find out and examine the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among

academics. This is necessary to identify how best to retain faculty in the University employment and prevent constant mobility known as brain drain.

Gunter and Furnham (1996) state that organizational climate can directly cause work outcomes that are either positive or negative. Positive work incentives are incentives that make work interesting, e.g.; attractive work environment, good personnel policies, provision of benefits, job structure and compensation. Enabling work environment leads to motivation, good personnel policies, favourable work environment, provision of benefits, job satisfaction and compensation. However, negative work incentives include those incentives that make work boring, unchallenging and dissatisfying. They lead to increased absenteeism, turnover and accidents.

Thus to prevent these negative work outcomes, there is a need to find out which factors within the organizational climate can lead to satisfaction among academics so as to continually have productive, satisfied and contented academics.

However, it is important to point out that the researcher is not unaware of the fact that factors like clear lines of communication, adequate reward system and promotional opportunities could also encourage or discourage both positive and negative work outcomes which if not adequately put in place could result in turnover of these academics. Comparative studies of this nature would afford the researcher the opportunity to identify variations in job satisfaction of academics and their impact on academic excellence.

A number of factors had been identified in literature as responsible for the extent to which dissatisfaction is associated with faculty job structure and compensation. The impact of these factors varied and are quite associated with faculty beliefs, management of factors and tolerance levels (Delery and Doty, 2006; Doty, Glick and Huber, 2003). These factors which could enhance or impede academics work performance include top management emphasis on administrative style, work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors.

Moreover, job satisfaction is relevant to the physical and mental well being of employees, i.e. job satisfaction has relevance for human health (Oshagbemi, 1999). An understanding of the factors involved in job satisfaction is relevant to improve the well being of a significant number of people. While the pursuit of the improvement of satisfaction is of humanitarian value, Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) stated that “trite” as it may seem, satisfaction is a legitimate goal in itself”. Therefore, apart from its humanitarian utility, it appears to make

economic sense to consider whether and how job satisfaction can be improved. Hence, the needs to identify variables within the organizational climate that can help improve the job satisfaction of academic staff working in the selected private Universities in South-west Nigeria.

Most of the previous studies have made attempt to explain a worker's job satisfaction as a function of the individual's personal characteristics and the characteristics of the job itself. Variables such as age, gender, marital and parental status, educational status, hours of work and earning figures were identified as key factors that determine job satisfaction of university teachers. Gender level in the organization and educational status are often included as individual characteristics in studies of job satisfaction, but no conclusive findings with regard to the levels of satisfaction between the junior and the senior academics have been found (Fields and Blum, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1999; Oshagbemi, 2000; Klecker and Loadman, 1999).

In general, these demographic variables have significant impact on job satisfaction. Moreover, the existing literature shows that the junior academics' are more satisfied with their jobs than the senior academics, as reflecting junior academics lower expectation from their job (Oshagbemi, 2000).

Since the majority of researches on job satisfaction of academics had been undertaken in the UK and Malaysia, the extent to which research findings in these countries can be applied to Nigerian Universities (particularly the private institutions) remained unestablished.

Based on the above information, universities (private) organizational climate also have both positive and negative work outcomes that could influence the behaviour of employees within the organization. Universities are characterized by a shortage of staff which results in work overload and thus lecturers are expected to undertake certain administrative works to cover all the works that are supposed to be done. Other factors that appear to affect effective functioning of organizations include management and leadership styles, non-academic duties, unclear rules and regulations in the personnel policies, excessive work load, poor communication with supervisor cum unclear lines of communication, boredom and frustration resulting from lack of support from the superior, suitable career ladder, unchallenging jobs and inadequate fringe benefits as expected in the working condition (Marriner- Tomey, 1996). Therefore, this study hopes to establish the relationships that exist

between the different variables of organizational climate and job satisfaction among academic staff in some selected private universities in Southwest Nigeria.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study is to identify elements within the Organizational Climate that could cause satisfaction among academic staff in selected private universities in the Southwest zone of Nigeria and to provide guidelines for improving the situation. The main objective of this study is to determine factors in the organizational climate that would result in job satisfaction among academic staff in selected private universities in Southwest Nigeria.

The specific objectives are therefore listed below;

1. To find out the relationship that exists between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in Southwest Nigeria.
2. To identify factors that determines job satisfaction of academics and their consequential effects on academic excellence.
3. To determine whether faculty leaving a university is based on being not satisfied with workload, feedback about performance and inadequate salary package expectation.
4. To identify interactional organizational climate variables that can cause job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among academics.
5. To determine whether there is a difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive their organizational climate.

1.4 Research Questions

The major research questions are;

1. What would be the significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in Southwest Nigeria?
2. What are the factors that would determine job satisfaction of academics and their impact on academic excellence?
3. Do faculty leave a university based on dissatisfaction with the workload, feedback processes and support from superiors that would adversely affect University functioning?

4. What type of organizational climate that includes boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making would enhance positive work outcomes?
5. Would there be any difference in the way senior and junior academics experience organizational climate that could negatively impact on them?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

To provide answers to the research questions, the following hypotheses are tested in this study:

Hypothesis One.

There would be no positive significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in southwest Nigeria.

Hypothesis Two.

Factors like clear lines of communication, payment/ salary package and promotional opportunities would not contribute to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis Three.

Faculty leaving a University based on dissatisfactory level of organizational climate cannot be significantly described by work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors.

Hypothesis Four.

Organizational climate consists of participation in decision making, boredom and frustration, personnel policies and working conditions which would not significantly encourage job satisfaction among academic staff in private University.

Hypothesis Five.

There would be no positive significant difference in the way senior and junior academics perceive their organizational climate.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The focus of this study is centered on academic staff in some selected private universities within the Southwest zone of Nigeria. The main objective is to determine factors in the organizational climate that would cause job satisfaction among academic staff. The study is

important as it will highlight the factors that university lecturers view as enhancing job satisfaction within their organizational climate. The management of schools will find the research helpful in improving staff morale and bringing about job satisfaction of their employees. An educator who achieves success in his or her job and whose needs are met in the work place would be a happy employee that would strive to maintain excellence. In addition, the study will recommend adoptable policies and strategies for mitigating organizational correlates of job dissatisfaction.

1.7 Research Methodology

Survey method was used mainly through questionnaire to collect the data needed to analyze the problems of this study. Majority of the questions used were adapted from a job satisfaction questionnaire by Lee (1987) but with little modifications to suit the research at hand. A pilot study was conducted on the questionnaire to establish the adequacy and reliability of the instrument in wording, content, question sequencing and bias (refer to pages 63-64 for detailed method). Respondents were requested to respond to questions in the self administered and structured questionnaire. Questionnaire according to Polit and Hungler (1991) is a method of gathering self-report information from respondents through administration of questions in a pencil and paper format. Treece and Treece (1986) submitted that questionnaire facilitates gathering of data from a widely scattered sample.

The researcher utilized one structured questionnaire for both the senior academics and junior academics. This was presented personally to all respondents by the researcher in the sampled universities. This was to enhance uniformity of responses bearing in mind the degree of variations in perception of what the organizational climate may be referred to by the academics.

1.8 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This research focused on job satisfaction that could arise as a result of improved organizational climate. The research was conducted in (5) five selected private universities within southwest Nigeria. Improved organizational climate can have an impact on employees' job satisfaction, which in turn could lead to an increase of productivity among employees. The study concentrated on finding out the causes of satisfaction among

academics (senior and lower level academics) and determine whether there is a difference in the way the senior academics and the junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate. Recommendations were made on how to improve the organizational climate in order to facilitate greater job satisfaction and decrease job dissatisfaction among the participants.

The limitations of the study are;

- The study was limited to five selected Private Universities within the Southwest Nigeria implying the results obtained may not be generalized to other universities that were not included in the study.
- Junior participants may not feel free to express their perceptions concerning the organizational climate because they will not want to jeopardize their relationships with their seniors.

Nevertheless, in spite of these limitations, generalization can only be limited to private universities within the Southwest only.

1.9 Operationalization of Variables

The research work is based on two major constructs, namely organizational climate and job satisfaction, that is,

$$Y = f(X)$$

Where Y = Job Satisfaction.

X = Organizational Climate

This implies that job satisfaction is a function of organizational climate. Evidence from literature, including the work of Litwin and Stringer, (1960) described organization climate as an individual's direct or indirect perception of the work environment which embodies characteristics such as structure of organization, responsibility line, reward system, risk management, warranty, support, standards, conflict and identity in the organization. In a similar vein, job satisfaction emphasized work itself, payment mechanism, promotional opportunities, supervision and co-workers (Smith, et al, 1969).

However, the work of these scholars along with others represents the platform used for the selection of both dependent (Y) and independent (X) variables used in the study.

Consequently job satisfaction was designed as the ‘x’ constructs while, organizational climate is represented by ‘y’ construct, see diagram.

However, Job satisfaction can be operationalized into indicators and variables as;

$$Y = y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, y_5, y_6, y_7, \dots, n$$

Where y_1 = Appropriate administrative style.

y_2 = Support from superiors/ supervisors.

y_3 = Work load of staff.

y_4 = Feedback about performance.

y_5 = Co-workers and Clear lines of communication.

y_6 = Payment and Salary package.

y_7 = Promotional opportunities.

Furthermore, organizational climate is measured with indicators and variables given as follows:

$$X = x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, \dots, n$$

Where x_1 = Structure of Organization.

x_2 = Participatory decision making process.

x_3 = Challenging jobs.

x_4 = Boredom and frustration.

x_5 = Fringe benefits.

x_6 = Personnel policies.

x_7 = Working conditions.

x_8 = Suitable career ladder.

x_9 = Risk and Warranty.

The various indicators of satisfaction parameter in work place and organizational climate from the works of scholars such as Steers, R.M (1981), Smith et al (1969), Kestetner, (1994) and Oshagbemi, (2000) were incorporated into a “job climate model” shown below.

Model Specification.

Model Element 1: Explained the relationship of the two main constructs of the study-organizational climate and level of job satisfaction which subsequently give definition to Hypothesis One in the model.

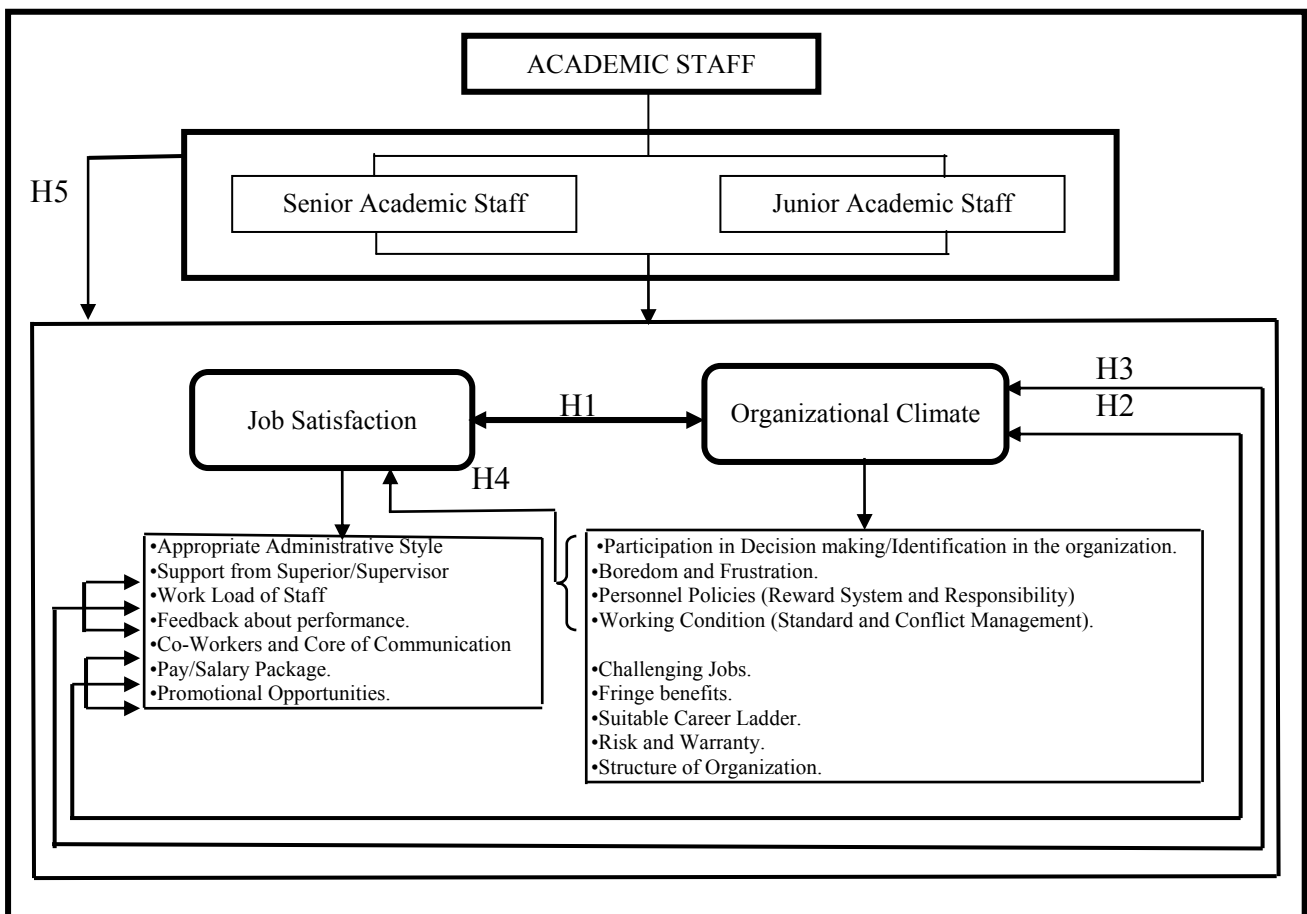
Model Element 2: Determination of the relationship between the variables of job satisfaction: impact of co-workers and line of communication, payment/ salary package, promotional opportunities and the variables of organizational climate of selected universities.

Model Element 3: Examined the level of association between the organizational climate and job satisfaction variables of workload of staff, feedback process and support from superiors and supervisors.

Model Element 4: Explained how interactional organizational variables (participation in decision making and identity in the organization, boredom and frustration, personnel policies and working condition) impact negatively on job satisfaction and work outcome in sample study.

Model Element 5: Represents a comparative analysis of both junior and senior respondents on their experience within specific organization from which sample was chosen.

1.10: The Conceptual Model of Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction



Source: Designed by the Researcher.

Organizational climate and job satisfaction model shown in figure 1.1 above embraces all the factors of Organisational climate and Job satisfaction outlined in the operationalisation of concept.

The model represents the five hypotheses tested for in this study.

It explains how organizational climate affects academics (both junior and senior) in the selected private universities (H₅). This tests whether there would be any differences in the way senior and junior academics experience organizational climate that could negatively impact on them.

Hypothesis Four (H₄) identified types of interactional organizational climate variables that could enhance positive work outcomes while Hypothesis Three (H₃) explains how the factors listed in the box, that is administrative style, workload, support from superior and feedback about performance could determine the proportion of faculty leaving the university if dissatisfied with them which could adversely affect university functioning.

However, Hypothesis Two (H₂) depicts the relationships between the variables in the box (clear lines of communication, salary package and promotional opportunities) and how these could contribute to job satisfaction; while Hypothesis One (H₁) represents possible positive relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in the selected private universities.

The model conceived organizational climate as having effects on academics which subsequently affect their job satisfaction.

1.11 Structure of the work

The thesis is made up of five (5) chapters.

In the First Chapter of this research work, the background to the study and the rationale were provided. Explanations of the research problems, aims and objectives of the research, definition of concepts, operationalization of the research topic and the whole research process are also presented.

Literature is reviewed in Chapter Two with the Theoretical Framework explained. The purpose is to produce a conceptual background against which the study of the problem was expatiated. Therefore, relevant literatures were reviewed about organizational climate, job

satisfaction, job dissatisfaction and strategies that could be utilized to improve the organizational climate in private institutions.

The Third Chapter focused on the description of how the survey instrument (a questionnaire) was developed, pilot tested and implemented. Also, research methodology e.g. research design, population and sample, data collection, analysis and presentation were discussed.

Data analyses and discussion of research findings are the focus of Chapter Four and in the Final Chapter, Conclusions from the results in chapter four are presented. Recommendations based on the research findings and a workable plan of action is the concern in the latter part of the chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a literature review on organizational climate and how organizational climate can influence the behaviour of employees within the workplace is made. Hence, the chapter intends to find out whether organizational climate can lead to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction and show how managers can create an environment that will promote job satisfaction and motivation as well as achievement of organizational goals and objectives. This chapter also discusses factors that contribute to job satisfaction and describe how these factors affect the behaviour and work performance of employees (academic staff).

2.2 Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a key factor in productivity (Oshagbemi, 2000). However, job satisfaction is certainly not the only factor that causes people to produce at different rates (Daniels, 2001). One major reason for the continuing interest in job satisfaction, as Wilson and Rosenfeld (1990) pointed out is that, positive and negative attitudes towards work may exert powerful effects on many forms of organizational behaviour. Relevant research data have demonstrated the importance of job satisfaction in an organization, especially, in terms of its efficiency, productivity, employee relations, absenteeism and turnover (Baron, 1996, Maghradi, 1999 and Fajana 2001).

In addition to being influenced by the level of satisfaction, performance is affected by a worker's ability as well as a number of situational and environmental factors such as mechanical breakdowns, low quality materials, inadequate supply of materials, availability of stocks and market forces (Boro, et al). Nevertheless, in the case of lower-level jobs where little ability is required, job satisfaction seems to be one of the key determinants of performance (Cockburn& Perry, 2004; Boro, et al 2001). Therefore, job satisfaction is very important in an organization because if employees are not satisfied, their work performance, productivity, commitment as well as the interpersonal relationships among the management and their subordinates tend to be lowered. For instance, in an organization where work

performance is not recognized through promotion and salary increases, productivity of employees tends to be lowered (Fajana, 1996).

In an effort to satisfy the needs of employees, many managers make use of incentive programmes, despite the fact that research has consistently confirmed that no amount of money will translate into sustainable levels of job satisfaction or motivation (Toloposky, 2000). Fajana (2002) in his work identified a long range of factors combined to affect individual's level of satisfaction. These include, supervision or leadership (concern for people, task, participation), job design (scope, depth, interest, perceived value), working conditions, social relationships, perceived long range opportunities, perceived opportunities elsewhere, levels of aspiration and need achievement.

However, it is not easy to determine if employees experience job satisfaction. Cockburn and Haydn (2004) suggest that the main problem might be that employees within organizations do not discuss the level of their job satisfaction, nor do they admit that their jobs might not be satisfying. Hence, managers also find it difficult to determine whether job satisfaction is experienced in the workplace. Cockburn and Haydn (2004) further contend that some employees might not even notice that they have a job satisfaction problem. Weallens (2000) suggest that most employees know when they have a satisfaction problem. A number of employees may feel that acknowledging the existence of satisfaction is tantamount to admitting failure. This conclusion serves to highlight the fact that it may be difficult to uncover the issues related to job satisfaction or the establishment of job satisfaction levels in an organization. Hence, the need for scientific studies (Carrel, Elbert, Hartfied, Grobler, Marx and Vander Schyft, 1998).

Herberg's two- factor theory forms the theoretical framework on which the study is based. Hence, it is necessary to stipulate that this theorist does not see satisfaction and dissatisfaction as direct opposites.

2.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg's Two-Factor theory was used as a framework for this study. Herzberg's two-factor theory is concerned with factors that are responsible for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. His two factor theory was derived from Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of

needs. He conducted a widely reported motivational study following Maslow's model using 203 Accountants and Engineers employed by firms in and around Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA which he tagged "what do people want from their jobs?" Herzberg (1967) argued that an individual's relation to his work is a basic one and that his attitude to his work can determine his success or failure. Subjects were asked to relate times when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad with their present job or any previous job. Responses to the interviews were generally consistent and revealed that there were two different sets of factors affecting motivation and work. This led to the two-factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction. He categorized the responses and reported that people who felt good about their jobs were different significantly from those who felt bad. Certain characteristics that tend to relate to job satisfaction are achievement, recognition, the work itself, advancement, responsibility and growth; while others that tend to relate to job dissatisfactions are supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions and interpersonal relations (Robbins1988).

Herzberg believed that two separate dimensions contribute to an employee's behaviour at work. Number one dimension is the **hygiene factors** that involve the presence or absence of job dissatisfaction. These factors are related to job content; they are concerned with job environment and extrinsic to the job itself. They are also known as maintenance factors. They serve to prevent dissatisfaction. These factors include salary/pay, interpersonal relations with supervisors, peer and subordinates, working conditions, company policy and administration, status, security, personal life and supervision. If these factors are poor, work is dissatisfying. When there are good hygiene factors, dissatisfaction is removed. Good hygiene factors simply remove the dissatisfaction and do not cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work. They are needed to avoid unpleasantness at work and to deny unfair treatment.

The second dimension of factors is **motivating factors**. They are the variables, which actually motivate people and influence job satisfaction (Judge, et al 2001 and Luthans, 2002). Motivators are high-level needs and they include aspects such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement or opportunity for growth. When these are absent, workers are neutral toward work but when present, workers are highly motivated and satisfied. These two dimensions of factors influence motivation. They are factors that induce

satisfaction on the job and those causing no satisfaction. Hygiene factors concentrate only in the area of job dissatisfaction, while motivators focus on job satisfaction- for instance; interpersonal conflicts will cause people to be dissatisfied and the resolution of interpersonal conflicts will not lead to a high level of motivation and dissatisfaction; wherea, motivators such as challenging assignments and recognition must be in place before employees will be highly motivated to excel at their workplace (Daft, 2000: 540). Herzberg emphasized the importance of job centred factors that increased interest in job enrichment including effort to design jobs which would increase employees' satisfaction.

In addition, Morrison (1993) argued that there are other motivators that do not promote a sense of growth because they do not provide significant meaning to the worker. These include group feelings, job security, status, feelings about fairness, unfairness, pride and shame. Based on the above findings, the researcher's observation in the workplace is that the mentioned factors are important to employees. Employees do raise dissatisfaction if the organization does not provide job security, status and when unfairness is exhibited.

Moreover, Herzberg discovered that intrinsic factors such as achievement, responsibility, recognising the work itself and advancement seem to be related to job satisfaction. On the other hand, when employees are not satisfied, they tend to cite extrinsic factors such as work conditions, interpersonal relations, company policy and administration and supervision as reasons for their not being satisfied. According to Herzberg, satisfaction is not the absence of dissatisfaction because removing dissatisfying characteristics from the job does not necessarily make the job more satisfying. He further argued that the opposite of "satisfaction" is "no satisfaction" and the opposite of "dissatisfaction is "no dissatisfaction" (Robbins, 1988).

2.3.1 Job Satisfaction

There are few, if any, concepts more central to industrial / organizational psychology than job satisfaction. In this century, the advent of the human relations movement is credited with emphasizing the importance of workplace attitudes. Indeed, the pioneers of the movement – Likert (1967), Maslow (1970), McGregor (1966) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) are credited with raising the field's consciousness with respect to workplace morale. Hoppock's (1935) landmark book roughly coincided with the Hawthorne studies that were the origin of

the human relations movement. Hoppock's opening to his book aptly describes the emphasis that scholars of the time placed on Job satisfaction, "whether or not one finds his employment sufficiently satisfactory to continue in it ... is a matter of the first importance to employer and employee" (p.5).

However, from this auspicious beginning, the job satisfaction literature has had its ebbs and flows.

The concept of job satisfaction has been widely defined by different people. Locke, (1976) specified that job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences.

Spector (1997) refined the definition of job satisfaction to constitute an attitudinal variable that measures how a person feels about his or her job, including different facets of the job.

Rice, et al (1991) defined job satisfaction as an overall feeling about ones job or career in terms of specific facets of job or careers (e.g. compensation, autonomy, coworkers). It can be related to specific outcomes, for example, productivity. Many studies on the determinants of job satisfaction in higher educational institutions in the developed world are available (Hickson and Oshagbemi, 1999; Brewer and McMahan- Landers, 2003 and Turrel, Price and Joyner, 2008). However, in developing countries such as Nigeria, efforts in this direction are scarce. Examples of investigated jobs are: Satisfaction among heads of post-primary institutions in Delta state, Nigeria (Whawho, 2008; Edem and Lawal, 2006).

Job satisfaction means the contentment of the servers because of their jobs. It is the personal evaluation of the job conditions (the job itself, the attitude of the administration etc.) or the consequences or (wages, occupational security etc.) acquired from the job (Fletcher and Williams, 2006). According to another definition, job satisfaction is the phenomenon ascertaining the contentment of the server and appearing when the qualifications of the job and the demands of the servers match (Reichers, 2006). In line with these definitions, job satisfaction might be handled as the consequence resulting from the comparison between the expectations of the server from his job and the job in question which is performed. The consequence may emerge as satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the server from the job.

When the server sees that his expectations are not met in the job environment, the job dissatisfaction emerges. It leads to the decrease in the workforce productivity, organizational commitment and commitment to the job and increase in the rates of the optional

discontinuation of the job (Santhapparaj,Srini and Ling, 2005; Payne and Morrison, 2002; Redfern,2005 and Denizer,2008; Gellatly, 2005; Sagie, 2002). Besides, the medical conditions of the employees might be affected negatively. Lower job satisfaction in the servers has been observed to bring about neurotic (insomnia and headache) and emotional negativeness (stress, disappointment) (Denizer, 2008).

Nevertheless, the best proof to the deterioration of the works is the lower job satisfaction. It causes secretly deceleration of the works, job success and job productivity and increases in the workforce turnover (Iverson and Deery, 2007; Lum, 2006), occupational accidents and complaints.

Job satisfaction can be described as one's feelings or state of mind regarding the nature of the work. Job satisfaction can be influenced by a variety of factors such as the quality of the academics' relationships with their supervisors, the quality of the physical environment in which they work and the degree of fulfillment in their work (Lambert, Pasupuleti, Cluse-Tolar and Jennings, 2008).

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of ones job or job experiences. Worthy of note in this definition by Locke is the use of both cognition (appraisal) and affect (emotional state). Thus, Locke assumes that job satisfaction results from the interplay of cognition and affect, or thoughts and feelings. Recently, some organizational scholars have questioned this view, arguing that typical measures of job satisfaction are more cognitive than affective in orientation - for instance, Organ & Near (1985). Brief (1998) comments that organizational scientists often have been tapping the cognitive dimension while slighting or even excluding the affective one. In support of this argument, Brief and Roberson (1999) found that a purported measure of work cognitions correlated more strongly with job satisfaction than did positive and negative affectivity. The limitation with this study exposes the problem with the argument – it seems likely that job beliefs (cognitions) are as influenced by affect as is job satisfaction itself. Indeed, Brief and Roberson's results show that positive affectivity correlated more strongly with their purported measure of cognitions than it did with job satisfaction itself. A recent study by Weiss, Nicholas and Daus, (1999) revealed that when cognitions about the job and

mood were used to predict job satisfaction in the same equation, both were strongly related to job satisfaction and the relative effects were exactly the same.

Thus, in evaluating our jobs, both cognition and affect appear to be involved. When we think about our jobs, we have feelings about what we think. When we have feelings while at work, we think about these feelings. Cognition and affect are thus closely related in our psychology and our psychobiology. This is because when individuals perform specific mental operations, a reciprocal relationship exists between cerebral areas specialized for processing emotions and those specific for cognitive processes (Drevets and Raichle, 1998). There are cognitive theories of emotion (Reisenzein & Schoenpflug, 1992) and emotional theories of cognition (Smith – Lovin 1991).

Most scholars recognize that job satisfaction is a global concept that also comprises various facets. The most typical categorization of facets; Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) considers five: pay, promotions, coworkers, supervision and the work itself. Locke (1976) adds a few other facets: recognition, working conditions and company and management. Fajana(2002) refers to job satisfaction as the general job attitudes of employees. He divided job satisfaction into five major components as including; attitude toward work group, general working conditions, attitudes toward the organization, monetary benefits and attitude toward supervision which he said is intricately connected with the individual's state of mind about the work itself and life in general.

Some researchers separate job satisfaction into intrinsic and extrinsic elements where pay and promotions are considered extrinsic factors and co-workers, supervision and the work itself are considered intrinsic factors. Such an organizational structure is somewhat arbitrary; other structures were offered by Locke (1976), such as events or conditions versus agents (where agents are supervisors, co-workers and company or management), or work versus rewards versus context.

Another definitional issue is whether job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are polar opposites (exist on opposite ends of a bipolar continuum) or are separate concepts. The answer to this issue is closely bound up in Herzberg's two-factor theory.

The concept of job satisfaction traditionally has been of great interest to social scientists concerned with the problems of work in an industrial society. Many have been interested in job satisfaction, for instance as a result of a personal value system which assumes that work

which enables satisfaction of one's needs furthers the dignity of the human individual; whereas, work without these characteristic limits the development of personal potential and it is therefore to be negatively valued. Other social scientists have been interested in this concept because of evidence that has linked the degree of satisfaction with work to the quality of one's life outside the work role- especially one's physical and mental health. Still others were motivated to study job satisfaction out of a desire to improve productivity and organizational functioning by improving the quality of work experiences of employees. While these concerns have their bases in different perspectives, they share the recognition of the importance of the job in the total life experience of the individual and the desirability of a positive work experience.

Employee's job satisfaction is not only influenced by his or her own perceptions of the climate, but also by the shared perceptions of his or her work unit.

However, three types of explanations historically have been suggested to account for the variations in the job satisfaction of workers. The first has sought to explain this variation solely in terms of the personalities of individual workers and has attempted to establish a relationship between measures of adjustment or neuroticism and job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964). While personality variables undoubtedly have some effects on job satisfaction, such explanations are inadequate because they ignore the association of job satisfaction with characteristics of the job.

A second explanation views variation in job satisfaction solely as a function of differences in the nature of job people perform. In the past, this has been the numerically dominant view and studies employing this type of reasoning generally deal with two sets of variables – one a measure of a work role characteristic(s), the other a measure of job satisfaction and attempt to establish a causal relation from the former to the latter. There is a wide variation in the types of work role characteristics that have been used. Some common ones include characteristics of the organizational structure such as span of control and size (Georgopoulos, 1978), job content factors such as degree of specialization (Smith,1992), economic factors (Givelch & Burns, 1994), social factors, promotional opportunities and hours of work (Vroom, 1964, Herzberg,1967). Generally, these investigations have found that job satisfaction varies, often considerable with one or more of these variables. A widely tested

theory of the determinants of job satisfaction that utilizes this type of explanation is Herzberg's "two – factor" theory (Herzberg, 1967).

The third explanation views that the satisfaction an individual obtains from a job is a function not only of the objective properties of that job but also of the motives of the individual was first suggested by Morse (1953). Leading exponents of this view are Terre & Durrhein (1999) who reacted against the attempts of organizational social scientist to study issues of worker satisfaction by adhering to a closed system model wherein organizations are seen as the relevant context for explaining these issues. They argued that the question of satisfaction from work cannot be thoroughly considered without knowledge of the meanings that individuals impute to their work activity. Studies within this perspective (e.g. Klecker & Loadman, 1999; Organ & Near, 1985; Brief, 1998) have contributed to our knowledge of job satisfaction by attempting to establish empirically the ways in which the wants and expectations that people attach to their work activity shape the attitudinal and behavioural patterns of their working lives as a whole.

Job satisfaction refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals toward work roles, which they are presently occupying. It must be distinguished from satisfaction with specific dimension of those work roles. This conceptualization implies that job satisfaction is a unitary concept and that individuals maybe characterized by some sort of vaguely defined attitude toward their total job situation. To say that job satisfaction is a unitary concept however does not imply that the causes of this overall attitude are not multidimensional. A person may be satisfied with one dimension of the job and dissatisfied with another. The assumption underlying the present view is that it is possible for individuals to balance these specific satisfactions against the specific dissatisfactions and thus arrive at a composite satisfaction with the job as a whole (Hoppock, 1935). In line with these considerations, a measure of overall job satisfaction was developed based on the responses of workers to five questions concerning how satisfied they are with their jobs as a whole. These questions included such direct inquires as "how satisfied are you with your job" as well as such indirect measures as whether the worker would recommend the job to a friend, whether the workers plans to look for a new job within the next year, whether the worker would take the same job again if given a choice and how the job measures up to the type of job the worker wanted when he took it.

A worker's level of job satisfaction is a function of the range of specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions that he/she experiences with respect to the various dimensions of work. It is thus "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969). This view of the process underlying the variation in job satisfaction implies that two types of factors are operative: perceived job characteristics, which represent the amount of satisfaction available from particular dimensions of work and work values, which represent the meanings that individuals attach to these perceived job characteristics.

According to Newstrom and Davis (1997), job satisfaction is a set of favourable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work. Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994: 144) see job satisfaction as the degree to which individuals feel positive or negative about their jobs. According to this definition, the individual expresses satisfaction as he interacts with his work environment and attaches meaning to what is happening around him.

Bester, Richter and Boshoff (1997) said job satisfaction is the match between what the employee wants from the employer and the job and what he receives. It is the extent to which the job meets the individual's needs, expectations and requirements. It is further indicated that if employees are happy, it would lead to higher productivity, improved physical health and promotes a more positive attitude towards the organization. This results in staff remaining at the same institution instead of leaving frequently.

On the other hand, Silver, Poulin and Manning (1997) see job satisfaction as a multidimensional system of interrelated variables that are divided into three categories, that is;

- Characteristics related to personal factors such as attitudes, values, etc.
- Intrinsic rewards related to characteristics of job tasks such as opportunities to be creative, problem solving challenges; and
- Extrinsic rewards having to do with organizational characteristics such as wages, working hours, benefits, organizational climate, etc.

Marriner – Tomey (1996) viewed job satisfaction as a match between the employee's interest with the organizational goals. Job satisfaction includes aspects like satisfaction with work, supervisor, work conditions, pay opportunities and practices in the organization. In practice,

the views of these authors are appropriate as employees generally feel satisfied when they receive good pay and good supervision. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1997) and Luthan (1998) identify dimensions that are associated with job satisfaction, namely salaries, job promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers.

2.3.2 Theories of Job Satisfaction Antecedents

Many theories concerning the causes of job satisfaction have been proposed. They can be loosely classified as falling into one of three categories:

- i. Situational theories, which hypothesize that job satisfaction results from the nature of one's job or other aspects of the environment.
- ii. Dispositional approaches, which assume that job satisfaction is rooted in the personological make-up of the individual, and
- iii. Interactive theories, which propose that job satisfaction results from the interplay of the situation and personality.

Situational Theories

Many situational theories of job satisfaction have been proposed, but three stand out as most influential. These are:

- a. Herzberg's two-factor theory
- b. Social information processing
- c. Job characteristics model.

Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (1967) argued that the factors that would lead to a satisfaction are often different from those that would lead to dissatisfaction. This conclusion was based on a series of interviews of workers. When asked to consider factors connected to a time when they felt satisfied with their jobs, individuals generally talked about intrinsic factors such as the work itself, responsibilities and achievements ('motivators'). Conversely, when workers were asked to consider factors that led to dissatisfaction, most individuals discussed extrinsic factors such as company policies, working conditions and pay (hygiene factors'). Herzberg further found that intrinsic factors were more strongly correlated with satisfaction, while extrinsic factors were more strongly correlated with dissatisfaction. Based on these findings,

Herzberg argued that elimination of hygiene factors from a job would only remove dissatisfaction, but not bring satisfaction. To bring out job satisfaction, the organization must focus on motivator factors such as making the work more interesting, challenging and personally rewarding.

However, despite its intuitive appeal, the two-factor theory has been roundly criticized by researchers. There are many logical problems with the theory and many flaws in Herzberg's methodology (see Locke, 1969). One of the main problems is that most of the support of the theory comes from Herzberg's samples and methodology. Numerous empirical studies have attempted to replicate and test Herzberg's findings with independent data and methods with little success (e.g. Hulin & Smith, 1967). Contrary to Herzberg's claim, researches had consistently shown that intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Carroll, 1973; Wernimont, 1967). Thus, though the theory continues to be advocated by Herzberg and recommended for further study by others (Brief, 1998), these attempts at resurrecting the theory run against considerable scientific evidence (Korman, 1971).

Social Information Processing

Social Information Processing approaches to job attitudes argue that job satisfaction is a socially constructed reality (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977, 1978). According to the theory, individuals do not really form judgements of job satisfaction until they are asked and, when they are asked, they rely on social sources of information such as interpretation of their own behaviours, cues by their co-workers, or even the way survey questions are posed. Substantively, the theory holds that individuals are apt to provide the responses they are expected to, and then seek to rationalize or justify their responses. As Hulin (1991) notes, one piece of evidence against the social information processing perspective is that the same job attributes appear to predict job satisfaction in different cultures, despite the social environments, values and mores in these cultures often are quite different. Stone (1992) provides an in-depth and fairly devastating, review and critique of the social information perspective.

Although the theory continues to be brought up and occasionally endorsed, interest in it appears to have waned in the same way that exclusively situationalist explanations for attitudes and behaviours have declined.

Job Characteristics Model

The Job Characteristics model [JCM] argues that jobs which contain intrinsically motivating characteristics would lead to higher levels of job satisfaction as well as other positive workout outcomes such as enhanced job performance and lower withdrawal. The model introduced by Hackman and Oldham [1976] but derived from earlier work by Hackman and Lawler [1971] focuses on 5 core job characteristics:

- Task Identity: degree to which one can see one's work from beginning to the end.
- Task Significance : degree to which one's work is seen as important and significant
- Skill Variety: extent to which job allows employee to do different tasks.
- Autonomy: degree to which employees have control and discretion for how to conduct their job.
- Feedback: degree to which the work itself provides feedback for how the employee is performing the job.

According to the theory, jobs that are enriched to provide these core characteristics are likely to be more satisfying and motivating than jobs that do not provide these characteristics. More specifically, it is proposed that the core job characteristics would lead to three critical psychological states:

- Experienced meaningfulness of the work;
- Responsibility for outcomes; and
- Knowledge of results – which in turn led to the outcomes

However, there are both indirect and direct supports for the validity of the model's basic proposition that core job characteristics led to more satisfying work. In terms of indirect evidence, first, when individuals are asked to evaluate different facets of work such as pay, promotion opportunity, coworkers etc, the nature of the work itself consistently emerges as the most important job facet (Jurgensen, 1978]. Second of the major job satisfaction facets - pay, promotion, opportunities, coworkers , supervision and the work itself- satisfaction with the work itself is almost always the facet most strongly correlated with overall job

satisfaction (e.g. Rentsch and Steel, 1992). Thus if we are interested in understanding what causes people to be satisfied with their jobs, the nature of the work (intrinsic job characteristics) is the first place to start.

Research directly testing the relationship between worker's report of job characteristics and job satisfaction has produced consistently positive results. There have been several quantitative reviews of the literature indicating positive results [Fried and Ferris, 1987; Loher, Noe, Moeller and Fitzgerald, 1985]. Recently, Frye [1996] provided an update and reported a true score correlation of 0.50 between job characteristics and job satisfaction. This provides strong support for validity of the job characteristics model. Although the model did not explicitly acknowledge individual differences in receptiveness to job characteristics in its original formulation, earlier on the model was modified from a purely situational model to more of an interactional model. According to Hackman and Oldham [1976], the relationship between intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction depends on employees' Growth Need Strength [GNS], which is employee's desire for personnel development, especially as it applies to work. High GNS employees want their jobs to contribute to their personal growth, and derive satisfaction from performing challenging and personally rewarding activities. According to the model, intrinsic job characteristics are especially satisfying for individuals who score high on GNS. Researches tend to support this aspect of the theory (Frye, 1996; Hackman and Oldham, 1976 and James and Jones, 1980).

Across the 10 studies that have investigated the role of GNS in the relationship between intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction, the relationship tends to be stronger for employee with high GNS [average $r = 0.68$] than for those with low GNS [average $r = 0.38$] [Frye, 1996]. However, it is important to note that intrinsic job characteristics are related to job satisfaction even for those who score low on GNS.

There are some limitations to the theory. First, most of the studies have used self-reports of the job characteristics, which has garnered its share of criticism (Roberts and Glick, 1981). It is that subjective reports of job characteristics correlate more strongly with job satisfaction than do objective reports. However, objective reports even with all of their measurement imperfections still show consistently positive correlations with job satisfaction (Glick, Jenkins and Gupta, 1986). Second, the relationship between perception of job characteristics and job satisfaction appears to be bidirectional (James and Jones 1980; James and Tetrick, 1986).

Thus, it cannot be assumed that any association between job characteristics and job satisfaction demonstrates a casual effect of job characteristics on job satisfaction. Third, there is little evidence that the critical psychological states mediate the relationship between job characteristics and outcomes as proposed. Finally, the formulaic combinations of the five core characteristics had not been supported. Few or some researches indicate that simply adding the dimensions works better (Arnold & House, 1980). This limitation does not seem to be a serious problem with the theory, as whether an additive or multiplicative combination of job dimensions works best does not undermine the potential usefulness of the theory.

Dispositional Approaches

The three principal approaches to studying job satisfaction, the dispositional approach to job satisfaction is the most recently evolved and perhaps as a result, the most poorly developed. However, there has been recognition of individual differences in job satisfaction for as long as the topic of job satisfaction has been studied. For example, Hoppock (1935) found that workers satisfied with their jobs were better adjusted emotionally than dissatisfied workers. It was 50 years later though beginning with the publication of two influential studies by Staw and colleagues (Staw and Ross, 1985; Staw, Bell and Clausen, 1986), that the dispositional source of job satisfaction came into its own as a research area. Although, earlier on, this literature had its critics [Cropanzano and James, 1990; Davies – Blake and Pfeffer, 1989; Gerhart, 1987; Gutek and Winter, 1992], that have waned. Few scholars would dispute the contention that job satisfaction is, to a significant degree, rooted in individual's personalities. Reflecting on this literature, it appears there are two broad categories of studies. The first group called indirect studies, seek to demonstrate a dispositional basis to job satisfaction by inference. Typically, in such studies, disposition or personality is not measured, but inferred to exist from a process of logical deduction or induction. Staw and Ross (1985) for example, inferred a dispositional source of satisfaction by observing that measures of job satisfaction were reasonably stable over a two year [$r = 0.42, p < .01$] three year [$r = 0.32, P < .01$] and five years [$r = 0.29, p < .01$] periods of time. Staw and Ross further discovered that job satisfaction showed significant stability under situational change even when individuals who changed neither occupation nor employer [$r = 0.37, p < .01$]. Another indirect, albeit provocative study, was authored by Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham [1989], who found significant

similarity in the job satisfaction levels of 34 pairs of monozygotic (identical) twins reared apart from early childhood.

Though, this series of indirect studies can be credited for establishing interest in the dispositional perspective, they have an obvious limitation – they cannot demonstrate a dispositional source of job satisfaction. For instance, stability in job satisfaction over time can be due to many factors, only one of which is due to the personality of the individual (Gerhart, 1987; Gutek and Winter, 1992). Similarly, since babies have no jobs they cannot be born with job satisfaction. Thus, evidence showing similarity, in twins job satisfaction levels is indirect evidence, since the similarity must be due to other factors (i.e. personality).

The other group of studies termed direct studies, relate a direct measure of a construct purported to assess a personality trait to job satisfaction. The specific traits that have been investigated have varied widely across studies. Staw, et al (1986) for example, utilized clinical routings of children with respect to a number of adjectives assumed to assess affective disposition (“cheerful, warm and negative”). Judge & Hulin (1993) and, Judge & Locke (1993) used a measure, adapted from Weitz (1952), assessing employees’ reactions to neutral objects common to everyday life. Despite the predictive validity of these measures for job satisfaction, most researches had focused on other measures.

One group of studies had focused on positive and negative affectivity (PA and NA). According to Watson, Clark and Colleagues, PA is characterized by high energy, enthusiasm and pleasurable engagement; whereas, NA is characterized by distress, unpleasurable engagement and nervousness (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). An interesting finding in the literature supporting the distinction between PA and NA is that they appear to display different patterns of relationships with other variables (Watson, 2000). The general trend seems to be that PA is more strongly related to positive outcomes, while NA is more strongly associated with negative outcome. Several studies have related both PA and NA to job satisfaction (Agho, Mueller and Price 1993; Brief, Butcher and Roberson, 1995; Brief, Burke, George, Robinson and Webster 1988; Levin and Stokes, 1989; Necowitz & Roznowski, 1994; Watson and Slack 1993]. Thoresen & Judge [1997) reviewed the 29 studies that have investigated the PA – job satisfaction relationship and the 41 studies that have investigated the NA –job satisfaction relationship and found true score correlations of

0.52 and -0.40 respectively. Thus, it appears that both PA and NA are generally related to job satisfaction.

Recently, Judge, Locke and Durham [1997] drawing from several different literature introduced the construct of core self- evaluations. According to Judge et al [1997], core self- evaluations are fundamental premises that individuals hold about themselves and their functioning in the world. Judge et al, further argued that core self evaluation is a broad personality construct comprising several specific traits:

- i. Self esteem;
- ii. Generalized self-efficacy;
- iii. Locus of control; and
- iv. Neuroticism or emotional stability.

Although research on the dispositional source of job satisfaction has made enormous strides, but considerable room for further development exists. David-Blake and Pfeffer (1989) criticized dispositional research for its failure to clearly define or carefully measure affective disposition. To some extent, this criticism is still relevant. As the above review attests, even those that have directly measured affective disposition have done so with fundamentally different measures. What traits and measures are best suited to predicting job satisfaction, there have been very few efforts to compare, contrast and integrate these different conceptualizations and measures of affective disposition. Brief, George and colleagues' focus on mood at work and have used positive and negative affectivity as dispositional constructs. Weiss, Cropanzano and colleagues emphasized affective events at work and the emotions and cognitions these events produced; Judge et al focus on core self- evaluations. The differences in these approaches are important. However, we should not assume that they are oriented toward different objectives- all seek to better understand the dispositional source of job attitudes.

2.4 Interactive Theories

Interactive theories of job satisfaction are those that consider both person and situation variables. These theories include the Cornell Integrative Model and Locke's Value-Percept theory.

2.4.1 Cornell Model

Hulin, Roznowski and Hachiya (1985), subsequently elaborated upon by Hulin (1991), proposed a model of job satisfaction that attempted to integrate previous theories of attitude formation.

According to the model, job satisfaction is a function of the balance between the role inputs, what the individual puts into the work role (e.g. training, experience, time and effort), and role outcomes, including what is received (pay, status, working conditions and intrinsic factors). The more outcomes received relative to inputs invested, the higher work role satisfaction would be, all else equal. According to Cornell model, the individual's opportunity costs affect the value individuals place on inputs. In periods of labour oversupply i.e. (high unemployment), the individual will perceive their inputs as less valuable due to the high competition for few alternative positions, and the opportunity cost of their work role declines (i.e. work role membership is less costly relative to other opportunities).

Therefore, as unemployment (particularly in one's local or occupational labour market) rises, the subjective utility of inputs falls- making perceived value of inputs less relative to outcomes- thus increasing satisfaction.

Finally, the model proposes that an individual's frames of reference, which represent past experience with outcomes, influenced how individuals perceive current outcomes received. The fewer or less valued, the outcomes received in the past and as current employment opportunities erode, the same outcomes per inputs would increase job satisfaction (i.e. more was received than had been in the past). Again, the reverse scenario is also true. Although the breadth and integration of the Hulin model is impressive, direct tests of the model are lacking. One partial test (Judge&Hulin 1993) of the model was not particularly supportive; therefore, more research on it is needed.

2.4.2 Value-Percept Theory

Following his definition of values as that which one desires or considers important, Locke (1976) argued that individuals' values would determine what satisfied them on the job. Only the unfulfilled job values that were valued by the individual would be dissatisfying. Accordingly, Locke's value-percept theory expresses job satisfaction as follows:

$$S = (V_c - P) \times V_i \text{ or}$$

$$\text{Satisfaction} = (\text{want} - \text{have}) \times \text{importance}$$

Where S is satisfaction, V_c is value content (amount wanted), P is the perceived amount of the value provided by the job and V_i is the importance of the value to the individual. Thus, value-percept theory predicts that discrepancies between what is desired and received are dissatisfying only if the job facet is important to the individual. Individuals consider multiple facets when evaluating their job satisfaction, so the satisfaction calculus is repeated for each job facet.

One potential problem with the value-percept theory is that what one desires (V or want) and what one considers important (V_i or importance) are likely to be highly correlated. Though in theory, these concepts are separable, in practice, many people will find it difficult to distinguish the two. Despite this limitation, research on Locke's theory has been supportive (Rice, Phillips & McFarlin, 1990). Rice; Gentile and McFarlin (1991) found that facet importance made rated the relationship between facet amount and facet satisfaction, but it did not moderate the relationship between facet satisfaction and overall job satisfaction.

This is exactly what Locke predicted in his theory, as he argued that facet satisfactions should additively predict overall satisfaction because facet importance was already reflected in each facet satisfaction score.

2.5 Promotion of Job Satisfaction

To facilitate achievement of organizational goals, promotion of job satisfaction is important in the work environment. According to Low (1997), job satisfaction is promoted when the individual is work-oriented and invests energy and effort in his or her work. If an individual is work – oriented, it becomes easier for him or her to work towards the attainment of the organization's goal, because he or she is aware of the work procedures of the organization. Provision of opportunities for promotion makes employees experience satisfaction because they feel a sense of achievement if they move from one level of experience to another and because it shows professional growth. The job is experienced as interesting if employees are given power to exercise autonomy, allowed to participate in decision-making and are also allowed to be creative in their respective jobs. Based on this explanation of job satisfaction, it is important to explain what motivation is because it influences the behaviour and performance of the individual in a positive way to enable job satisfaction.

2.5.1 Motivating Factors

All organizations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high level of performance through people. This means giving close attention to how individuals can be best motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and also through their work is very necessary. The study of motivation is concerned basically with why people behave in a certain way. The underlying question is “why people do what they do”. In general terms, motivation can be described as the direction and persistence of action. It is concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others and why they continue with a chosen action over a period of time, even in the face of difficulties. The relationship between organization and its workers is governed by what motivates them to work and fulfillment they derive from doing the work.

Maitland (2005) defined motivation simply as “the force or process, which causes individuals to act in a specific way”. Ugo (2005) says motivation is the willingness to do something and is conditioned by the ability to satisfy the need of the individual.

Kinicki and Kreirtner (2003) define motivation, as “those physiological processes that cause arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed”. Managers need to understand these physiological processes if they are to successfully guide employees towards accomplishing organizational objectives. Also, Koontz and Weihrich (1988) say motivation is the effort to satisfy a want or goal. This in turn connotes a drive towards an outcome which is satisfaction. Motivation is not manipulation of people but understanding of the needs, factors that prompt people to do things and also providing ways of meeting these needs.

Mullins (1999) citing Mitchell (1975) identifies four main characteristics, which underline the definition of motivation.

- Motivation is seen, as individual phenomenon i.e. every person is unique and all the major theories of motivation allow the uniqueness to be demonstrated in one way or the other.
- Motivation is usually described as intentional i.e. it is assumed to be under the worker’s control and behaviours that are influenced such as the effort seen as choice of action.

- Motivation is multifaceted: that is to say that two factors are of great importance - what gets people activated (arousal) and the force of an individual to engage in a desired behaviour (direction of choice of behaviour).
- The purpose of motivation theories is to predict behaviour in other words, motivation is not the behaviour itself and it is not all about the performance. It concerns actions and the internal and external forces that influenced a person's choice of action. Based on these characteristics, he defined motivation as "the degree to which an individual wants and chooses to engage in a certain specified behaviour.

Generally, motivation can be defined as the arousal, direction and persistence of behaviours. It can be seen as a way in which urges, drives, desires, , aspirations, needs influence the choice of alternative in the behaviour of human beings. This is concerned with what prompts people to take action, what influences their choice of action and why they persist in doing so overtime.

According to Greenberg and Baron (1993), motivation is seen as a set of processes that arouse, direct and maintain human behaviour towards attaining a goal. Beaufort and Longest (1996) see motivating factors as typically intrinsic factors because they drive a person to perform the work itself. They are related to the sense of achievement, recognition for achievement, work itself, responsibility, advancement potential and possibility for growth (Marriner – Tomey, 1996). Herzberg's motivating factors are also supported by McClelland three-need theory because he also identifies achievement as one of the factors that directs a person's behaviour in the workplace (Robbins, 1988). Maslows hierarchy also supports Herzberg's theory since he also stresses the esteem needs which include achievement, status and recognition.

2.5.2 Achievement

According to Robbins (1988), achievement is a drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards and strive to succeed. On the other hand, Newstrom and Davis (1997) see achievement as a drive to overcome challenges and obstacles in the pursuit of goals. Achievement is present when employees have feelings of personal accomplishment or the need to accomplish. For achievement to be present as a motivation factor, job must be challenging and interesting. For the individual to experience achievement, he or she must be

able to succeed, have abilities to solve job related problems and perform effectively. The manager can increase opportunity for on-job achievement by the delegation of authority and responsibility, involvement in planning and goal-setting, availability of information concerning performance and individual control of the quality of job performance.

Achievement- oriented employees enjoy getting things done and moving to the next objective. They place greater value on the level of their own capabilities. They seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem-solving skills and strive to be creative. When confronted with obstacles in their work, these employees perform their jobs capably because of the inner satisfaction they feel for a job well done.

It is important for managers to realize that duties should be delegated to their subordinates in order to increase their desire to achieve more. In turn, their subordinate's motivation would increase. Delegation of duties helps employees to utilize their talents and also contributes to personal growth and development (Marriner – Tomey, 1996). Based on this information about achievement, managers that implement the above points in their organizations facilitate job satisfaction and those managers that do not take into consideration the points mentioned above demotivate employees which could lead to failure in achieving organization's goals. In such situations, employees experience a lack of satisfaction and may absent themselves from the workplace.

2.5.3 Recognition

According to Gerber et al. (1998), recognition refers to the respect an employee enjoys among colleagues in the organization, which is the result of the status value of the job. It also refers to the recognition an organization can afford on employee for good performance. Recognition can come from the organization, managers, fellow employees or the public (Costley and Todd, 1987). Recognition may be provided in many forms such as verbal or written, praise, pay, increases and bonuses. When managers use recognition and rewards to encourage desired behaviours in their organization, they keep good employees in their organization. The management can use the following rewards to recognize and promote good work, give positive feedback, increase in salary, autonomy, opportunity to participate in goal-setting and decision making as well as peer recognition by announcing achievements at staff meetings and using the organization's news letter to recognize achievements. The

management can also give employees challenging assignments and seek interesting opportunities for them either within the unit or somewhere else within the organization. Recognition promotes self-confidence and raises the self-esteem of employees whereby productivity is increased (Tappen, 1995).

In academic environments, employees are to be made aware that their seniors appreciate their efforts. If good work is recognized – either through giving positive feedback or announcement of good work at staff meetings, they experience a sense of satisfaction if their peers are aware of their achievements.

Organizations that do not give back positive feedback and do not involve employees in decisions regarding their jobs, increase a sense of no satisfaction among employees. Employees may feel that they are not seen as active members of the organization but passive participants in contracts to employees who function better when they receive constructive feedback about their performance (Tappen, 1995).

2.5.4 Responsibility

This refers to what must be done to complete a task and the obligation created by the assignment (Marriner – Tomey, 1996). Responsibilities are normally determined by the employer to facilitate achievement of goals (Muller, 1996). The management and the senior academics of departments should make sure that responsibilities are allocated according to expertise and abilities of the individual. Departments/units' responsibilities should be specific as to whether they are daily or weekly responsibilities that employees should perform to prevent a person from being overloaded. The managers must make sure that responsibilities are standardized for each job level and that each employee has a copy of his or her job description (Muller, 1996).

Generally, managers encourage subordinates to accept responsibility by making sure that they are aware of the capabilities and characteristics of their subordinates. If subordinates' physical abilities are ignored during delegation of responsibilities in the unit, demotivating consequences may occur (Muller, 1996). When managers consider subordinate's knowledge and skills, they promote feelings of pride in the subordinates and in turn facilitate independent functioning. If subordinates' capabilities, knowledge and skills are considered,

employees enjoy their work and thus productivity will be raised to higher levels among employees (Muller, 1996).

In the academic environment, it is imperative that responsibilities are delegated according to the scope of activities and contents of the outline, and to people with the necessary skills to perform the job. If employee's capabilities are not recognized, or are inappropriate for the responsibilities delegated, they may feel frustrated because they lacked the skill to carry out delegated responsibilities and may experience no satisfaction. If they have required skill and they know what to do, they tend to work hard and they become motivated in what they do (Muller, 2001).

2.5.5 Work Itself

According to Morrison (1993), work itself should be a challenging experience that encourages creativity and self-expression. Luthans (1998) advocated that work itself could be a source of satisfaction. If this is true, it is imperative that managers create organizational climates that facilitate satisfaction in the execution of jobs. Gibson, et.al. (1997) indicated that employees should be given opportunities to advance in their field of work so that they could accept responsibilities entrusted to them. Study leave can be provided for those employees with the desired skills and willingness to perform the job, who want to improve their skills and knowledge. Managers should make sure that employees are given adequate feedback on performed tasks to motivate them to work harder and better as well as to point out areas that needed attention and provided assistance when needed. Managers should also give employees bigger responsibilities, allow them to exercise autonomy and offer them challenging tasks as means of enhancing the quality of work life. The organizational climate should provide promotional opportunities to motivate the employees to work harder and strive for excellence in his or her job. Thus, rewards attached to the job make the job more enjoyable and improve performance. A job should always be interesting and challenging – never boring. Apart from that, a job or the work itself should also provide a sense of status and achievement.

Work allocated to employees should be such that it encourages creativity and self-expression because in such an environment, employees are able to use their creativity as they discharge their academic duties. Employees tend to see their work as a challenge and then experience

satisfaction when performing it diligently. If the organizational climate is not challenging, employees tend to be bored, because they are only expected to implement their senior's plan of action and thus feel less satisfied.

2.5.6 Growth and Development

This means the need to know more than yesterday, to put new knowledge into context and to maintain one's individuality even when under pressure (Morrison, 1993). Personal development refers to the personal and professional development by means of formal and informal training in line with his or her job requirements (Muller 1996).

Growth and development of employees are of importance to the organization in order to ensure achievement of organizational goals. Marriner-Tomey (1996) saw staff development as continuing liberal education of the whole person to develop his or her potential fully. Managers of institutions are there to identify staff development needs in relation to organizational needs. Reference to the above-discussed information, organization should make sure that staff development does not take place at unit level and staff members should be encouraged to share information with each other. This will promote personal and professional growth.

Staff development will increase employee's ability to perform in their current job as well as in their future jobs. Managers have the responsibility to ensure that the employees are trained to promote the quality of their lives, their prospects of work and labour mobility to improve productivity in the workplace and to provide employees with the opportunities to acquire new skills (Skills Development Act, 1998). To emphasize the latter, an employee that has the necessary knowledge and skills feels comfortable because he is geared with the knowledge and skills and can take good decisions when faced with the job related problems. Organizational climate must also be characterized by good interpersonal relationships among employees in order to facilitate growth and development. Clear work procedures and work policies direct the employee's actions and contribute to satisfaction because he knows what is expected of him.

Promotional opportunities also play a major role in an employee's development because an employee develops personally and professionally as he climbs the ladder of success.

2.6 Job Dissatisfaction

According to Morrison (1993), dissatisfiers are present in the organization. Herzberg called them hygiene or maintenance factors because they are motivated by the need to avoid unpleasantness. Marriner–Tomey (1996) admitted that dissatisfaction occurs when people perceive that they are being treated unfairly with salaries, benefits, incentives, job security, supervision and poor interpersonal relationship. When people are highly motivated and find their job interesting and challenging, they will tolerate dissatisfaction (Chung, 1997). A reward system that is not clear to all employees leads to dissatisfaction, hence it is important for employees to know the criteria and procedures that are followed in rewarding them for their good work. Marriner–Tomey further stresses that poor planning, poor communication, inadequate explanations of decisions affecting jobs, unclear rules and regulations, unreasonable pressures, excessive work, understaffing, uncooperative heads of departments/units, non-academic duties are all sources of dissatisfaction within the organization. Chung (1997) again sees dissatisfaction as arising from two aspects – external and internal barriers. This means that job dissatisfaction can arise from the individual himself. The internal barriers include intelligence – this is necessary for a person to be able to make decisions in his or her place of work, and skills – this refers to the ability of the employee to perform the job by using acquired skills.

The employers have the responsibility of ensuring that each employee has the skill to perform his job because lack of training for the job leads to frustration especially when a person cannot perform the job for which he is hired.

Low salaries promote job dissatisfaction and can act as motivator if employees feel they are being adequately paid. Chung (1997) listed the following as barriers leading to dissatisfaction within the organization.

- **Organizational Structure:** Every organization has its structure and this organizational structure can consist of human resources policies that play a major role in attracting and satisfying employees. A mismatch can hamper the attainment of both personal and organizational goals thereby leading to dissatisfaction (Gerber et al.1998).
- **Rule, Regulation and Policies:** All these if consistently applied and not made known to employees can cause misunderstanding in the workplace and contribute to feelings of bias, preferential treatment and unfairness (Marriner –Tomey, 1996).

- **Supervision and Leadership:** Effective supervision and leadership in an organization should help employees in performing their jobs because where good supervision exists, employees are made aware of their strengths and weaknesses and necessary assistance would be put in place to improve their performance. Where supervision is not in place, employees tend to feel lost in their workplace. Due to lack of direction, they become dissatisfied especially where the supervisor lacks assertiveness, unwilling to make decisions and if supervisors lack planning skills (Gerber et al, 1998).
- **Work Groups:** The groups are formed in the work place to make-work interesting and to promote creativity or share ideas. These work groups can also lead to job dissatisfaction if there is a poor working relationships between colleagues (Gerber et al, 1998).
- **Interpersonal Conflicts:** Interpersonal conflicts do arise within the work environment, which lead to job dissatisfaction. Lack of friendliness and team spirit among employees contribute to job dissatisfaction. Conflicts in the work situation can be as a result of managerial support, lack of participation in decision-making and too much responsibility (Booyens, 1998).
- **Poor Work Environment:** This causes dissatisfaction because employees find it difficult to carry out their work under dirty, noisy and unsafe surroundings.

There are quite a few problems arising from the job dissatisfaction and factors determinants of the dissatisfaction. The chief of these factors may be listed as:

- The customer aggregates occurring at the reception;
- The unnecessary increase in the overwork wages in the business;
- The increase in the customer complaints;
- The increase in the server complaints;
- The growing losses in the consumption of the food and drink in the production sites;
- Emerging of the extreme troubles in the durable consumer goods;
- The increasing tendencies towards the misuse of the equipment and materials;
- The increase in the occupational accidents;
- The growing discontinuation of the server to the job;
- The increasing rate of the server turnover.

The researches settled that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, in other words, what an individual wants and what he has may be fixed well in line with a number of rating

processes. The attitude scale is generally used for the job satisfaction measurements. One of the important scales accepted by the majority is Likert attitude scale. The questionnaires which are developed are generally concentrated on these scales (Ezieke, 2000).

2.6.1 Hygiene Factors

According to Beaufort and Longest (1996), hygiene factors are those factors that relate to organizational climate and these factors include: organizational policy and administration, working conditions, salaries, supervision and interpersonal relations. Again, Marriner – Tomey (1996) supported Longest’s view on hygiene factors. They also see job dissatisfaction as associated with factors like company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. In addition, Morrison (1993) identified three other hygiene factors that the other two authors above did not mention, these are: personal life, status and security.

2.6.2 Organizational Policy and Administration

Organizational policy is the guide that clearly spells out responsibilities and prescribes action to be taken under a given set of circumstances (DiVincenti, 1986). Policies can be implied or expressed. It can also be written or in an oral form; whatever it is, managers are to make sure that policies are consistently applied because inconsistency leads to uncertainty, feelings of bias and preferential treatment and unfairness. Again, Marriner – Tomey (1996) advised that managers are to see that policies are reviewed periodically to ensure that they apply to current situations within the organization.

However, Marriner –Tomey (2000) suggested that policies could be developed at unit level to help direct the functioning of employees in the unit. They can as well be developed at the organizational level. The important thing to note is that whenever these policies are formulated, subordinates are given the chance to make their inputs so that they can feel that they were part of the development of those policies thereby becoming easier for them to follow such policies. It is imperative, therefore, that management must make sure that every employee is aware of any changes in policies that are taking place within the organization. Communication of policies can be done orally but should be followed up by written copies of these policies, which are sent to employees to keep for further referrals. Marriner –Tomey (1996) postulated that communication of policies to staff members in written format

eliminates breakdowns that occurs when policy action are passed by ordinary words of mouth.

Worthy of note again is that policies should be fairly applied to all employees so that they will not feel any discriminatory treatment, which automatically lead to dissatisfaction; but if they feel that policies are applied consistently to all employees, they will feel a sense of belonging to an organization (Marriner –Tomey, 1996).

Moreover, poor communication and inadequate explanations of decisions affecting jobs will lead to dissatisfaction; hence, employees should participate in decision-making. When employees are allowed to make their inputs, they will feel free to participate in decision-making and will see themselves as part of the organization. When decision authority is concentrated in the hands of a few people, employees feel that they are relatively powerless and consequently feel frustrated (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). To ensure that all employees are well informed of policies and procedures within their organization and secure their co-operation, two-way communication is to be practiced in organizations to allow dissemination of policies and any changes that are taking place (Booyens, 1998).

Reference to the above statement, communication of policies to employees is important. If policies are not communicated, employees find themselves in a difficult situation as they are expected to accomplish the organization's goals. Employees may feel frustrated because they do not have guidelines that spell out their responsibilities or form of action and they might experience job dissatisfaction. Communication of policies can be done at unit and organizational level. Some organizations do not involve their employees in policy formulation, which makes it difficult for employees to implement such policies because they were not involved in decision-making and do not always understand the reason behind set policies. Involvement of employees in policy formulation promotes understanding and motivation and leads to job satisfaction.

2.6.3 Supervision

According to McFarland and Morris (1984), supervision is a dynamic process in which employees are encouraged to participate regarding activities designed to meet organizational goals and aid in the development of an employee. Supervisors/heads of units or departments also control work in their department – for instance, academic works, lecture notes, and

project writings by the academic staff. They further state that supervision is divided into technical skills – which may involve the use of knowledge, procedures, techniques and equipment to perform their task. These skills can be learned through training and education. Employees should possess these skills to ensure the achievement of organizational goals to prevent hazards and/or accidents that might arise due to lack of knowledge.

Furthermore, McFarland, et al described conceptual skill as another important part of supervision, which involves knowledge and understanding of the job based on organizational goals and objectives. Therefore, it becomes imperative for managers to create a positive organizational climate where employees are encouraged to update their skills in order to give their best in their chosen career.

Employees can be given opportunities to update their knowledge through training, induction, orientation procedures as well as providing in-service education and on-the-job training (Gillies, 1982). Again, managers and supervisors of units should identify areas of weaknesses and create opportunities where employees can be trained to improve their skills. If they lack the skills of doing the job properly, they feel frustrated and dissatisfied. A supervisor perceived to have poor supervisory skills and is believed to be incompetent, selfish and uncaring will promote dissatisfaction in his or her unit. Seeing supervisors's needs possessing good supervisory qualities, it becomes important for them to attend workshops and in-service education in order to promote subordinate-supervisor relationships (Greenberg & Baron, 1993).

According to Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (1998) satisfaction is promoted where there is good supervision and the employee perceives the supervisor as helpful, competent and effective. Poor supervision may arise within the work environment when the supervisor is insensitive, incompetent and uncaring, leading to a negative effect on employees' job satisfaction. Poor supervision includes unfair treatment by the supervisor and failure to correspond to employees' problems, which in turn lead to job dissatisfaction (Chung, 1997). An effective supervisor recognizes his employees' needs for responsibility, recognition and growth. A good supervisor supplies information and advice to employees when necessary and also emphasizes personal responsibility and accountability while providing a climate of freedom for work accomplishment.

McFarland, et al (1984) define supervision as the process in which the subordinate is encouraged to participate in activities designed to meet organizational goals and to develop as an employee and as a person. If the work climate is such that employees do not get the support they need from their supervisors or they feel they are being treated unfairly, they tend not to trust their supervisors and fail to deliver as expected, thereby ending up experiencing job dissatisfaction. In cases where employees receive support from their supervisors, they feel less dissatisfied and want to achieve more.

2.6.4 Working Conditions

According to Gerber, et al (1998), working conditions are created by the interaction of employees with their organizational climate. Working conditions include, psychological work conditions and the physical layout of the job. The physical working conditions include the availability of facilities like protective clothing, equipment and appliances. Failure to provide these facilities makes it impossible for employees to carry out their jobs and thus promote job dissatisfaction because employees cannot perform their jobs in an easy non-obstructive way.

However, the psychological contract includes the psychological expectations of both employees and their employers. Employees will perform better when they know what the employer expects from them and vice versa. They will be productive because they know the benefits they will get from their employer if their performance is satisfactory; but if they are not aware of what the employer expects from them, they will be unsure and less productive and feel dissatisfied.

Physical layout of the job refers to the neatness, organization, convenience and attractiveness of the work environment. Luthans, (1998) says that if working conditions are good, for instance – clean, and attractive surroundings, employees will find it easier to carry out their jobs. On the other hand, if the working conditions are poor like hot and noisy surroundings, employees will find it difficult to get their work done and thereby experience dissatisfaction.

2.6.5 Salaries

From the point of view of Morrison (1993) low salaries promote dissatisfaction and will make workers feel frustrated. Salaries are the actual money employees receive from their employers for the job done or services rendered. It becomes important, therefore, that employees be informed on how they will be compensated for good work. Gibson, et al (1997) indicated that they might perceive the amount of pay received by an employee as unfair or fair. Employees normally expect equity among the salaries that are received by them and their colleagues who hold the same post description. Employees often view their salaries as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization. Managers should communicate to employees how good performance is rewarded. Greenberg and Baron (1993) argue that organization's reward system are highly related to job satisfaction, which means it is important for the organization to make employees aware of these rewards so as to eliminate misunderstanding among the employer and employees. Unclear reward systems lead to conflict and unfair practices within the workplace. According to Chung (1997), poor salaries that are uncompetitive would lead to unhappiness and discontent. Organizations should try as much as possible to make salaries competitive because salary does not motivate employees to work hard and to experience job satisfaction. Uncompetitive salaries demotivate employees and lead to job dissatisfaction (Banjoko, 2006). Employees in organizations that provide uncompetitive salaries tend to leave their organizations and move out to other organizations that provide competitive salaries.

2.6.6 Status

Greenberg and Baron (1995) stated that status in organization is recognized as both formal and informal in nature. Formal status refers to attempts made to differentiate between the degree of formal and informal authority given to employees by an organization. This is accomplished through the use of status symbols – for instance symbols that reflect the position of an individual within an organization's hierarchy. Examples of status symbol include job titles like “Director” and reserved parking spaces. Status symbols serve to remind organizational members of their relative roles, thereby reducing uncertainty and provide stability to the social order.

On the other hand, informal status refers to prestige accorded individuals with certain characteristics that are not formally dictated by the organization. Halloram and Brenton (1987) stated that receiving a higher status is a symbol of success, thus people feel that they only experience success when they attain a higher status. Achieving a higher status brings feelings of true success, but only when feelings of genuine achievement are experienced. Genuine achievement requires constant challenge. When genuine challenges are not offered, it will result in stagnation and frustration. Lower level status does affect achievement because there is little opportunity for creativity, judgment and initiation to come into play. The higher the job levels, the greater the opportunity will be to tackle new problems. Judge, et al,(2001) states that people with a high need to achieve are likely to seek tasks where they are fully responsible, they set goals for themselves and value competent colleagues.

Based on the information above, if a person moves from one level of job position to another, he or she sees himself or herself in another level of job hierarchy, feeling honoured and tending to work harder. If no promotional opportunities are available, employees experience burnout and tend to be dissatisfied.

2.7 Organizational Climate

Researchers in organizational behavior have long been interested in understanding employees' perceptions of the work environment and how these perceptions influence individuals' work- related attitudes and behaviours. Early researchers suggested that the social climate or atmosphere created in a workplace had significant consequences-employees' perceptions of the work context purportedly influenced the extent to which people were satisfied and perform up to their potential, which in turn, was predicted to influence organizational productivity (e.g Katz& Kahn, 2004; Likert,1997, McGregor, 2000). The construct of climate has been studied extensively and has proven useful in capturing perceptions of the work context (Denisson, 2006; Ostroff, Kinicki & Tamkins, 2007). Climate has been described as an experientially based description of the work environment and, more specifically, employees' perceptions of the formal and informal policies, practices and procedures in their organization (Schneider, 2008).

An important distinction has been made between psychological and organizational climate (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1994; James & Jones, 2004). Individuals' own perceptions of the work

environment constitute psychological climate at the individual level of analysis; whereas, organizational climate has been proposed as an organizational or unit-level construct. When employees within a unit or organization agree on their perceptions of the work context, unit-level or organizational climate is said to exist (Jones & James, 2004; Joyce & Slocum, 2004). A large number of studies have consistently demonstrated relationships between unit or organizational climate and individual outcomes such as performance, satisfaction, commitment, involvement and accidents (Ostroff et al, 2007). While past researches had greatly contributed to our understanding of relationships between psychological climate and a diverse set of individual-level criteria, there are two key limitations inherent in this work. Firstly, studies have tended to focus on either psychological or organizational climate on individual outcomes. This is an important omission because employee attitudes may not only be influenced by one's personal perceptions of the work environment but also by the shared perceptions of co-workers (Mathieu & Kohler, 2000). The study of emergent processes suggests that a work group's shared perceptions might influence individual attitudes above individual perceptions of the work environment (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

Secondly, research has increasingly examined a global index representing a single strategically focused climate (e.g a climate for service or a climate for safety) or has focused on a set of climate dimensions (Ostroff et al., 2007). Examining single dimensions or a set of independent dimensions of climate ignores the broader context in which they are operating. This is a limitation because it may be useful to examine multiple dimensions of climate together, as a system. Different organizational attributes are likely to mutually reinforce one another, making the total effect greater than the sum of individual dimensions (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004).

Again, there have been several approaches to the concept of climate of which two in particular have received substantial patronage (1) the cognitive scheme approach and (2) the shared perception approach. The first approach regards the concept of climate as an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment – meaning from this perspective, climate assessments should be conducted at an individual level. The second approach emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate (Whitley, 2002). Wolpin, Burke & Green (1999) define organizational climate as “the shared perception of the way things are around here”.

Organizational climate comprises of cognate sets of attitudes, values and practices that characterize the members of a particular organization. Xaba (1996) defined organizational climate as consciously perceived environmental factors subject to organizational control.

Low (1997) explained the term climate to describe the attitudes, feelings and social process of organizations. According to him, climate in this view falls into three major and well-known leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. Kaczka and Kirk (1978) defined organizational climate as a set of attributes, which can be perceived within a particular organization, department or unit.

The behavioural science literature is replete with theories and empirical research focusing on employee behaviour as a function of the simultaneous variation in both organizational dimensions and individual characteristics (Hellriegel et al, 1984). Apparently neither individual organization dimensions (climate) nor individual characteristics (job satisfaction, tension, role clarity), by themselves, explained a substantial amount of the observed variation in job satisfaction or organizational effectiveness criteria. The relationship of organizational climate to individual behaviour often emphasizes the role of employee perceptions of these dimensions as intervening variables (Schneider, 1982). Likert's approach to the study of organizations illustrates the importance of employee perceptions, e.g. his interaction – influence mode/relates causal, intervening and end-result variables (Locke, 1976 & Likert, 1967). Causal variables like climate dimensions and leadership techniques interact with personality to produce perceptions, and it is through assessment of these perceptions that the relationship between causal and end-result variables may be analyzed.

Several studies have focused on perceptually based measures of climate dimensions and job satisfaction, Friedlander and Margulies (1968), using perception data from an electronics firm, studied the multiple impact of organizational climate components and individual job values on workers satisfaction.

They found that climate had the greatest impact on satisfaction with interpersonal relationships on a job, a moderate impact upon satisfaction with recognizable advancement in the organization, and relatively less impact upon self-realization from task involvement. Pritchard and Karasick (1993) studied 76 managers from two different industrial organizations. They found climate dimensions to be moderately strongly related to such job

satisfaction facets as security working conditions and advancement opportunities. Schneider (1973) surveyed bank customers and learnt that their perception of the bank's climate was related to a form of bank switching (customer dissatisfaction). Customers who perceived their bank's climate negatively tended to switch banks more frequently than did those who perceived their banks as having a customer–employee centred atmosphere.

Some behaviourists have proposed that organizational climate can be perceived by employees within an organization (Rizzo, et al 1990; Friedlander and Margulies, 1969; Litwin and Stringer, 1978; Lawler, et al, 1994; Payne, et al, 1986; Pritchard and Karasick, 1993 and Schneider, 1982). In forming climate perceptions, the individual acts as an information processor, using information from:

- (a) the events occurring around him and the characteristics of the organization, and
- (b) personal characteristics, e.g. needs. Thus it is that perceptions emerge as a result of the activities, interactions and experiences of the individual (Pruden 1989; Schwab, et al 1990 and Litwin and Stringer, 1978).

To Pruden (1989), organization climate means "... the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that: (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organization."

Litwin and Stringer (1978) considered this definition deficient in terms of individual perceptions, noting that the climate of an organization is interpreted by its members in ways, which impact their attitude and motivation and thus proposed the following:

Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that: (a) is experienced by its members, (b) influences their behaviour and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (of attributes) of the organization.

Churchill, Ford and Walker (1994) focused on the properties of climate and offered a definition based upon a review of the factors that might contribute to climate in an organization:

... we might define climate as a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way that organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual member within the organization, climate takes the form of a set of attributes and expectancies, which describe the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behaviour – outcome and outcome – outcome contingencies.

However, these definitions have some common elements. Organizational climate is usually considered to be a molar concept in the same sense that a particular organization, while certainly not unchanging, nevertheless has an air of permanence or at least some continuity over time. Phenomenologically, climate is external to the individual, yet cognitively the climate is internal to the extent that it is affected by individual perceptions. Climate is reality-based and thus is capable of being shared in the sense that observers or participants may agree upon the climate of an organization or group, although this consensus may be constrained by individual differences in perceptions. Thus “commonality of perceptions” is considered by some researchers to differentiate climate from other organizational variables such as satisfaction. The climate of an organization potentially impacts the behaviour of people in system.

Agho, et al (1993) defined organizational climate as a conglomerate of attitudes, feelings and behaviours that characterize life in an organization. Most authors seem to assume that the organizational climate is important due to its potential to influence different organizational and psychological processes. Communication, problem solving, decision-making, learning and motivation can all be affected by the organizational climate. This in turn might have impact on the effectiveness and productivity of the organization as well as the work environment and employee well being in the workplace (Agho, 1993). Booyens (1998) defined organizational climate as the employees’ subjective impressions of the organization in which they work. Also, Moorhead and Griffin (1998) see organizational climate as referring to current situations in an organization and the linkages among work groups and their performance. According to this statement, organizational climate is seen as having

current situations that are taking place in the organization and current situations can influence employees' performance, depending on how these employees view their current situation in organizations as positive or negative, e.g. unfair labour practices. Employees can thus view their current situations in organizations as positive or negative. Their views will depend on how they perceive their organizational climate. Moorhead & Griffin (1998) admitted that management can manipulate the climate but it will affect the behaviour of employees in turn.

From the definition above, employees interacting with each other can also reveal the climate of the organization. If there are no good linkages between workgroups, the climate will be full of conflict, poor communication and lack of commitment and understanding among groups.

Organizational climate can have positive and negative effects on employees. A climate that does not promote communication upwards, downwards and laterally would lead to fear of expression of ideas and opinions. Absence of an open-door policy (situations where employees are not allowed to come to the manager with anything that is bothering them) can also have negative effects on the climate.

However, organizational climate differs from organizational culture. Organizational climate is the feeling that is conveyed by the physical layout, the way participants interact and the members of the organization conduct themselves with customers or other outsiders (Luthans, 1998). The definition emphasizes interaction among employees since people can see for themselves if the climate of the organization is positive or negative by looking at how the employees of that institution interact with each other. On the other hand, organizational culture is the customary way of thinking and behaving that is shared by all members of the organization and must be learned and adopted by newcomers before they can be accepted in the organization. This implies culture can be learned, shared and transmitted. It is also a combination of assumptions, values, symbols, language and behaviour that manifest the organization's norms and values. Managers transmit organizational culture to all members of the organization so that they are sure that all employees have the same understanding of their culture; thereby they are expected to internalize the organizational culture so that they all function at the same level.

Bunker and Wijnberg (1985), view organizational climate differently from the other authors. They see it as a generalized perception of the organization that the person forms as a result of numerous experiences in the workplace. From this definition, it can be deduced that organizational climate comprises different meanings to different employees working in a particular situation because each employee attaches different meaning to different situations. Climate then, can influence the behaviour of people found within the organization. For instance, an employee experiencing job dissatisfaction may be absent himself or herself from the workplace. Not only that, Keuter, Byrne, Voell and Larson (2000) support Bunker and Wijnberg (1985) in that they see organizational climate as a set of measurable properties of the work environment perceived directly or indirectly by the people who worked in the environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour. Both authors see organizational climate as influential to the behaviour of employees in an organization. Peterson (1995) views work environment differently – i.e. he postulated that organizational climate cannot be described as psychologically neat and orderly if they present ambiguous and conflicting stimuli – that organizational members should be viewed as active perceivers and interpreters of their organizational climate. These perceived environments could be viewed as psychologically meaningful descriptions of contingencies that individuals use to apprehend order and predict outcomes and gauge the appropriateness of their behaviour. Schneider and Rentsch (2008) stated that there are bound to be differences in the way junior academics perceive their organizational climate in relation to their counterparts. Those junior academics are likely to experience variables in their organizational climate as negative compare to the way senior academics will perceive these variables. Glisson and James (2006) and Chan, (2008) noted that perceptions emerge as a result of the activities, interactions and experiences of the individual which in the case of senior academics are more favourable to them than the junior academics who attach meaning to different situations most times negatively.

2.7.1 Climate Across Levels of Analysis

Psychological and organizational climate are conceptually related to one another. Psychological climate pertains to how organizational members perceive and make sense out of organizational policies, practices and procedures in psychologically meaningful terms (Schneider & Rentsch, 2008). Such perceptions can be idiosyncratic, even when individuals

are exposed to the same work context and situation (James & Tetrick, 2006). Organisational climate emerges from these idiosyncratic interpretations of the work environment when individuals within a particular unit (e.g group, organization) share similar perceptions of the situation. Only when individuals agree on their perceptions of the work environment can their individual perceptions be meaningfully aggregated to represent trait- or organizational level climate (James, 2004; Klein et al., 2004). Therefore, the relationship between psychological and organizational climate can be described as compositional in that both constructs reference the same content but describe qualitatively different phenomenon at the individual and unit levels of analysis (Chan,2008; James, 2004). Psychological climate is a property of the individual but when shared across individuals within a unit or organization, the aggregate of the responses represents the construct of unit or organizational climate (Glisson & James, 2006). As such, organizational climate is purported to be an emergent property because it originates in the cognition and perceptions of individuals, as well as amplified through interactions and exchanges with other unit members to manifest as a higher-level collective phenomenon (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

Different explanations have been offered about how individuals' interpretations of the organizational environment emerge and are transformed into shared perceptions (Ostroff, et al.,2007; Schneider & Rentsch, 2008). From a structural perspective, it has been suggested that unit or organizational characteristics such as size and structure (Payne & Mansfield, 2003) as well as consistency, clarity and salience in policies, practices and procedures (e.g Bowen & Ostroff, 2004) can establish a common reality that provides the basis for shared perceptions. Further through the process of attraction, selection and attrition (Schneider & Rentsch, 2008), an organization is likely to comprise people with similar views and attributes so that individuals tend to perceive and experience the work environment similarly. Communications and repeated social interactions among members of the same trait or organization influence individual views and can also contribute to the evolvement of shared perceptions and meaning (Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2007; Morgeson & Hofmann, 2009). The notion of within group agreement as a precondition for unit or organizational climate does not necessarily mean that there is perfect agreement among individuals on climate. In fact, most studies that have investigated group or organizational climate have found that there

is still some variability in perceptions within groups (Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro & Tordera,2008; Lindell& Brandt, 2000; Schneider, Salvaggio & Subirats,2002).

A Configural Approach to Unit-Level or Organisational Climate

A great deal of attention has been devoted to distinguishing between the objective versus perceptual nature of climate (Glick, 2005; James, Joyce & Slocum, 2008) and between psychological and organizational climate (Jones & James, 1999) as well as to methodological issues pertaining to the aggregation of individual climate perceptions to represent organizational climate (Chan,2008; Klein,et al.,2000). The controversies surrounding these issues have largely been resolved (Schneider, 2008). However, little attention has been directed at how best to capture climate as a system-wide variable in an organization. The notion that multiple climates exist within an organization has been widely accepted (Schneider, 2008). Yet, empirical research has tended to examine a single climate dimension or examine the relative importance of several dimensions of climate in a single study. Ostroff and her colleagues (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Ostroff et al., 2007) have suggested that a configural approach (Doty, Glick & Huber, 2003; Meyer, Tsui & Hinnings, 2003) might be fruitful in this context. Configurations can broadly be defined as conceptually distinct characteristics that commonly occur together (Meyer, et al., 2003). They allow for examining multiple characteristics simultaneously while accounting for the interrelationships and interactions among them. Applied to the study of organizational climate, organizations or work units would be characterized by several distinct profiles across multiple climates. In this case, the focus of measurement shifts from examining independent climate dimensions to patterns or systems of interrelated climate dimensions.

Configural approaches have proven useful in other areas of organizational research, particularly in human resource management (HRM). Individual HRM practices have been combined to form unique patterns of practices that depict different configurations, and these different configurations have been related to effectiveness outcomes,(e.g Delery & Doty, 2006; Doty et al, 2003; Ichniowski, Shaw & Prennushi,2007). This body of research is based on the assumption that different HRM practices are interrelated and interact as a system in achieving their effects. Examining single practices or sets of practices simultaneously in a regression does not allow for capturing complementary effects and interrelations among the practices- only by examining configurations across all practices can we determine whether

the entire system of practices, taken together, explains more than the sum of the effects of the individual practices (Ichniowski et al., 2007). Individual practices are believed to have limited ability to impact a particular outcome. Rather, in combination, the system of practices enables organizations to achieve higher performance (Becker & Gerhart, 2006). Further, it is also assumed that some patterns or configurations can be equally effective or equifinal (Delery Doty, 2006; Meyer et al., 2003).

Moving from HRM configurations to unit or organizational climate configurations is reasonable because climates are largely based on the perceptions of HR practices, policies and procedures (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 2000; Ostroff & Bowen, 2004). Configurations may provide a more integrative view of the overall climate in a particular unit or organization than focusing on single climates, or the independent or relative impact of several climate dimensions. Coherent patterns of multiple climates correspond to Lewin, Lippitt and White's, (1999) notion of climate as a 'Gestalt of the social environment'. It is also reasonable to assume that different climate dimensions interact and are interrelated in non-linear ways, which can be captured by a configural approach. Alternatively, all possible interactions among climates considered increases, the number of interaction terms increases exponentially, which may not only require very large sample sizes, but also makes the interpretation cumbersome.

2.7.2 Relative Impact of Psychological Climate and Climate Systems

A great deal of research has indicated that psychological climate and organizational (or unit level) climate is related to a variety of individual outcomes (e.g. Carr, Schmidt, Ford & DeShon, 2003). For example, a number of studies have shown that psychological climate is related to individual satisfaction (e.g. Friedlander & Marquies, 2006; Johnson & McIntye, 2008). Results from two recent meta-analytic studies also provide strong support for this relationship (Carr et al., 2008; Parker et al., 2008). In addition, cross-level studies have demonstrated that unit-level or organizational climate is also significantly related to individual satisfaction (e.g. Joyce & Slocum, 2004; Naumann & Bennet, 2000; Ostroff & Bowen 2004). However, there is an obvious lack of research examining psychological and higher level unit or organizational climate at the same time to ascertain their relative impact.

Although new to the area of climate, the idea of comparing the relative importance of individual and group-level attributes on individual attitudes and behaviour has a long history in sociology and education. Sociologists, who have supported the group effects theory, have argued that groups can (and do) have effects over and beyond those of the attributes of the group members (e.g. Blau, 2000; Merton & Kitt, 2005). For example, Blau (2000) found that workers in public assistance agencies showed more service-oriented behavior when they worked in groups with strong pro-client values than those who worked in weak pro-client value groups, after holding constant their individual pro-client values. Blau interpreted the social values that prevailed in the work groups as external constraints upon the thinking and acting of its members. Workers were not only guided by their own values, but also sought social approval of colleagues by acting in congruence with the prevailing group values.

Similar notions are evident in social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 2008) whereby job-related attitudes are purportedly based on both individuals' perceptions (which are driven by their earlier experiences and behaviour) as well as on the immediate social context (e.g. perceptions of co-workers). The complexity of the work environment expect people to rely on social cues in addition to their own perceptions in order to make sense out of the situation. In line with this argument, theories on sense making processes have stated that the cognitive representation of the organizational experience is not only determined by individual patterns of thinking and understanding but also by influential relationships and organizational norms (Gioia, Thomas, Clark, & Chittipeddi, 2004).

A number of early studies tested the social versus individual bases for job attitudes by comparing the influence of individual demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, tenure) on social structural variables such as group, department or division affiliations (Herman, Dunham, & Hulin, 2005). Results showed that group affiliations explained individual attitudes better than individual demographic characteristics. More recently, Liao and Chuang (2004) found that store-level service climate was related to individual service performance after accounting for individual-level personality traits such as conscientiousness and extraversion. However, in these studies, the individual-level and unit-level variables represented different constructs, rather than commensurate or compositional constructs at different levels of analysis (Chan, 2008). Few studies in organizational research have simultaneously examined the impact of similar constructs at different levels of analysis on

individual outcomes. For example, Mathieu and Kohler (2000) demonstrated that group-level absence is positively related to individual absence above and beyond individual-level antecedents of absenteeism. Similarly, Blau (2000) reported positive effects of group-level employee lateness on individual lateness after controlling for individual-level antecedents such as work-related attitudes, illnesses and accidents, weather and work-family conflict.

Although these studies included similar constructs at different levels of analysis, the individual-level outcome (e.g. individual absence) was related to a compositional organizational-level predictor (e.g. organizational-level absence). Thus, it is unknown whether the analogous constructs at two levels (e.g. individual absence and organizational absence, or psychological climate and organizational climate) have independent and relative effects on separate outcomes such as job satisfaction. A comparison between individual and unit-level effects of functionally similar constructs is needed.

2.7.3 Dimensions of Organizational Culture

Work organizations are characterized by a variety of dimensions related to organizational climate. These dimensions embody criteria such as means emphasis, goal emphasis, reward orientation, task support and social support (Peterson, 1995).

Means Emphasis: This relates to extent to which managers inform employees of methods and procedures they are expected to observe when performing their jobs.

Social Support: This relates to the extent to which managers take into consideration the personal welfare of their employees, for instance, giving free medical attention to sick employees, free lunch or subsidized canteen, incentive bonus, furniture allowances, extra duty allowances, lump sum payment in lieu of accommodation, etc.

Goal Emphasis: This is concerned with the way managers make their employees aware of organizational outcomes and standards that they are expected to achieve.

Reward Orientation: This is concerned with the way rewards are conferred to employees. The rewards are determined on how well the employees perform their jobs based on the standards set by the organization.

Task Support: This emphasizes that managers should provide employees with the necessary equipment, services and resources in order to be able to perform the allocated duties. However, in an organization, employees may perceive their environment as positive or negative. It is, therefore, the duty of the management to utilize certain actions that can

promote a positive organizational climate. When managers utilize these actions, the attitudes of the employees will change and focus on the goals of the organization.

2.7.4 Activities that Promote Organizational Climate

Positive organizational climate is important for the smooth running of the organization in order to promote a high level performance and satisfaction among employees. The management has the duty to make sure that the workplace climate is always positive to prevent job dissatisfaction among employees and create a sense of well-being. The management can take certain actions to change the environment. Booyens (1998) identified actions that can be utilized by the management to create a positive organizational climate.

- The development of the organization's vision, mission statement, goals and objectives can influence the management to promote a positive climate that allow full use of input from the employees in the implementation of these factors. By allowing them to participate will make them feel highly motivated to develop a sense of belonging and this becomes their organizational goal attainment.
- By establishing trust and openness between the management and the employees through communication including frequent feedback in an organization, would help in keeping morale high. Through communication, employees can raise problems that they encounter in the workplace as well as problems relating to them as individuals. Prompt feedback can thus help employees to know their strengths and weaknesses so that they can improve their performance.
- Practice of an open-door policy. Communication improves interpersonal relationships between managers and their subordinates. Communication can be promoted upwards, downwards and laterally. This can be achieved by encouraging free expression of ideas, constructive criticism and opinions. Thus, employees should be allowed to express their views freely.
- Provision of workable career ladder. Management should provide promotion opportunities for their employees. This will help the management identify employees with exceptional performance to promotion to higher positions, which will spur them for higher achievement in their units.

Lockburn & Terry (2004) support Booyen's (1998) view as he also indicated that development of organizational goals, openness through communication and the provision of opportunities for growth and an adequate career ladder will promote positive organizational climate.

McNeese-Smith (1999) reported in her study that academics indicated that they become more productive when the atmosphere in the organization is pleasant, and enjoy working where the employer helps them to do their best.

A number of studies that investigated this relationship model are Downey, et al, 1974; Johannesson, 1971; Litwin and Stringer, 1988; Lafollette and Sins, 1975; Lawler, Hall and Oldham, 1974; Pritchard and Karasick, 1973 and Schneider and Snyder, 1975.

James and Jones (1984) were critical of perception measurement of climate. They believed that variance in perceptually measured climate scores has not been demonstrated to be related to differences in situation rather than simply to differences in individuals. Thus, a danger exists that the measurements of climate duplicate other individual differences measurements such as job satisfaction. This position would seem to be supported by a multitrait-multimethod study, which concluded that climate scores were measuring the same constructs as role ambiguity, role conflict, job satisfaction, and leadership scores.

In a study of 76 managers from two organizations, Pritchard and Karasick (1973) found organizational climate as more highly related to individual job satisfaction than individual performance. They considered this result to have significant implications for organizations. Guion (1973) took an exception to their interpretation, by discussing that if perceptually measured organizational climate is an individual rather than an organizational attribute, then perceived organization climate may be identical with employees' attitudes or job satisfaction. Guion concludes:

... when the construct used is perceived organizational climate, the Pritchard and Karasick hypothesis reduces to "job satisfaction measured by one method is a function of job satisfaction measured by another one," and it is not surprising finding that one measure of job

satisfaction is more closely related to another than either is to an operationally independent measure of job performance (Guion, 1973).

Johannesson (1973) administered work attitude measures and organizational climate items to 499 employees of a company. A cluster analysis revealed substantial overlap between climate factors and work attitude factors, and Johannesson suggests that “job satisfaction and perceptually measured organizational climate are, to a large degree, redundant” (Johannesson, 1973). An overlap in these concepts is potentially attributed to the fact that many climate researchers have borrowed items for their instruments from old satisfaction measures. Similarities in the methods employed (self-report, pencil and paper measures) may also be a source of this redundancy.

Johannesson’s research and criticisms have generated at least two subsequent studies. Lafolle and Sims (1975) sampled 1,161 employees of a major medical centre in an attempt to investigate Johannesson’s redundancy hypothesis. They concluded that the correlations between organizational climate and performance were markedly different from the relationship between satisfaction and performance. If climate and job satisfaction are redundant measures, the relationships between them and job performance should not vary so dramatically. Thus, Johannesson’s claim of redundancy is not supported by this research. Lofellette and Sims further reviewed Johannesson’s research methodology and pointed out that dealing with correlations, a statistically significant relationship, by itself, is no more proof of redundancy than it is a proof of causality. Thus, “Johannesson’s conclusion of redundancy is premature and judgmental, and it is contrary to the prevailing evidence to date” (Lofellette, 1975). Lofellette and Sims’ position seems supported by Downey, et al. (1974) whose research provided some basis for conclusion that organizational climate is not one and the same.

Schneider and Synder (1975) collected questionnaire data from 522 employees, both managerial and non-managerial, from 50 life insurance agencies in an attempt to resolve issues raised by Guion and Johannesson. They examined the relationships among seven measures of organizational effectiveness, one measure of organizational climate, and two measures of job satisfaction. Organizational effectiveness was assessed via a combination of subjective ratings, production data, and turnover. Organizational climate was measured by a

short form of the Agency Climate Questionnaire (ACQ). The Job Description Index (JDI) was used to assess job satisfaction. In addition, job satisfaction was measured indirectly using a need satisfaction index. A number of interesting findings came from this research.

1. Responses to two measures of satisfaction were more related to each other than they were to a measure of climate.
2. Climate and satisfaction measures were correlated for people in some positions in the agencies but not for other positions.
3. People agreed more on the climate of their agency than they did on their satisfaction.
4. Neither satisfaction nor climate was strongly correlated with production data.
5. Satisfaction, but not climate, was correlated with turnover data.
6. Persons who described the climate of their agency in the most positive way were not necessarily the most satisfied.

In an attempt to move toward a resolution of this debate, Schneider and Snyder offered the following position:

... a logical and empirical distinction between the concept of organizational climate and job satisfaction is possible if:

1. Organizational climate is conceptualized as a characteristic of organizations, which is reflected in the descriptions employees make of the policies, and conditions, which exist in the work environment.
2. Job satisfaction is conceptualized as an affective response of individuals, which is reflected in the evaluations employees make of all individually salient aspects of their job and the organization for which they work.

At this time, whether organizational climate (particularly as it is measured perceptually) causes, mediates, or is the same concept as job satisfaction is still an open question. Research results are contradictory and lend themselves to much subjective interpretation. Since the one-shot correlation designs used in many of the field investigations of this issue allowed rival hypotheses for many of the findings, it appears that the definitive research needed to resolve this problem remains to be concluded.

2.8 Summary

The chapter looked at the framework on which the research will be based. The theoretical framework chosen for the study is Herzberg two-factor theory, which sees people as having two sets of needs: motivators and hygiene factors. The hygiene factors also known as dissatisfiers are aspects such as organizational policy and administration, supervision, salary and work conditions, – whereas satisfiers are aspects such as achievements, recognition, work itself, responsibility and development.

Again the chapter looked at the literature review that addressed issues pertaining to organizational climate. The purpose is to identify factors within the organizational climate that can lead to job dissatisfaction and to see how these factors can influence the performance of employees. Those factors identified evaluate the extent to which managers can utilize the organizational climate to increase job satisfaction and also use these factors to eliminate job dissatisfaction in the workplace.

Key concepts had been identified and explained in the chapter to facilitate understanding of all the necessary concepts in the study.

However, not all the questions raised for this study under the research questions were answered. The review succeeded in giving us the meaning of job satisfaction as indicated by different authors. The various facets of job satisfaction, the theories of job satisfaction antecedents, job characteristics model, the need for promotion of job satisfaction, the motivating factors (e.g. achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth and development etc.), and the barriers leading to dissatisfaction were enumerated and discussed.

Also, organizational climate and the various elements involved were identified including the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate, and the likely factors experienced by lecturers that could contribute to job satisfaction.

Moreover, while a number of the research questions raised at the beginning of this research have been satisfactorily answered in the reviewed literature, quite a number of them are not answered yet and these will constitute the focus of the rest of this study as well as the survey. Such questions include;

- Would organizational climate influence job satisfaction among academics?.
- Would there be a differences in the way senior academics experience their organizational climate?, and
- Would there be differences in the way different universities perceive the organizational climate?.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction:

The objective of this study was to identify elements within the organizational climate that may cause job satisfaction among academic staff and to make recommendations for improving on them.

This section is to discuss the procedures for gathering data, the study design, and the methods to be adopted in analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Design.

In this study, a cross-sectional study design with an exploratory and descriptive design were used. Cross-sectional design is used when information is to be collected only once (Babbie, 1989; Mallhota et al, 1996).

Cross-sectional survey design is justified on the ground that we should adopt one time observation, involving proximate and ultimate variables necessary for the study.

However, exploratory and descriptive designs focus on the phenomenon of interest, which according to this study, is to find out whether there is a difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive their organizational climate, and help in identifying factors relating to organizational climate that may cause job dissatisfaction among academics. According to Polit and Hungler (1991), exploratory research is concerned about the phenomenon of interest and pursues the factors that influence affect, cause or relate to the phenomenon. It is expected to help establish, whether senior academics and junior academics experience the existing organizational climate differently.

3.3 Population of the Study

The study population from which the sample was drawn for the study consists of eighteen private universities in the southwest Nigeria. Out of these private universities, five were taken as the study sample through judgmental sampling method and questionnaires were administered to the academic staff ranging from the Professors, Associate Professors, Senior lecturers, Lecturers 1, Lecturers 2, Assistant lecturers and Graduate Assistants. The total

number of academic staff in the selected private universities is 754 (Researcher’s Field Survey Report, 2008).

The private universities chosen for this study are: (1) Covenant University: (2) Bells University of Technology: (3) Crawford University: (4) Babcock University and (5) Bowen University.

Covenant University is chosen for this study because it is the best sought after private university in JAMB enrolment. The Bells University of Technology is chosen because it is the only university operating in the southwest among its peers as University of Technology. For Babcock, because it is the oldest in the southwest while for Crawford University, it is new relatively to the first three mentioned and Bowen University because it secured 100% success for the second time within five years in 2008 edition of the nationwide National Universities Commission (NUC) accreditation exercise.

3.4 Determination of Sample size for the Academics.

One of the most important tasks for the researcher is to select educational settings and negotiating access to the participants or respondents (Steyn and Van Wyk, 1999).

The study is based on a sample frame of five private Universities drawn from the population of private Universities in the Southwest Nigeria based on their ratings in the 2007 edition of nationwide National Universities Commission (NUC) accreditation exercise. The five private Universities are: Covenant University, Bells University of Technology, Babcock University, Crawford University and Bowen University.

However, below is the statistical information regarding the selected university academic staff as at October, 2008.

Table 3.1 Population Distribution of Sampled Universities

University	Total Population
Covenant University	417
The Bells University	56
Crawford University	46
Babcock University	146
Bowen University	89
Total	754

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Report, 2008.

Daniel and Terrell (2006) advanced the formula below to determine the sample size for estimating means, i.e. $n = \frac{Z^2 r^2}{d^2}$

Z= level of confidence= 1.96(95%).

r= population of variability (variance) = (standard deviation)²

But r is always unknown and has to be estimated through: Pilot survey, similar studies and through the formula $V=R/6$.

d= discrepancy i.e. the level of error to be tolerated between the true value and the estimated value.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Variance} &= \frac{\text{Range}}{6} \quad \text{where Range} = \frac{\text{Highest} - \text{Lowest}}{6} \\ &= \frac{417 - 46}{6} = \frac{371}{6} = 61.833333 \end{aligned}$$

APP: = 62.

d, is calculated using the formula; r/\sqrt{n} = pilot survey.

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt[6]{100} &= 62/10 = 6.2 \\ n &= \frac{Z^2 \cdot r^2}{d^2} = \\ &= \frac{(1.96)^2 \cdot (62)^2}{(6.2)^2} = \frac{3.8416 \times 3844}{38.44} = 384 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, our sample size is 384.

3.5 Sampling Techniques.

Stratified random sampling technique was used for this study. Most studies conducted used convenience sampling technique because not everybody would be around as such whoever is around completes the questionnaire; but for this study, we used stratified random sampling because of the nature of the population of study and the behavioural pattern of the profession that they are more on ground than what obtains in the public universities. This work certified Cooper and Schinder (2006), criteria for usage of stratified random method namely: (a) increased sample's statistical efficiency; (b) adequacy of data for analyzing the various sub populations or strata; and the usage of different research methods and procedures for

different strata. In addition, the work ensured that stratified sampling was used in this study to ensure that the universities with their different numbers of academic staff are well represented.

Going by the information on the academic staff in these universities as shown in the Table 3.1 above, the following Table 3.2 was therefore designed on questionnaire administered to respondents in the study Universities, rate of questionnaires returned and the total number analyzed.

Table 3.2 Summary of Questionnaire Administration, Returned and Analyzed

S/N	Name of Universities	Copies of Questionnaire Administered	Copies of Questionnaires Returned	Copies Analyzed	Total % of No. Analyzed
1	Covenant University	97	87	87	29.69
2	The Bells University of Technology	56	40	40	13.65
3	Crawford University	46	24	24	23.89
4	Babcock University	96	70	70	8.20
5	Bowen University	89	72	72	24.57
	Total	384	293	293	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Report, 2008

From Table 3.2 above, for Bells, Crawford and Bowen University, the total population serve as the sample size, i.e. fifty-six copies of questionnaires were administered to Bells University of Technology, forty-six copies of questionnaires to Crawford and eighty-nine copies of questionnaires to Bowen University. The justification for the use of the total population as the sample size include the fact that total sample size for these three Universities is relatively small, and the fact that the researcher wanted to avoid incidence of low response rate from the respondents.

This is in line with Asika (2000) and Otokiti (2005) assertion that the best sample size is a complete census of the population and that all the elements of the population are expected to be included in the survey. This will make the sample statistics valid estimates of the population parameters.

Moreover, the remaining two Universities, i.e. Covenant University and Babcock, ninety-seven and ninety-six copies of questionnaire were administered respectively being the balance of one hundred and ninety- three from the total sample of three hundred and eighty four after giving the other three Universities the numbers as indicated above being their population equal to the sample size which amounted to one hundred and ninety one. The distribution of the sample size over the remaining two Universities (i.e. Covenant University

and Babcock University) which are the remaining Universities were carried out using Proportional Affixation Criterion (PAC), i.e. Universities sample in each stratum is proportional to the relative weight of the stratum in relation to the population. Within each University, selection is conducted through simple random sampling.

3.6 Sampling Frame

To achieve the objectives of the study, the sampling frame was drawn from the academics of five selected functional private Universities in the Southwest, Nigeria.

In addition, sample was drawn on junior and senior academics of these Universities ranging from the professors, to the Associate professors/ Reader, to the senior lecturers, lecturer I, lecturer II, Assistant lecturers and Graduate Assistants. The sample frame was drawn from the staff record departments of the Universities in the study. The questionnaires were personally administered to the Universities under study.

3.7 (a) Design of Research Instrument

The study made use of questionnaire as the research instrument. The majority of questions used were adapted from a questionnaire on job satisfaction by Lee (1987), with modifications to suit the research context. The research was designed in such a way that information about a large number of people was deduced from responses obtained from a smaller group of subjects (the sample).

The following steps were followed in going about the research design:

- a. A pilot study (of the questionnaire) was conducted to establish the adequacy and reliability of the instrument in wording, content, question sequencing and bias. It is a way of providing ideas and to test the relevance of the instrument to the environment in which the academics are employed.
- b. The unstructured interviews were conducted with the academic staff after the pilot study to ascertain that all the questions in the study are simple and easy to comprehend.
- c. The final stage was the administration of the adapted questionnaire to a sample from selected private universities within the Southwest part of Nigeria.

3.7 (b) Pre-testing of instruments

A pilot study is a small-scale version or trial run done before the main study on a limited number of subjects for the same population as intended for the eventual project. Such a pilot study would be carried out to investigate the feasibility of the proposed study and to detect possible flaws in the data collecting instruments such as time and length of the questionnaire, ambiguous instructions or wording, inadequate time limits and whether the variables defined by operational definitions were actually observable and measurable (Brink, 1996).

For the pre-testing, 10 copies of the questionnaire were given to senior colleagues, colleagues, a statistician from Covenant University, Ota, and thereafter a pilot study was conducted. It was established in the literature that between 5-10 copies of the questionnaire to representative respondents are enough to identify problems in a questionnaire (Narver and Slater, 1990; Burns and Bush, 1998).

3.8. Division of Questionnaire

The questionnaire had three sections: A, B and C. Section A dealt with questions directed to senior and junior academic staff covering major areas of this research with seventy-three measuring questions. Section B contained four open ended questions about what the respondents feel about their organizations' personal career development, their work environment, professional career development and their involvement in decision making. Lastly, Section C dealt with the respondents bio-data information (i.e. the demographic and biographical details of the academics including the years of experience, gender, highest academic qualifications) with four measuring questions.

Five-point Likert scale was used in the design of the questionnaire. There was no established number of categories that deemed optional for research scaling. In practice, scales of five categories are typical (Reichheld, 2003; Grigoroudis and Sikos, 2002).

Also, Lassitz and Greche(1975) in an investigation of the effects of scale points on reliability, conclude that scale reliability increases with the number of intervals, five points or more being more reliable than 4, 3 or 2 points.

For purification of scale, we used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in which the Non-factor Index (NFI), Confirmatory Factor Index (CFI), Standardized Root Mean Square Error (SRME), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the degree of

freedom (df) were determined. This purification exercise revealed the degree of internal consistency and overall homogeneity among the items comprising the scales. It also showed the extent the model fits the data which depended on the loading of the items on the hypothesized constructs.

3.9 Data collection method

Data collection is a process of identifying subjects and gathering data from these subjects (Burns and Grove, 1997). Data was collected through a well-structured questionnaire. Questionnaire according to Polit and Hungler (1991) is a method of gathering self report information from respondents through administration of questions. Treece and Treece (1986) submitted that questionnaire facilitates gathering of data from a widely scattered sample. Asika (2000) defines a questionnaire as consisting a set of questions designed to gather information or data for analysis, the result of which are used to answer the research questions or used for the test of relevant hypotheses.

Survey research method was used for this study through the distribution of copies of questionnaire to collect necessary information from respondents.

The researcher utilized one structured questionnaire for both the senior academics and junior academics and was presented personally to all respondents by the researcher in the selected private universities. Thus, this enhanced uniformity of response bearing in mind the degree of variations in perception of what the organizational climate is. A structured questionnaire gives respondents a number of alternative options from which they must choose the one that most closely approximates the view of the respondents (Polit and Hungler, 1991). The value of the study and the instructions were explained to the respondents. Respondents were requested to complete the questionnaires which were collected personally by the researcher from individual respondents which ensured a high return rate and encouraged freedom of expression from the respondents.

3.10 Reliability and Validity of the Research Instrument

Measurement such as content validity and face validity were used to ensure internal validity. Data collected from the participants during the pilot study were evaluated to ensure that instrument measured the variables it is intended to measure.

3.10.1 Validity

Validity is the ability of an instrument to measure the variable it is intended to measure (Asika, 2000). Every measuring instrument is designed for a specific measurement. If it is correctly designed, it measures what it is supposed to measure. If it is faulty, then it measures something, which may not be what it is supposed to measure.

Polit and Hungler (1991) refer to validity as the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. According to Polit and Hungler (1991), there are four types of validity for measuring instruments designed to collect quantitative data, these are; Construct validity, Content validity, Criterion validity and Face validity. However, for this study, content validity, face and convergent validity were applicable and are discussed below:

Content validity of an instrument is the degree to which a test appears to measure a concept by logical analysis of the items. The emphasis is on adequate coverage by the instrument of the scope implied by the topic of study. Content validity is to ensure that:

- All the relevant dimensions of the topic are being fully explored; and that,
- The measuring instrument adequately covers all the dimensions or at least a good representation of all the dimensions of the topic of research.

For this study, experts reviewed the objectives of the study and questionnaire items to decide on the appropriateness of the test items and to ensure that all the questions asked in the questionnaire fully exhaust all that are implied by the research questions and hypotheses. The following took part in the evaluation of the content validity: a statistician, the researcher's supervisor, co-supervisor and the senior colleagues in the field. They examined each item and made judgments on the test items to ensure they represent adequate hypothetical content in correct proportions, paying particular attention to their relevance to the subject matter and their coverage of the entire topic of study. Brink (1996) described content validity as an assessment of how well the instruments represent all the different components of the

variables to be measured. To do this effectively, a literature review was conducted and key concepts identified and used in the formulation of questions, which were sent to the experts (statisticians, my supervisor and co- supervisor) to evaluate the content and items against the study.

Face validity or logical validity involves an analysis of whether the instrument appears to be on a valid scale. By looking at the instrument, the investigators decided that it has face validity. According to Treece and Treece (1986), face validity should be included in every test for validity. In this study, face validity was done to check whether the instrument contained the important items to be measured. Not only that, convergent validity describes the extent to which each of the items concurrently measures the issue at stake.

3.10.1.1 Internal Validity

Internal validity is the extent to which the effects detected in the study are a true reflection of reality other than being the result of the effects of extraneous variables. It addresses the question “Did the research design actually elicit the appropriate responses for which it was designed”? Threats to internal validity can be found in any study and these threats can lead to a false positive or false negative conclusion. Threats to internal validity can include history which pertains to events that are not related to the planned study; maturation -meaning the subject being measured may become tired, bored, wiser, or may be influenced by incidental learning or experiences; Instrumentation - unreliable test instruments may produce distorted results; Experimental mortality- this is loss of subjects from the sample due to resignations, death or apathy before completion; Statistical regression - subjects which score highest on a pre-test may score lower on post-test, Placebo or Hawthorne effect - this is a bias in favour of the experimental group because of the observed reaction to the unaccustomed intention they received.

However, in this study none of these threats to internal validity is recorded. For example, there are no histories which pertain to events that are not related to the planned study. Moreover, none of the subjects measured became tired, bored or influenced by incidental experiences during the study. The instruments used were tested for validity and found reliable, meaning no distorted results.

Not only that, no experimental mortality was recorded as there was no loss of subjects from the sample due to death or resignation before completion.

3.10.1.2 External Validity

External validity is concerned with the extent to which the study findings can be generalized beyond the sample in the study (Burns and Bush, 1998). The researcher used the results obtained from the samples used in the study to generalize the perceptions of academic staff to those selected universities within the southwestern zone that took part in the study and to other private universities in the south-west that did not partake in the study.

3.10.2 Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which measurement of the test are repeated. Thus, this implies that measuring instrument results should be consistent when the instrument is repeated. A researcher who designs a measuring instrument must ensure that the instrument gives similar, close or the same results if the study to which the instrument is applied is replicated. In other words, would the instrument give the same or similar result when different researcher under the same assumptions and condition uses it? Asika (2000) defined reliability as the consistency between independent measurements of the same phenomenon. Reliability is then the stability, dependability and predictability of the measuring instrument. It is the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument. There are four ways a researcher can possibly test for reliability (Asika, 2000). These are:

Test-re-test reliability, multiple (alternate) form, split half technique and Cronbach's alpha test.

In test-re-test reliability, the same measuring instrument is used to take two separate measurements on the same populations at different times. The higher the correlation between the two measurements, the higher will be the reliability of the measuring instrument.

Multiple (alternate) forms reliability attempts to test for reliability through the use of the same measuring instrument administered on different dimensions of the same variables. A high association among the forms shows a high reliability of the instrument. Low association between the forms shows that the forms are not equivalent and may indicate low reliability. In split-half technique, the assumption is that the measurement items can be randomly

assigned to two equal parts. That is, the measurement items can be randomly split into half and each half is now treated as an alternative form of the same measurement.

The Cronbach's alpha test proceeds by associating each measurement item with every other measurement item and obtaining the average inter-correlation for all the paired associations. However, in this study, a set of questions were used to measure the organizational climate in the selected private universities in the south-western zone of Nigeria, thus the test-re-test method was adopted and the Cronbach alpha reliability co-efficient was measured. The method is easy and simple to apply because the respondents and the measuring instrument are the same. Copies of the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and the process repeated after sometime.

3.10 Data Presentation and Analysis

The collected data were analyzed by making use of descriptive statistics, which enabled the researcher to synthesize and summarise the quantitative data. The descriptive statistics described the sample in terms of the responses to the questions using frequencies, means and standard deviations. The difference between the views of the senior and junior academic staff was established by comparing the means of the groups with regard to similar variables.

Frequencies are the number of times a response has occurred (Salkind, 2000), a mean is the sum of a set of scores divided by the number of scores and a standard deviation measures variability around the mean (Salkind, 2000). In other words, that mean is obtained by adding all the observations and dividing the sum by the number of observations i.e. Mean =

$$\frac{\text{Sum of all items}}{\text{Number of the items}} = \frac{\sum X}{n}$$

For hypothesis one, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients which measures the degree of relationships between the variables was used to measure this relationship. For Hypotheses 2-4, Multiple Regression which measures nature of relationship and contributions of variables to a system of equation were used to analyse these hypotheses. For hypothesis 5, ANOVA, which measures variations among variables, was used with independent t-test to ascertain the degree of significance of the measured variation among senior and junior academic in this study. When two mean scores are compared, the t – test is used. An independent t -test measures the difference between two independent, unrelated

groups. The mean scores of senior and academic staff were compared by means of an independent t–test.

$$\text{Symbolically, } t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}} \quad t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(N_1-1)S_1^2 + (N_2-1)S_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2} \left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2} \right)}}$$

Also the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if the mean scores of the two groups (group A and group B) differ. If a significant result is found between groups, it will not tell us between which groups the difference exists. For this purpose, a post hoc analysis was carried out to compare the mean.

The universities were compared with regards to their views on organizational climate by means of an ANOVA test. However, the ANOVA procedure is based on the mathematical theory that the independent sample data can be made to yield two independent estimates of the population variance, namely;

- (i). Within group variance estimate deals with how different each of the values in a given sample is from other values in the same group.
- (ii). Between group variance estimate deals with how different the means of the various samples (or groups) are from each other .

The responses from the questionnaire administered were presented in form of tables, charts and figures as appropriate.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS PRESENTATION, ANALYSES, AND INTERPRETATIONS

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the results of the empirical research findings. The main aim of the research was to investigate Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff in some Selected Private Universities within the South West Zone of Nigeria. Five Private Universities (for ethical purposes in chapters four and five, we denote the Universities with the alphabets A,B,C,D and E) were visited and all of them co-operated. In all, 384 copies of questionnaires were administered to these private Universities, but a total of 293 questionnaires were returned fully and appropriately filled.

This represents a response rate of 76.30%. An analysis of the questionnaires by total responses showed that Covenant University has the highest response rate of 87 (29.69%); Bowen University has 72 (24.57%); Babcock University has 70 (23.89%); Bell University has 40 (13.65%) and Crawford has 24 (8.20%). Therefore the whole 293 questionnaires retrieved were used in the analysis of this study.

4.2. Socio-Demographic Profile of Respondents

In this section, the researcher reported the demographic profile of the sample, showing the sample distributions in terms of rank/level in the University, years the respondents have been in their current University, gender, years they have spent lecturing in the University system generally and age.

4.2.1 Rank in the University

The position of respondents in the Universities is given below in Table 4.1. The respondents for this study fall into seven categories, which are grouped into two main groups: Senior academics and junior academics. These two groups were considered with regards to their perceptions concerning the organizational climate.

Table 4.1: Rank in the University

		Rank in the university.						Total	
		Prof	Reader	Snr Lec	Lec I	Lec II	A/L	Grad Asst.	
Name of univ sampled	A	2	1	6	5	10	13	3	40
	B	6	0	10	2	4	1	1	24
	C	3	6	13	14	15	12	7	70
	D	6	5	0	13	21	19	8	72
	E	11	5	12	10	18	11	20	87
Total		28	17	41	44	68	56	39	293
Percentage		9.6	5.8	14.0	15.0	23.2	19.1	13.3	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The academic positions that comprise each of the two groups are:

Senior Academics; Group A.

- Professor.
- Associate Professor / Reader.
- Senior Lecturer.

Junior Academics; Group B.

- Lecturer I.
- Lecturer II.
- Assistant Lecturer.
- Graduate Assistant.

As seen from Table 4.1 above, the number of Professors in all the Universities covered were 28, representing 9.6% of the total. We have 2 Professors from University A, 6 Professors from University B, 3 from University C, 6 from University D and 11 Professors from University E. Associate Professors / Readers had frequency of 17 representing 5.8%. 1 of these 17 came from University A, none from University B, 6 were from University C, 5 came from University D and 5 from University E. Senior Lecturer accounted for 41, representing 14% of the total sample with the various numbers from each university as shown in the table above. Lecturer I in their numbers were 44, representing 15% of the total sample; Lecturer II were 68, representing 23.2% of the total while Assistant Lecturers were 56, representing 19.1% and Graduate Assistant were 39, representing 13.3% of the total sample. The numbers as we have from each of these universities are shown in Table 4.1 above.

However, as seen from the Table 4.1, the Associate Professor / Reader have a very small representation (5.8%) in the sample. A possible reason for the low response rate of Associate Professor / Reader is that the senior academics are not top heavy, that is, they are always smaller in number when compared with junior academics.

4.2.2: Years of Experience in the Current University

Table 4.2: Years of Experience in the Current University.

Years	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	45	15.4	15.4	15.4
2	70	23.9	23.9	39.2
3	53	18.1	18.1	57.3
4	56	19.1	19.1	76.5
5	47	16.0	16.0	92.5
6	16	5.5	5.5	98.0
7	5	1.7	1.7	99.7
Total	293	100.0	100.0	

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.2 shows that 45 respondents i.e. 15.4% have only spent a year in their current University; 70 of the respondents i.e. 23.9% have spent two years in their current institution; 53 respondents representing 18% have spent three years, 56 respondents i.e. 19.1% have been in the current University for four years; 47 respondents i.e. 16.0 have spent five years while 16 respondents representing 5.5% have spent six years in their current institutions. Not only that, 5 respondents i.e. 1.7% have spent seven years. This shows that larger percentage of the respondents have spent just two years in their current University and very few i.e. 5 respondents have stayed up to seven years in their present institution.

4.2.3: Gender Distribution of Respondents

The gender distribution is given in figure 4.3a and 4.3b.

Table 4.3a: Gender.

	Code of univ sampled					Total
	A	B	C	D	E	Bells
Gender. male	31	21	53	58	46	209
Female	9	3	17	14	41	84
Total	40	24	70	72	87	293

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

The respondents were mostly males, that is 209 respondents out of the total 293 questionnaires returned were male representing 71.3% of the total sample while 84 respondents (28.7%) were female, which is consistent with the gender distribution of

academics in general. The aim of including gender of respondents was to establish whether there is a difference in the way female academics and male academics perceive the organizational climate.

Table 4.3b: Gender. * Code of Universities sampled Cross tabulation

			Code of univ sampled					Total
			A	B	C	D	E	
Gender.	male	Count	31	21	53	58	46	209
		% within Gender.	14.8%	10.0%	25.4%	27.8%	22.0%	100.0%
		% within Name of univ sampled	77.5%	87.5%	75.7%	80.6%	52.9%	71.3%
	Female	Count	9	3	17	14	41	84
		% within Gender.	10.7%	3.6%	20.2%	16.7%	48.8%	100.0%
		% within Name of univ sampled	22.5%	12.5%	24.3%	19.4%	47.1%	28.7%
Total	Count	40	24	70	72	87	293	
	% within Gender.	13.7%	8.2%	23.9%	24.6%	29.7%	100.0%	
	% within Name of univ sampled	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	13.7%	8.2%	23.9%	24.6%	29.7%	100.0%	

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.3b above shows the gender cross tabulation of the five universities sampled. The table explains the various numbers of these males and females from each school. For example, out of the 209 male respondents for this research, 31 came from University A (representing 14.8%), 21 from University B (representing 10%), 53 were from University C (representing 25.4%), 58 of them came from University D (representing 27.8% and 46 were from University E (representing 22.0%).

However, for female out of the total of 84 female respondents, 9 (representing 10.7%) were from University A, 3 (representing 3.6%) were from University B, 17 (representing 20.2%) came from University C. Not only that, 14 (representing 16.7%) came from University C while 41 (representing 48.8%) were from University E.

4.2.4: Years Spent Lecturing in the University System Generally

The number of year's respondents has spent in the University system generally is presented in Table 4.4a and 4.4b below. From the Tables, 11 respondents have spent between 1-4 years

in University A representing 17.2%, 21 respondents have spent between 5-8 years (representing 14.6%), 6 persons have spent between 9-12 years (representing 13.3%), no one has spent between 13-16 years while we have one person each between the years 17-20 and 21 years over.

Moreover, for Universities B, C, D, and E, only 2 respondents have spent between 1-4 years whereas we have 14 for University C (representing 3.1%), 11 for University D (representing 21.9%) and 26 for University E (representing 40.6%). For respondents who have spent between 13-16 years, none in both Universities B and E but we have 1 from University C and 2 from University D. Not only that, for those who have spent 21 years and above, only 2 from, University B, 4 from University C, 6 from University D and 10 from University E.

Table 4.4a: Years of Exp In Group * Code of University Sampled Cross tabulation

		Code of univ sampled					Total
		A	B	C	D	E	
years of exp in group	1-4years	11	2	14	11	26	64
	5-8years	21	9	37	45	32	144
	9-12years	6	7	10	7	15	45
	13-16 yrs	0	0	1	2	0	3
	17-20yrs	1	4	4	1	4	14
	21 yrs and over	1	2	4	6	10	23
Total		40	24	70	72	87	293

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009).

Table 4.4b: Years of Exp In Group * Code of University Sampled Cross tabulation

			Code of univ sampled					Total
			A	B	C	D	E	
years of exp in group	1-4years	Count	11	2	14	11	26	64
		% within years of exp in group	17.2%	3.1%	21.9%	17.2%	40.6%	100.0%
	5-8years	Count	21	9	37	45	32	144
		% within years of exp in group	14.6%	6.3%	25.7%	31.3%	22.2%	100.0%
	9-12years	Count	6	7	10	7	15	45
		% within years of exp in group	13.3%	15.6%	22.2%	15.6%	33.3%	100.0%
	13-16 yrs	Count	0	0	1	2	0	3
		% within years of exp in group	.0%	.0%	33.3%	66.7%	.0%	100.0%
	17-20yrs	Count	1	4	4	1	4	14
		% within years of exp in group	7.1%	28.6%	28.6%	7.1%	28.6%	100.0%
	21 yrs and over	Count	1	2	4	6	10	23
		% within years of exp in group	4.3%	8.7%	17.4%	26.1%	43.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	40	24	70	72	87	293
		% within years of exp in group	13.7%	8.2%	23.9%	24.6%	29.7%	100.0%

Source: Researcher’s Field survey Result (2009)

4.2.5: Age

A large number of respondents are within the age bracket of between 26–40 and that represents 38.2% of the total sample (i.e. 112 respondents) followed by 111 respondents of age brackets between 41–60 which represents 37.9% of the total sample. 43 of the respondents are within the age bracket 19–25 representing 14.7% of the total sample. Only twenty-seven respondents are up to 61 years and above meaning that majority of the sampled respondents are young academics of within the age bracket 26-60.

Table 4.5a Recoded age of lecturers * Code of University sampled Cross tabulation

		Code of univ sampled					Total
		A	B	C	D	E	
Recoded age of lecturers	19-25	4	1	6	6	26	43
	26-40	25	7	23	31	26	112
	41-60	9	9	33	28	32	111
	61 and over	2	7	8	7	3	27
Total		40	24	70	72	87	293

Source: Researcher's Field survey Result (2009)

Table 4.5b Recoded age of lecturers * Code of University sampled Cross tabulation

			Code of univ sampled					Total
			A	B	C	D	E	
Recoded age of lecturers	19-25	Count	4	1	6	6	26	43
		% within Recoded age of lecturers	9.3%	2.3%	14.0%	14.0%	60.5%	100.0%
		% within Name of univ sampled	10.0%	4.2%	8.6%	8.3%	29.9%	14.7%
		% of Total	1.4%	.3%	2.0%	2.0%	8.9%	14.7%
	26-40	Count	25	7	23	31	26	112
		% within Recoded age of lecturers	22.3%	6.3%	20.5%	27.7%	23.2%	100.0%
		% within Name of univ sampled	62.5%	29.2%	32.9%	43.1%	29.9%	38.2%
		% of Total	8.5%	2.4%	7.8%	10.6%	8.9%	38.2%
	41-60	Count	9	9	33	28	32	111
		% within Recoded age of lecturers	8.1%	8.1%	29.7%	25.2%	28.8%	100.0%
		% within Name of univ sampled	22.5%	37.5%	47.1%	38.9%	36.8%	37.9%
		% of Total	3.1%	3.1%	11.3%	9.6%	10.9%	37.9%
61 and over	Count	2	7	8	7	3	27	
	% within Recoded age of lecturers	7.4%	25.9%	29.6%	25.9%	11.1%	100.0%	
	% within Name of univ sampled	5.0%	29.2%	11.4%	9.7%	3.4%	9.2%	
	% of Total	.7%	2.4%	2.7%	2.4%	1.0%	9.2%	
Total	Count	40	24	70	72	87	293	
	% within Recoded age of lecturers	13.7%	8.2%	23.9%	24.6%	29.7%	100.0%	
	% within Name of univ sampled	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	13.7%	8.2%	23.9%	24.6%	29.7%	100.0%	

Source: Researcher's Field survey Result (2009)

Table 4.6: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

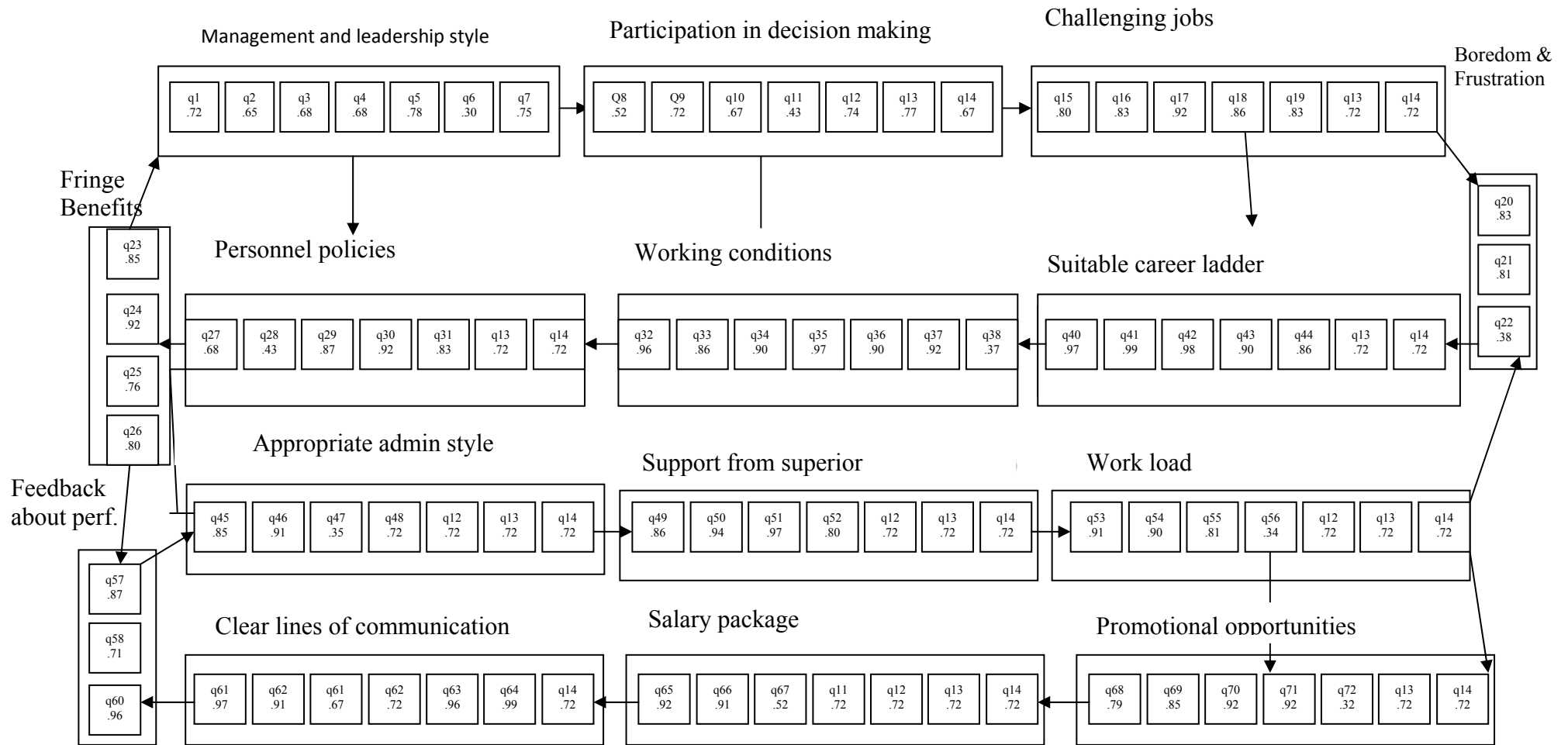
Sn	Variables	Range of Standard Factor Loading	Cronbach α	NNFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	χ^2 (df, p value)
	Management and Leadership	0.30-0.78	.892	0.93	.95	0.04	0.09	432.86
	Management and leadership style in my University does not support lecturing profession.	0.72	.896	0.95	0.94	0.05	0.10	224.18
	Management and leadership style is sensitive and supportive of lecturer's work schedule.	0.65	.892	0.94	0.95	0.06	0.08	255.07
	Management style does not allow for academic input in the decision making process.	0.68	.899	0.93	0.95	0.05	0.07	94.41
	Management style encourages junior academic career path and growth.	0.68	.892	0.95	0.96	0.06	0.11	257.49
	Senior academics do not provide feedback on employees' evaluation and performance.	0.78	.897	0.92	0.95	0.07	0.12	79.46
	I am generally satisfied with the leadership style in my organization	0.30	.888	0.94	0.94	0.05	0.09	114.628
	I will like my Head of Department to change his or her leadership style.	0.75	.897	0.96	0.95	0.06	0.11	124.65
2.	Participation in Decision-making	0.43-0.77	.893	0.93	0.93	0.08	0.08	342.78
	Senior academics schedule work for all categories of lecturers.	0.52	.894	0.92	0.94	0.07	0.09	178.87
	Junior academics participate in decision making.	0.72	.891	0.91	0.93	0.06	0.09	138.78
	My participation in decision making enhance my ability to perform.	0.67	.892	0.90	0.93	0.08	0.10	299.43
	I never question rules set by the senior colleagues.	0.43	.894	0.94	0.96	0.07	0.11	120.97
	I am allowed autonomy in discharging my duties.	0.74	.889	0.92	0.94	0.05	0.08	115.43
	My abilities are taken into consideration when delegating.	0.77	.889	0.93	0.96	0.06	0.09	115.36
	I am involved when the University policies are reviewed.	0.67	.889	0.92	0.96	0.08	0.10	150.70
3.	Challenging Job	0.80-0.92	.890	0.91	0.92	0.08	0.09	510.38
	I believe that the University sets high standard of performance.	0.80	.892	0.90	0.93	0.09	0.11	382.31
	Delegated responsibilities are challenging to me.	0.83	.892	0.90	0.94	0.08	0.11	269.32
	Delegated responsibilities allowed me to overcome limitation in my experience.	0.92	.893	0.90	0.94	0.07	0.09	358.92
	I find delegated responsibilities interesting.	0.86	.893	0.92	0.94	0.09	0.10	386.13
	My job is challenging.	0.83	.893	0.93	0.96	0.08	0.10	296.35
4.	Boredom and Frustration	0.38-0.83	.894	0.94	0.96	0.09	0.09	261.17
	Lecturers are given sufficient instruction on how to go about their work.	0.83	.892	0.92	0.94	0.08	0.08	95.39
	Senior academics schedule work for all categories of lecturers.	0.81	.897	0.92	0.94	0.09	0.09	324.96
	My work does not allow for use of my own discretion.	0.38	.891	0.92	0.94	0.09	0.09	115.72
5.	Fringe Benefits	0.76-0.92	.890	0.92	0.94	0.08	0.10	236.63
	I am satisfied with the benefits that I receive at the University.	0.85	.891	0.91	0.92	0.07	0.11	173.10
	The benefits I receive are adequate to fulfill my basic needs.	0.92	.891	0.92	0.93	0.08	0.12	213.24
	My benefits equal my contributions to the University goals.	0.76	.892	0.93	0.96	0.09	0.10	324.96
	The benefits in my University are equal with the external labour market.	0.80	.890	0.92	0.94	0.08	0.10	189.16

Sn.	Variables	Range of Standardised Factor Loading	Cronbach α	NNFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	χ^2 (df, p - value)
6.	Personnel Policies	0.43-0.92	.889	0.93	0.94	0.07	0.10	286.43
	Lecturers work together when doing routine duties.	0.68	.891	0.92	0.94	0.06	0.09	203.55
	My work is evaluated according to the organization's set standards.	0.43	.890	0.90	0.94	0.07	0.08	396.13
	I am informed about any new or revised policies.	0.87	.889	0.96	0.98	0.08	0.10	111.86
	I believe my departmental policies facilitate the achievement of my goals.	0.92	.888	0.95	0.98	0.07	0.10	110.50
	My University sponsor local and overseas training.	0.83	.888	0.96	0.99	0.08	0.10	121.14
7.	Working Condition	0.32-0.97	.889	0.92	0.94	0.08	0.09	226.62
	My department provides sufficient material for our use.	0.96	.889	0.90	0.94	0.09	0.10	138.85
	Supplies are available when needed.	0.86	.890	0.91	0.93	0.09	0.10	194.67
	Lecturers co-operate well with each other in the University.	0.90	.889	0.92	0.96	0.08	0.10	163.46
	I am facilitated to overcome limitations in my experience.	0.97	.889	0.93	0.96	0.04	0.11	129.13
	My senior colleagues create a challenging environment for me.	0.90	.889	0.92	0.95	0.05	0.09	126.01
	The University provides the equipment and resources necessary for me to execute my responsibilities.	0.92	.888	0.93	0.95	0.06	0.09	86.02
	My work place is a noise-free environment.	0.37	.892	0.94	0.95	0.07	0.10	351.28
I feel that my work place is a safe environment.	0.32	.892	0.91	0.92	0.07	0.09	311.42	
8.	Suitable Career Ladder	0.86-0.99	.889	0.92	0.93	0.07	0.09	255.48
	Senior academics share useful information with junior academics.	0.97	.888	0.90	0.94	0.08	0.09	132.92
	Senior academics ensure high performance among the junior academics.	0.99	.888	0.90	0.94	0.09	0.10	108.24
	Senior academics provide me with opportunities to overcome any limitations in knowledge.	0.98	.889	0.90	0.92	0.08	0.10	111.25
	I believe that I have opportunity for career advancement.	0.90	.890	0.91	0.93	0.07	0.09	237.72
	Career paths are well defined.	0.86	.890	0.94	0.99	0.08	0.10	173.21
9.	Appropriate Admin Style	0.35-0.91	.893	0.91	0.96	0.04	0.09	299.28
	We spend too much time at meetings.	0.85	.893	0.90	0.93	0.05	0.10	173.21
	Time spent at meetings keep me from doing my best on the job.	0.91	.897	0.91	0.94	0.06	0.10	80.74
	I benefit a lot from meetings.	0.35	.890	0.92	0.94	0.04	0.09	77.33
	If I have my way, I will avoid going for the meetings.	0.84	.897	0.93	0.96	0.05	0.10	79.67
10.	Support from Supervisors	0.80-0.97	.888	0.94	0.97	0.06	0.11	194.96
	Senior academics help to solve personal problems of their junior colleagues.	0.86	.889	0.95	0.98	0.07	0.10	141.41
	Senior academics sometimes do personal favour for junior academics.	0.94	.888	0.93	0.96	0.06	0.10	136.63
	Senior academics encourage their subordinates to take initiatives in solving problems.	0.97	.888	0.94	0.97	0.05	0.10	129.23
	Senior academics are willing to listen to job related problems.	0.80	.889	0.92	0.99	0.04	0.10	130.36

Sn.	Variables	Range of Standardised Factor Loading	Cronbach α	NNFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	$\chi^2 (df, p - value)$
11.	Work load	0.34-0.91	.892	0.91	0.93	0.06	0.11	436.12
	allocated to me are sometimes outside my area/field of specialization.	0.91	.896	0.92	0.94	0.07	0.09	86.69
	Workload is often increased because my colleagues are not doing their jobs properly.	0.90	.895	0.92	0.96	0.07	0.08	85.24
	Level of education and experience is used in allocating courses.	0.81	.893	0.91	0.92	0.07	0.09	244.68
	I am encouraged to make inputs with regards to my job.	0.34	.888	0.92	0.94	0.08	0.10	155.67
12.	Feedback Performance	0.71-0.96	.889	0.93	0.95	0.09	0.10	237.69
	Academics explain reasons for his or her criticism.	0.87	.888	0.94	0.96	0.09	0.10	123.75
	I am promoted based on my performance.	.071	.892	0.95	0.99	0.08	0.11	237.93
	Performance appraisal are fair.	0.96	.889	0.90	0.92	0.07	0.10	95.97
13.	Clear Lines of Communication	0.67-0.99	.889	0.90	0.92	0.09	0.10	218.73
	I am made aware of the rules and regulations I have to follow.	0.97	.889	0.91	0.92	0.08	0.11	170.09
	It is easy for me to talk with my superior.	0.91	.888	0.94	0.96	0.08	0.10	135.26
	I am aware of the University goals and objectives.	0.67	.892	0.92	0.96	0.08	0.11	498.58
	I know what the University's mission statement is.	0.72	.892	0.93	0.99	0.09	0.10	469.40
	I know exactly what is expected of me.	0.96	.890	0.92	0.98	0.09	0.10	217.72
	The primary procedure is well outlined and communicated to all.	0.99	.888	0.90	0.98	0.08	0.11	99.30
14.	Salary Package	0.52-0.92	.890	0.90	0.94	0.04	0.09	278.80
	The university remuneration package is competitive.	0.92	.889	0.91	0.96	0.06	0.08	63.57
	I am satisfied with the totality of my salary package.	0.91	.890	0.94	0.99	0.07	0.08	111.04
	If a better option am willing to leave this organization immediately.	0.52	.895	0.92	0.96	0.08	0.10	61.32
15.	Promotional Opportunities	0.32-0.92	.889	0.91	0.93	0.09	0.11	119.4
	Given the opportunity to attend workshops, seminars and conferences to expand my knowledge.	0.79	.890	0.90	0.96	0.08	0.11	154.16
	Appropriate in-service education programmes leading to promotions are available.	0.85	.889	0.92	0.93	0.07	0.10	114.49
	I have even opportunities to express my professional developmental needs.	0.92	.887	0.90	0.94	0.06	0.11	105.89
	Promotion criteria are well defined.	0.92	.888	0.92	0.95	0.08	0.10	141.459
	The job is a dead end job.	0.32	.893	0.94	0.97	0.09	0.11	61.41

- NNFI – Non-normed Factor Index * CFI - Confirmatory Factor Index * SRMR - Standardized Root Mean Square Error
- RMSEA – Root Mean Square Error of Approximation * DF – Degree of Freedom

Figure 4.1: MODEL OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND JOB SATISFACTION VARIABLES



Source: Researcher's Field Survey Report (2009)

The range of standardised factor loading is considerably high for all variables, the lowest being 0.30- “I am generally satisfied with the leadership style in my organization” a variable in management and leadership style. Apart from this, all other variables have factor loading above 0.30. For example, the range of standardized factor loading for each of the major variables are management and leadership style (0.30-0.78), participation in decision making (0.43-0.77), challenging job (0.80-0.92), boredom and frustration (0.38-0.83), fringe benefits (0.76-0.92), personnel policies (0.43-0.92), working condition (0.32-0.97), suitable career ladder (0.86-0.99), Appropriate Administrative Style (0.35-0.91), Support from supervisors (0.80-0.97) Work load (0.34-0.91), feedback about performance (0.71-0.96), Clear lines of communication (0.67-0.99), Realistic salary package (0.52-0.92) and finally, Promotional opportunities (0.32-0.92).

Most of the variables are within the acceptable range of 0.4 for applied research. The range is highest in career ladder with 0.86-0.99. Generally, there is internal consistency and overall homogeneity among items comprising the scales.

The reliability test using the Cronbach alpha shows a high value of between 0.80-0.90, indicating that the research instrument is reliable, that is, it has consistently measured what it is supposed to measure.

The structural equation model result using AMOS 18.0 with NNFI ranging from 0.90-0.96, CFI,= 0.92-0.99), SRMR= (0.04-0.09) and RMSEA= (0.7-0.11) shows that the model fits the data rather well with chi-square ranging from (61.32-510.38) significant at 0.05 level of significance.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the constructs are indicated in Table 4.7 showing the mean, standard deviation, skewness and Kurtosis scores of the construct. The average scores from the 5-point Likert scale where 5 is strongly agree and 1 is strongly disagree for all the variables are computed to show the proportion of the respondents that either strongly agreed or tended to disagree with the items of the variables. The mean scores are obtained by compiling the mean scores of all the items in each variable (SPSS Computer Variables Version 15).

The means score of those that emphasize that management and leadership style in their Universities do not support lecturing profession is 2.40 on 5-point scale, while the standard deviation is 1.233. This means that in the average, respondents do not agree with the fact that management and leadership style in their Universities do not support lecturing profession. Secondly, the mean score of those respondents that are of the opinion that management and leadership style is sensitive and supportive of lecturer's work schedule is 3.73 and standard deviation is 1.097. This implies that in the average, respondents supported the fact that management and leadership style in their Universities is sensitive and supportive of the lecturer's work schedule.

Table 4.7: Descriptive Statistics for Variables in Management and Leadership Style

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Management and leadership style in my University does not support lecturing profession.	293	2.40	1.233	.912	.142	-.316	.284
Management and leadership style is sensitive and supportive of lecturer's work schedule.	293	3.73	1.097	-.952	.142	.016	.284
Management style does not allow for academic input in the decision making process.	290	3.05	1.370	-.078	.143	-1.424	.285
Management style encourages junior academic career path and growth.	293	3.77	1.078	-1.078	.142	.466	.284
Senior academics do not provide feedback on employees' evaluation and performance.	289	3.07	1.350	-.084	.143	-1.378	.286
I am generally satisfied with the leadership style in my organization	293	2.61	1.324	.510	.142	-1.061	.284
Valid N (listwise)	286						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Also, the mean score of whether management style does not allow for academic input in decision making process is 3.05 while the standard deviation is 1.370. This indicates that in the average on 5-point scale, the respondents agree that the management style does not allow for academic input in decision making process.

Furthermore, the mean score for the fourth statement on Table 4.7 above shows 3.77 with the standard deviation of 1.078. Thus, on the average on a 5-point scale, this means that the respondents support the statement.

Likewise, on the statement about whether senior academics provide feedback on employees' evaluation and performance, the mean score is 3.07 with the standard deviation of 1.350. It implies that the average on a 5-point scale, the respondents agree with the fact that senior academics do not provide feedback on employees' evaluation and performance.

For the last statement on the table about whether the respondents are generally satisfied with the leadership style in their organization, the respondents agree on the mean score of 2.61 with the standard deviation of 1.324. In other words, that on the average on a 5-point scale on the mean score of 2.61, the respondents are generally satisfied with the leadership style in their organization.

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics for Participation in Decision Making

The descriptive statistics for participation in decision making variables are shown in Table 4.8 below.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Senior academics schedule work for all categories of lecturers.	287	3.57	1.153	-.766	.144	-.398	.287
Junior academics participate in decision making.	292	2.58	1.256	.480	.143	-1.041	.284
My participation in decision making enhance my ability to perform.	291	3.87	1.029	-1.304	.143	1.324	.285
I never question rules set by the senior colleagues.	293	3.34	1.263	-.326	.142	-1.204	.284
I am allowed autonomy in discharging my duties.	291	2.96	1.322	.016	.143	-1.397	.285
My abilities are taken into consideration when delegating.	292	3.18	1.377	-.368	.143	-1.294	.284
I am involved when the University policies are reviewed.	292	2.18	1.342	.792	.143	-.806	.284
Valid N (listwise)	283						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The mean, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of all the constructs are displayed above. On Likert's 5-point scale, the mean for all the variables are more than half of the point scale (i.e. 2.5) except for the last construct, which is 2.18 – that is, the last respondents

disagree with the fact that they are involved when the University policies are been reviewed. For the other constructs, the respondents agree, for instance that senior academics schedule works for all categories of lecturers at mean value of 3.57. At mean score of 3.34 and 2.96 respectively, the respondents agree that they never question rules set by the senior colleagues and that they are allowed autonomy in discharging their duties. Not only that, the respondents agree that their abilities are taken into consideration when delegating at mean score of 3.18 and that their participation in decision making enhance their ability to perform at a high mean score of 3.87. These indicate that the level of respondents' participation in decision making is high and this enhances their ability to perform.

Table 4.9: Descriptive Statistics for Challenging Job Variables

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
I believe that the University sets high standard of performance.	292	4.09	.861	-1.702	.143	3.990	.284
Delegated responsibilities are challenging to me.	291	3.85	1.060	-1.278	.143	1.187	.285
Delegated responsibilities allowed me to overcome limitation in my experience.	293	4.05	.867	-1.491	.142	2.959	.284
I find delegated responsibilities interesting.	293	4.11	.799	-1.456	.142	3.299	.284
My job is challenging.	292	4.07	.928	-1.358	.143	1.882	.284
Valid N (listwise)	289						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The descriptive statistics for challenging job variables are shown in Table 4.9 above. The mean score of the respondents answers to their believes that the University sets high standard of performance is 4.09 on a 5-point scale, while the standard deviation is 0.861. This means that in the sampled Universities, the respondents support the fact that the Universities set high standard of performance. For answers, pertaining to the delegated responsibilities, the means scores for each question items are 3.85, 4.05 and 4.11 respectively. In other words, the respondents agree that delegated responsibilities are challenging to them with mean value of 3.85 and standard deviation of 1.060; they supported the fact that delegated responsibilities allowed them to overcome limitation in their experience with means score of 4.05 and standard deviation of 0.867. However, they also agree that delegated responsibilities are interesting to them and that their job is challenging at mean scores of 4.11 and 4.07.

A critical review of the mean column in Table 4.9 shows that no variable has a mean score of less than 2.5 on a 5-point scale. This indicates that respondents agree or strongly agree with all the variables regarding delegated responsibilities and challenging job.

Table 4.10: Descriptive Statistics for Boredom and Frustration

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Lecturers are given sufficient instruction on how to go about their work.	292	2.90	1.355	.048	.143	-1.416	.284
My work does not allow for use of my own discretion.	289	2.56	1.335	.546	.143	-1.039	.286
Valid N (listwise)	288						

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.10 above shows the descriptive statistics for boredom and frustration factors. Respondents agree that they are given sufficient instruction on how to go about their work; and secondly, they are of the opinion that their work does not allow for use of their own discretion. This indicates that lecturers are being tailored in their work. They are being given instructions on how to go about their work which will not give room for them to exercise their discretion on how they can better perform their work. Thus, no motivation and initiative are allowed.

Table 4.11: Descriptive Statistics on Fringe Benefits

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
I am satisfied with the benefits that I receive at the University.	291	2.04	1.155	1.090	.143	.247	.285
The benefits I receive are adequate to fulfill my basic needs.	292	1.96	1.172	1.216	.143	.425	.284
My benefits equal my contributions to the University goals.	293	1.68	.827	1.602	.142	3.130	.284
The benefits in my University are equal with the external labour market.	292	1.99	1.196	1.083	.143	.020	.284
Valid N (listwise)	290						

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

The descriptive statistics for fringe benefits variables is shown in Table 4.11 above. The respondents disagree with all the constructs in this variable. For example, the mean score for

the satisfaction with benefits they receive at their University is 2.04; the mean score for the adequacy of the benefits in fulfilling their basic needs is 1.96; the mean score for the equality of the benefits to their contributions to the University goals is 1.68 and the mean score for the equality of their University benefits to the external labour market is 1.99. These indicate no variable has a mean score of up to 2.5 on a 5-point scale, meaning; (1) they are not satisfied with benefits they receive at the University; (2) the benefits they receive are not adequate to fulfill their basic needs; (3) the benefits they receive are not equal with their contributions to the University goal and; (4) the benefits in their University are not equal with the external labour market.

Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics on Personnel Policies

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Lecturers work together when doing routine duties.	290	3.40	1.176	-.716	.143	-.612	.285
My work is evaluated according to the organization's set standards.	291	4.06	.785	-1.399	.143	3.262	.285
I am informed about any new or revised policies.	290	3.03	1.326	-.096	.143	-1.387	.285
I believe my departmental policies facilitate the achievement of my goals.	292	3.00	1.341	-.089	.143	-1.408	.284
My University sponsor local and overseas training.	291	2.79	1.349	.313	.143	-1.309	.285
Valid N (listwise)	283						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

From the above table, the respondents agree that lecturers work together when doing routine duties and their works are evaluated according to the organization's set standards at the mean values of 3.40 and 4.06 respectively. They supported the fact that anytime there is a view or revised policies, they are informed and that their departmental policies facilitate the achievement of their goals at the mean score of 3.03 and 3.00 respectively. They are of the opinion that their University sponsor local and overseas training at a mean value of 2.79 and the standard deviation of 0.313.

Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics on Working Conditions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
My department provides sufficient material for our use.	292	2.60	1.295	.508	.143	-1.056	.284
Supplies are available when needed.	292	2.39	1.139	.699	.143	-.579	.284
Lecturers co-operate well with each other in the University.	293	3.33	1.291	-.543	.142	-1.025	.284
I am facilitated to overcome limitations in my experience.	292	3.26	1.284	-.451	.143	-1.091	.284
My senior colleagues create a challenging environment for me.	292	3.13	1.310	-.298	.143	-1.283	.284
The University provides the equipment and resources necessary for me to execute my responsibilities.	291	2.80	1.372	.156	.143	-1.404	.285
My work place is a noise-free environment.	293	3.95	.989	-1.553	.142	2.398	.284
I feel that my work place is a safe environment.	293	3.96	.975	-1.392	.142	1.884	.284
Valid N (listwise)	287						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Responses to the variables on working conditions show that the respondents agree to all the facts raised except that they disagree with the second variable that supplies are available when needed at the mean value of 2.39. They agree that lecturers cooperate well with each other in the University (at mean value of 3.3), that the senior colleagues create a challenging environment for them, that the University provides the equipment and resources necessary for them to execute their responsibilities (at mean value of 2.80), that their work place is a noise-free environment (at mean value of 3.95) and that their work place is a safe environment.

Table 4.14: Descriptive Statistics on Career Ladder

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Senior academics share useful information with junior academics.	289	2.85	1.273	.272	.143	-1.262	.286
Senior academics ensure high performance among the junior academics.	293	3.05	1.310	-.019	.142	-1.375	.284
Senior academics provide me with opportunities to overcome any limitations in knowledge.	292	2.91	1.330	.096	.143	-1.390	.284
I believe that I have opportunity for career advancement.	292	3.57	1.184	-.891	.143	-.278	.284
Valid N (listwise)	287						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The descriptive statistics on career ladder is shown in Table 4.13 above. The mean values for all the measuring variables in the table show that the respondents agree and support all the facts raised. On 5-point scale, the mean value for the first construct is 2.85; i.e. senior

academics share useful information with junior academics. The mean score for senior academics ensuring high performance among the junior academics is 3.05. The respondents believe that senior academics provide them with opportunities to overcome any limitations in knowledge at mean value of 2.91 and they believe they have opportunity for career advancement at a mean score of 3.57 with standard deviation of 1.184.

Table 4.15: Descriptive Statistics on Administrative Style

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
We spend too much time in meetings.	291	3.86	1.316	-1.133	.143	.057	.285
Time spent in meetings keep me from doing my best on the job.	292	3.40	1.397	-.446	.143	-1.216	.284
I benefit a lot from meetings.	291	2.84	1.347	.295	.143	-1.263	.285
If I have my way, I will avoid going for the meetings.	292	3.36	1.389	-.377	.143	-1.274	.284
Valid N (listwise)	289						

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

In Table 4.14 above, the respondents support the constructs outlined there. They support the fact that they spend too much time in meetings (at mean score of 3.86) which keep them from doing their best on the job (at mean score of 3.40) and that if they have their way, they will avoid going for the meetings (at 3.36 mean value), but the mean value of respondents answers to their benefiting from the meetings is 2.84, which is low compared to the mean values of the other constructs. Thus, we can rightly conclude that the respondents do not like their going for meetings as this obstructs their plans and prevent them from achieving as expected of which they are ready to avoid going if they have their ways.

Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics on Support from Superiors

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Senior academics help to solve personal problems of their junior colleagues.	290	2.58	1.271	.542	.143	-.975	.285
Senior academics sometimes do personal favour for junior academics.	291	2.69	1.303	.335	.143	-1.263	.285
Senior academics encourage their subordinates to take initiatives in solving problems.	292	2.86	1.304	.078	.143	-1.394	.284
Senior academics are willing to listen to job related problems.	292	2.99	1.341	-.041	.143	-1.435	.284
Valid N (listwise)	287						

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

The above Table 4.16 signifies that the respondents enjoy support from their senior colleagues because all their responses are above 2.50 on a 5-point scale though all the mean values are low as they are all a little above 2.50. None of them is up to 3.00 as shown in the table. For example, they agree that the senior academics help to solve personal problems of their junior colleagues at mean values of 2.58; that senior academic sometimes do personal favour for junior academics at a mean value of 2.69; that senior academics encourage their subordinates to take initiatives in solving problems at a mean score of 2.86 and that senior academics are willing to listen to job related problems at a mean value of 2.99 which is a bit higher than the other mean value, yet not up to 3.00.

Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics on Workload

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Courses allocated to me are sometimes outside my area/field of specialization.	292	3.08	1.423	-.111	.143	-1.472	.284
My workload is often increased because my colleagues are not doing their jobs properly.	293	3.00	1.402	.038	.142	-1.459	.284
My level of education and experience is used in allocating courses.	289	3.66	1.122	-.934	.143	-.052	.286
I am encouraged to make inputs with regards to my job.	292	2.99	1.298	.045	.143	-1.414	.284
Valid N (listwise)	287						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Respondents are of the opinion that the courses allocated to them are sometimes outside their area /field of specialization with mean a value of 3.08 and that their workload is often increased because their colleagues are not doing their jobs properly at a mean value of 3.00. Again, they submit that their level of education and experience is used in allocating courses at a mean value of 3.66 while agreeing that they are encouraged to make inputs with regards to their jobs at mean score of 2.99.

Table 4.18: Descriptive Statistics on Feedback about Performance

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Senior academics explain reasons for his or her criticism.	291	3.06	1.278	-.120	.143	-1.337	.285
I am promoted based on my performance.	290	3.73	1.055	-1.005	.143	.388	.285
My performance appraisal are fair.	292	3.20	1.292	-.253	.143	-1.244	.284
Valid N (listwise)	289						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Responses from the table above show the descriptive statistics on feedback about performance. The respondents supported all the propositions raised on this variable. They supported that the senior academics explain reasons for their criticism at a mean value of 3.06. They agreed that their performance appraisal is fair at a mean score of 3.73 and also, that they are promoted based on their performance at a mean score of 3.20.

Table 4.19: Descriptive Statistics on Lines of Communication

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
I am made aware of the rules and regulations I have to follow.	292	3.37	1.321	-.582	.143	-1.021	.284
It is easy for me to talk with my superior.	292	3.38	1.348	-.456	.143	-1.193	.284
I am aware of the University goals and objectives.	293	4.13	.675	-1.507	.142	5.490	.284
I know what the University's mission statement is.	293	4.17	.698	-1.470	.142	4.549	.284
I know exactly what is expected of me.	292	3.74	1.137	-.930	.143	-.088	.284
Disciplinary procedure is well outlined and communicated to all.	292	3.11	1.332	-.123	.143	-1.370	.284
Valid N (listwise)	289						

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

From Table 4.19 above, respondents expressed their views on the communication lines in the University. They agree that they are made aware of the rules and regulations they have to follow (at a mean value of 3.37); that it is easy for them to talk with their superior (at a mean value of 3.38); that they are aware of the University goals and objectives and also the University mission statement (both at mean values of 4.13 and 4.17 respectively). They agreed that the disciplinary procedure is well outlined and communicated to all (at a mean value of 3.11) and that they know exactly what is expected of them (at a mean value 3.74).

Table 4.20: Descriptive Statistics on Salary Package

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
University remuneration package is competitive.	293	2.53	1.320	.403	.142	-1.155	.284
I am satisfied with the totality of my salary package.	292	2.28	1.291	.806	.143	-.558	.284
If I get better option am willing to leave this organization immediately	292	3.49	1.283	-.520	.143	-.897	.284
Valid N (listwise)	291						

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

The responses from the table above show that the respondents are not satisfied with the totality of their salary package. They disagreed that they are satisfied with the totality of their salary package at mean value of 2.28, which is below the average on a 5-point scale. The mean value for their responses also on whether the University remuneration package is competitive is very low as it tends towards the value of the average of a 5-point scale i.e. 2.53 is just a little above the average.

They submitted that if they get a better option, they are willing to leave the organization immediately – this they agree at the mean value of 3.49.

Table 4.21: Descriptive Statistics on Promotional Opportunities

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
I am given the opportunity to attend workshops, seminars and conferences to expand my knowledge.	292	3.37	1.249	0-.487	0.143	-1.029	.284
Appropriate in-service education programmes leading to promotions are available.	293	2.73	1.279	0.308	0.142	-1.214	.284
I am given opportunities to express my professional developmental needs.	293	2.97	1.328	0-.058	0.142	-1.394	.284
Promotion criteria are well defined.	293	2.95	1.331	0.044	0.142	-1.373	.284
I am in a dead end job.	292	1.47	.520	0.359	0.143	-1.365	.284
Valid N (listwise)	291						

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

Responses in the table above show that the Universities are committed to the promotional opportunities of their academic staff both in their professional and developmental needs. They are given the opportunity to attend workshops, seminars and conferences to expand their knowledge, also appropriate in-service education programmes leading to promotions are available at the mean value of 3.37 and 2.73 respectively. They are given opportunities to express their professional and developmental needs at 2.97 values and that the promotion

criteria are well defined. They disagreed that they are in a dead end job at a very low value of 1.47.

4.4 Hypothesis Testing

Objective 1: To find out the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in South-West Nigeria.

6. **Research Question 1:** What is the significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in Southwest Nigeria?

Hypothesis 1: There would be no positive significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in South-West Nigeria.

Given that the correlation co-efficient measures the degree to which two things vary together, this present study correlated two variables: Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction in testing hypothesis one.

Table 4.22: Mean Scores (X) and Standard Deviation (SD) of Subjects in Measures of Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction Variables

Measures	X (N=293)	STANDARD DEVIATION
JOB SATISFACTION		
Mgt & Leader	3.1233	.52463
Decision Making	3.0958	.56595
Challenge Job	4.0305	.58745
Boredom	2.7321	.84545
Fringe Benefit	2.2123	.71612
Personnel Policy	3.0915	.87342
Work Condition	3.2106	.72491
Career	3.3899	.79200
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE VARIABLES		
Administrative style	3.0420	.59812
Supervisor support	2.9061	.76827
Work load	3.3578	.75359
Feedback	3.4278	.96268
Communication	3.5097	.74916
Salary Package	3.0478	.72293
Promotional Opportunities	2.5307	.83630
Age	2.4232	.86706
Present Experience	3.2594	1.87109
General Experience	8.3208	6.41377
Rank	4.4710	1.79326

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The results in table 4.22 above showed that the subjects had the highest means score in organizational climate variables such as experience in the university generally, followed by rank in the university, line of communication and feedback about performance. They had the least mean scores in job satisfaction variables such as fringe benefits, boredom and frustration and personnel policy.

However, the mean scores in the 19 variables were obtained for (academics in five selected private universities, gender and rank) groups to ascertain the normative scores for the measuring instruments.

Table 4.23: Correlation Analysis of Organisational Climate and Job Satisfaction

		Organclimate	Jobsatis
Organclimate	Pearson Correlation	1	0.671(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	40.268	35.118
	Covariance	0.138	0.120
	N	293	293
Jobsatis	Pearson Correlation	0.671(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	35.118	68.098
	Covariance	0.120	0.233
	N	293	293

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result

The findings show a significant positive relationship between these two variables-organizational climate and job satisfaction and the Pearson Correlation using 2-tail test at $r = 0.671$, 0.01 significant level and 292 degree of freedom. The sum of squares and cross products for organizational climate is 40.268 and 35.118 for job satisfaction while covariances for the two variables are 0.138 and 0.120 respectively for organizational climate at 292 degree of freedom.

However, for job satisfaction, the sum of squares and cross products for organizational climate shows 35.118 and 68.098 for job satisfaction. Covariances for these two are 0.120 and 0.233 respectively at 293 degree of freedom.

Therefore, we accept the alternate hypothesis which states that there would be positive significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction and reject the null hypothesis that state there would be no positive significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Objective 2: To identify factors that determines job satisfaction of academics and their consequential effects on academic excellence.

Research Question 2: What are the factors that determine job satisfaction of academics and their impact on academic excellence?

Hypothesis 2: Factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities would not significantly contribute to job satisfaction.

**Table 4.24: Determinants of Job Satisfaction: Regression Estimate
(Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction)**

Variables	B-Coefficients	t-values	Sig
COMMUNICATION	0.253*	13.122	0.000
SALARY PACK	0.172*	10.401	0.000
PROMOOPP	0.266*	14.015	0.000
(Constant)	0.994	15.621	
R ²	0.825		
Adjusted R ²	0.823		
F	453.524		
Std Error of the estimate	0.20318		
Sig of F	0.000		

* Significant at 1% lever or beta

Dependent Variable: JOBSATIS.

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The F statistic which tests the overall significance of the model has the value of 453.524 with (3,289) degrees of freedom. The significance of F is 0.000 and as such the null hypothesis can be rejected at 1% level. That is, job satisfaction is influenced by those variables i.e. clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities and the f value standing at 453.524.

The corresponding t- statistic for each of these factors include; 13.122 (for clear lines of communication), 10.401 (for realistic salary package) and 14.015 (for promotional opportunities), which has a significant level of 0.000. Thus, the finding supported the fact that factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities contribute to job satisfaction.

The R-squared (R^2) for the regression is 0.825 and the R-square adjusted for degrees of freedom (R^2_{adj}) for the regression is 0.823. The root mean square error is .20318. It should be noted that the root mean square error is the square root of the mean square error reported for the residual (in the ANOVA table).

The statistics presented in Table 4.24 above under R square is called the coefficient of determination and referred to as R^2 . In this study, 82.5% of the variability in job satisfaction can be explained by factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities. The remaining 17.5% of variability is due to other unexplained factors. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis that factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities would significantly contribute to job satisfaction (82.5%).

Table 4.25: Descriptive Statistics of Job Satisfaction, Clear Lines of Communication, Salary Pack and Promotional Opportunity

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
JOBSATIS	3.1094	.48292	293
COMMUNICATN	3.6503	.78651	293
SALARYPACK	2.7651	.76989	293
PROMOOPP	2.6964	.82083	293

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

The mean values of job satisfaction, communication, salary package and promotional opportunities are 3.1094, 3.6503, 2.7651 and 2.6964. Since five (5) points Likert Scale is used and all the mean values are more than 2.5, it implies that the respondents agree that job satisfaction is influenced by factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotion opportunities.

Objective 3: To determine whether faculty leaving a university is based on not being satisfied with the workload, feedback about performance and support from superior.

Research Question 3: Do faculty leave a university based on dissatisfaction with the workload, feedback process and support from superior and which adversely affect University functioning?

Hypothesis 3: Faculty leaving a University based on dissatisfaction cannot be significantly described by work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors.

Table 4.26: Determinants of Faculty Leaving a University Based on Their Dissatisfaction. Regression Estimate (Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction).

Variables	B-Coefficients	t-values	Sig
SUPERVSUP	0.257*	17.059	0.000
WORKLOAD	0.179*	10.106	0.000
FEEDBACK	0.218*	12.884	0.000
(Constant)	1.098	14.682	
R ²	0.798		
Adjusted R ²	0.796		
F	378.886		
Std Error of the estimate	0.21826		
Sig of F	0.000		

*Significant at 1% level or beta

Predictors: (Constant), FEEDBACK, WORKLOAD, SUPERVSUP

Dependent Variable: JOBSATIS

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The F statistic tests the overall significance of the model. The F value of 378.886 with (3,288) degrees of freedom is significant at 0.000, meaning a number smaller than 0.0005 (i.e. <.05). Since it is less than 0.05, it means it is significant. Thus, job dissatisfaction can be significantly influenced by work overload, lack of feedback about performance and lack of support from superiors that could result in academics' exit from the university at sum of squares of 54.146, degree of significance of 3,288.

The corresponding t- statistic for each of these factors include 17.059 for lack of support from superiors, 10.106 for work overload and 12.884 for lack of feedback about performance, all of which have a significance of 0.000. Therefore, the result supported the alternate hypothesis that job dissatisfaction can be significantly explained by work overload, lack of feedback about performance and lack of support from superiors that tend to induce the exit of academics from the university.

The statistics represents in Table 4.26 above under R square is coefficient of determination and referred to as R². Here, 79.8% of the variability in job satisfaction can be explained by the factors like work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors. The remaining 20.2% of variability is due to other unexplained factors. Thus, this supports the rejection of the null hypothesis but support the acceptance of alternate hypothesis, that

Faculty leaving a University based on dissatisfaction can be significantly described by work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors.

Objective 4: To identify organizational climate variables that can cause job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of academics.

Research Question 4: Does organizational climate include boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making?

Hypothesis 4: Organizational climate consists of participation in decision making, boredom and frustration, personnel policies and working conditions which would not significantly encourage job satisfaction among academic staff in private University.

Table 4.27: Descriptive Statistics of Organisational Climate, Boredom, Personnel Policy and Decision Making

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ORGANCLIMATE	3.0507	.37135	293
BOREDOM	2.7321	.84545	293
PERSPOLICY	3.2510	.78098	293
WORKCOND	3.0667	.81984	293
DECISIONMAKE	3.0958	.56595	293

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The mean values of organizational climate, boredom and frustration, personnel policy, working condition and decision making are as shown in Table 4.27 as 3.0507, 2.7321, 3.2510, 3.0667 and 3.0958 respectively. Since five (5) point Likert Scale was used and all the mean values each are more than 2.5 (half of 5), it means that the respondents strongly agree that organizational climate include boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making.

Table 4.28: The Correlation Matrix of All Measures

Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1.mgtl	1																			
2.deci	-.114	1																		
3.chal	.017	.188**	1																	
4.bore	-.055	-.016	.213**	1																
5.fring	-.147*	.383**	-.052	-.007	1															
6.pers	-.255**	.425**	-.079	-.115*	.481**	1														
7.work	-.304**	.427**	-.024	-.218**	.469**	.763**	1													
8.carer	-.348**	.331**	-.104	-.101	.336**	.498**	.636**	1												
9.adm	.055	.142	.068	-.132*	-.070	.003	.114	.097	1											
10.sup	-.179**	.452**	-.003	-.211**	.440**	.514**	.531**	.517**	.101	1										
11.wlo	-.223**	.314**	-.006	-.190**	.364**	.575**	.622**	.426**	.022	.523**	1									
12.fba	-.273**	.271**	-.023	-.240**	.228**	.549**	.667**	.510**	.151*	.397**	.686**	1								
13.co	-.194**	.334**	-.027	-.198**	.376**	.535**	.672**	.616**	.124*	.499**	.504**	.627**	1							
14.sal	-.066	.392**	.215**	-.003	.230**	.295**	.281**	.197**	.174**	.321**	.148*	.173**	.295**	1						
15.pro	-.314**	.463**	-.064	-.103	.408**	.640**	.658**	.614**	.169**	.512**	.533**	.612**	.609**	.377**	1					
16.age	-.185**	-.017	-.087	.062	-.004	.098	.148*	.133*	.055	.128*	.103	.180**	.132*	-.129*	.219**	1				
17.pre	-.257**	.125*	-.019	-.104	.040	.051	.059	.157**	.020	.091	.095	.031	.080	.008	.109	.181**	1			
18.gen	-.212**	.322**	-.034	-.218**	.152**	.336**	.338**	.316**	.027	.418**	.290**	.285**	.294**	.160**	.422**	.416**	.304**	1		
19.ran	.247**	-.316**	.070	.225**	-.180**	-.370**	-.372**	-.338**	.002	-.412**	-.298**	-.356**	-.334**	-.169**	-.485**	-.554**	-.335**	-.856**	1	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

A correlation analysis was conducted on all variables in order to check for multicollinearity and to find the level of relationship between variables multicollinearity is shown when inter-correlation between explanatory variables exceed 0.8. Our interpretation of the relationships between the variables will follow Roundtree (1987) guidelines. Roundtree classification of correlation co-efficient (r) is as follows:

0.00 to 0.02 – weak and low

0.02 to 0.04 – moderate

0.04 to 0.07 — strong and high

0.07 to 0.09 – very strong and very high

Organizational climate and job satisfaction variables were subjected to correlational analysis to determine relationships that exist if any among the variables (see table 4.28). Academics believe that (a) challenging job is positively related with rank in the university ($r = 0.90$); (b) personal policy is positively related to age ($r=0.098$); (c) workload is positively related to years of experience in the current university ($r=0.095$) and (d) line of communication is positively related to years of experience in the current university ($r=0.080$).

This shows that job satisfaction variables: personnel policy, work condition and challenging job are positively related to organizational climate variables: line of communication, supervisor support etc. This means that job satisfaction is positively related to organizational climate. The degree of the relationships was determined with the hypotheses testing.

**Table 4.29 Organizational Climate Variables: Regression Estimate.
(Dependent Variable: Organizational Climate).**

Variables	B-Coefficients	t-values	Sig
BOREDOM	0.152*	15.001	0.000
PERS POLICY	0.191*	11.963	0.000
WORKCOND	0.191*	12.746	0.000
DECISIONMAKE	0.173*	10.276	0.000
(Constant)	0.893	15.384	
R ²	0.857		
Adjusted R ²	0.855		
F	430.768		
Std Error of the estimate	0.14150		
Sig of F	0.000		

*Significant at 1% level or beta

Predictors: (Constant), DECISIONMAKE, BOREDOM, WORKCOND, PERSPOLICY

Dependent Variable: ORGANCLIMATE

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The F-value is the Mean Square Regression (8.625) divided by the Mean Square Residual (0.020) yielding F=430.768. This tests the overall significance of the model with (4, 288) degrees of freedom and significant at 0.000. These values are used to answer the question. "Does organizational climate include boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working condition and participation in decision making"? As such, it is found that the variables listed above can be said to reliably make up organizational climate.

The results of the estimated coefficients indicate that the dependent variable is organizational climate, followed by the four estimated coefficients. These include .152, .191, .191 and .173. The corresponding t- statistic for each of these factors include 15.001 for boredom and frustration, 11.963 for personnel policy, 12.746 for working condition and 10.276 for participation in decision making, all of which have a significance level of 0.000. This means that all the explanatory variables are statistically significant at 1% level. Therefore, the finding supported the fact that organizational climate include boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making.

The coefficient of determination in Table 4.29 above is the coefficient of determination and referred to as R². In this analysis, 85.7% of the variability in organizational climate can be explained by boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making. The remaining 14.30% of variability is due to other

unexplained factors. This supports the further retention of the alternate hypothesis and the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Objective 5: To determine whether there is a difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate.

Research Question 5: Would there be any difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive organizational climate that could negatively impact on them?

Hypothesis 5: There would be no positive difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive organizational climate.

For Hypothesis 5 on whether there would be no difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive their organizational climate, paired-samples t-test was used to carry out the test on this hypothesis. This was done for each school - that is the responses for junior and senior academics in each of the five schools were tested to see their perceptions on how they see their organizational climate using the eight variables on organizational climate, which are; Management and Leadership style, Participation in decision making, Challenging job, Boredom and frustration, Fringe benefits, Personnel policies, Working conditions and Career ladder. Thereafter, the overall perceptions of the academics in each of these five schools were correlated to view their responses on their organizational climate.

For University D, Table 4.30 below describes the responses of the junior and senior academics on the eight organizational climate variables.

Table 4.30: Paired Samples Test of Perception of University D Staff (Junior and Senior) on Organisational Climate

		Paired Differences						T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
Pair 1	mgtboj - mgtbos	6.80000	6.01378	1.09796	4.55442	9.04558	6.193	6.193	29	.000
Pair 2	decboj - decbos	-1.10000	6.05350	1.10521	-3.36041	1.16041	-.995	-.995	29	.328
Pair 3	challboj - challbos	3.20000	4.88064	.89108	1.37754	5.02246	3.591	3.591	29	.001
Pair 4	boreboj - borebos	-1.10000	4.50555	.82260	-2.78240	.58240	-1.337	-1.337	29	.192
Pair 5	fringboj - fringbos	-1.03333	5.39146	.98434	-3.04654	.97987	-1.050	-1.050	29	.302
Pair 6	persboj - persbos	1.40000	7.34190	1.34044	-1.34151	4.14151	1.044	1.044	29	.305
Pair 7	wkconboj - wkconbos	7.20000	8.00172	1.46091	4.21211	10.18789	4.928	4.928	29	.000
Pair 8	careerboj - csreerbos	-4.60000	8.51611	1.55482	-7.77997	-1.42003	-2.959	-2.959	29	.006

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

In Table 4.30 above, the final column labeled Sig. (2-tailed) is our probability value. If this value is less than 0.05 (e.g. .04, .02, .01, .001), then we can conclude that there is a significant difference between our two scores. From our analysis above, in comparing the responses of the junior and senior academics in University D on the first variable of Management and leadership style, the probability value is .000. This has actually been

rounded up to three decimal places – it means that the actual probability value was less than .005. This value is substantially smaller than our specified alpha value of .05. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference in the way junior and senior academics in University D perceive their organizational climate. In other words using the construct under this variable of whether management and leadership style in the University does not support lecturing profession, whether management and leadership style is not sensitive and supportive of lecturers work schedule, whether management styles does not allow for academic input in the decision making process, whether management styles would not enhance junior academics career path and growth, whether senior academics would not provide feedback on employees evaluation and performance and whether they would not be generally satisfied with the leadership style in the organization or whether they would not like their heads of department to change their leadership style are all significant to both the junior and senior academics. Likewise for the constructs on challenging jobs, there is a significant difference in the way junior and senior academics in this school view them. At 0.01, there is a significant difference in the way junior and senior academics believe that the University set high standard of performance, see whether their jobs are challenging, view delegated responsibilities as challenging, interesting or allow them to overcome limitation in their experience. Again, at 0.000 for working condition, there is a significant difference in the way junior and senior respond to the propositions that the department provides sufficient materials for use, and supplies are always available when needed; that senior colleagues create a challenging environment, that they are facilitated to overcome limitations in their experience, that the University provides the equipment and resources necessary for them to execute their responsibilities, and that the work place is a noise free and safe environment.

Table 4.31: Descriptive Paired Sample Statistics of University D Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception of Organisational Climate.

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Mgtboj	23.1333	30	2.37419	.43347
	Mgtbos	16.3333	30	5.58528	1.01973
Pair 2	Decboj	21.4000	30	2.93140	.53520
	Decbos	22.5000	30	4.97407	.90814
Pair 3	Challboj	19.4333	30	3.20219	.58464
	Challbos	16.2333	30	3.97131	.72506
Pair 4	Boreboj	6.2667	30	2.46259	.44961
	Borebos	7.3667	30	3.13471	.57232
Pair 5	Fringboj	10.8667	30	3.62685	.66217
	Fringbos	11.9000	30	3.33580	.60903
Pair 6	Perspboj	14.4333	30	4.60647	.84102
	Persbos	13.0333	30	4.35877	.79580
Pair 7	Wkconboj	24.5333	30	3.80320	.69437
	Wkconbos	17.3333	30	8.39677	1.53303
Pair 8	Careerboj	14.1000	30	4.30196	.78543
	csreerbos	18.7000	30	5.01824	.91620

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

All the other variables (e.g. participation in decision making, boredom and frustration, fringe benefit, personnel policies and career ladder) are not significant with the organizational climate.

In comparing the mean values that ranged from 6.2667 to 24.5333, we can also conclude that there was a significant decrease in the management and leadership, challenging job, personnel policies and working condition test scores between the junior and senior academics while there was a significant increase in the participation in decision making, boredom and frustration, fringe benefit and career ladder test score of junior and senior academics in University D, (See table 4.31 above).

Thus, the result of the paired – sampled t-test conducted to determine if there is a difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceived the existing organizational climate (in University D), could be said to be statistically significant and presented as between junior academics (Mean=23.1333, SD=2.37419) and senior academics (Mean=16.3333, SD=5.58528), $t(29)=6.193$ for management and leadership style; Mean=19.4333, SD=3.20219 for challenging job junior academics (challboj) and Mean=16.2333, SD=3.97131 for senior academics (challbos), $t(29)=3.591$; for personnel policies junior academics (persboj), Mean=14.4333, SD=4.60647, for senior academic (persbos), Mean=13.0333, SD=4.35877, $t(29)=1.044$ while for working condition junior

academics (wkconboj), Mean=24.5333, SD=3.80320, for senior academic (wkconbos), Mean=17.3333, SD=8.39677, $t(29)=4.928$.

However, the other variables (i.e. participation in decision making, boredom and frustration, fringe benefits and career ladder) have no significant differences, hence their t-value is a minus.

For University C, Table 4.32 below describes the responses of the junior and senior academics on the eight organizational climate variables.

In comparing the responses of the junior and senior academics in University C, none of the probability values (the value on the final column labeled Sig. (2-tailed)) is less than .005. These values are higher than our specified alpha value of .05. Therefore, we can conclude that there is no significant difference in the way junior and senior academics in University C experience their organizational climate.

Table 4.32: Paired Samples Test of University C Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Paired Differences						T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Upper	Upper	
Pair 1	MGTbj - MGTbs	1.06897	5.35144	.99374	-.96661	3.10455	1.076	28	.291	
Pair 2	DECbj - DECbs	1.65517	5.27985	.98044	-.35318	3.66352	1.688	28	.102	
Pair 3	CHALbj - CHALLbs	1.51724	5.11734	.95027	-.42929	3.46377	1.597	28	.122	
Pair 4	BOREbj - BOREbs	.24138	2.74714	.51013	-.80358	1.28634	.473	28	.640	
Pair 5	FRINGbj - FRINGbs	1.86207	6.22050	1.15512	-.50408	4.22822	1.612	28	.118	
Pair 6	PERSONbj - PERSPbs	1.17241	6.44797	1.19736	-1.28026	3.62509	.979	28	.336	
Pair 7	WKCONbj - WKCONbs	-.72414	8.08834	1.50197	-3.80078	2.35250	-.482	28	.633	
Pair 8	CAREEbj - CAREERbs	1.06897	5.14039	.95455	-.88634	3.02427	1.120	28	.272	

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009).

However, in comparing the mean values, we can conclude that there was a significant decrease in all of the organizational climate variables test scores between the junior and senior academics in University C.

Table 4.33: Descriptive Paired Samples Statistics of University C Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	MGTbj	21.9655	29	3.86821	.71831
	MGTbs	20.8966	29	3.45734	.64201
Pair 2	DECbj	21.9310	29	4.22519	.78460
	DECbs	20.2759	29	3.71192	.68929
Pair 3	CHALbj	20.2069	29	3.34215	.62062
	CHALLbs	18.6897	29	3.48572	.64728
Pair 4	BOREbj	6.9655	29	2.12943	.39543
	BOREbs	6.7241	29	1.75044	.32505
Pair 5	FRINGbj	14.5862	29	3.66954	.68142
	FRINGbs	12.7241	29	4.34163	.80622
Pair 6	PERSONbj	16.7241	29	4.53476	.84208
	PERSPbs	15.5517	29	4.02302	.74706
Pair 7	WKCONbj	24.9655	29	5.71016	1.06035
	WKCONbs	25.6897	29	5.25835	.97645
Pair 8	CAREEbj	17.3793	29	3.01678	.56020
	CAREERbs	16.3103	29	3.12939	.58111

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Thus the results of the paired – samples t-test conducted to determine if there is a difference in the way senior and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate (in University C), are presented as follows:

Mean=21.9655, SD=3.86821 for management and leadership style University C junior academic (mgtbj) and Mean=20.8966, SD=3.45734 for senior academics (mgtbs), $t(28) = 1.076$. For participation in decision making junior academics (Decbj), Mean=21.9310, SD=4.22519 while for senior academics (Decbs), Mean=20.2759, SD=3.71192, $t(289) = 1.688$. For the rest of the variables, the mean, standard deviation and t-value for each of the variables are as shown in both Tables 4.32 and 4.33 above.

Note also that none of the t-values has negative sign in the figure. For University A, Table 4.34 below describes the responses of the junior and senior academics on the organizational climate variables.

Table 4.34: Paired Samples Test of University A Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	mgtbes - mgtbej	-1.09091	4.92858	1.48602	-4.40197	2.22016	-.734	10	.480
Pair 2	decbes - decbej	-.72727	5.27429	1.59026	-4.27059	2.81605	-.457	10	.657
Pair 3	challbes - challbej	-1.27273	3.49545	1.05392	-3.62100	1.07555	-1.208	10	.255
Pair 4	borebes - borebej	2.00000	2.36643	.71351	.41021	3.58979	2.803	10	.019
Pair 5	fringbes - frinfbej	3.00000	6.35610	1.91644	-1.27009	7.27009	1.565	10	.149
Pair 6	persbes - persbej	.63636	4.00681	1.20810	-2.05545	3.32818	.527	10	.610
Pair 7	wkconbes - wkcondbej	.00000	3.06594	.92442	-2.05973	2.05973	.000	10	1.000
Pair 8	careerbes - careerbej	-9.81818	49.99964	15.07546	-43.40839	23.77203	-.651	10	.530

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.34 above represents the responses of junior and senior academics in University A. Again, none of the probability values i.e. the values on the final column labeled Sig.(2-tailed) is less than .005 except the value for working condition that is .047, which is less than our specified alpha value of .05. Therefore, we can conclude that there is no significant difference in the way junior and senior academics in University A experience their organizational climate except in the area of working condition, which is 0.47 less than our specified alpha value of .05.

Moreover, in comparing the mean values, we can conclude that there was a significant increase in half of the organizational climate variable test scores between junior and senior academics in University A, a significant decrease in three variables, (i.e. boredom and frustration, fringe benefit and personnel policy) while there is no difference in the mean values of the junior and senior academics in their working condition variables.

The results of the paired-samples t-test carried out to determine if there is a difference in the way senior and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate (for University A), are presented thus; M=21.5455, SD=3.29738 for management and leadership style (mgtbes) and M=22.6364, SD=3.41388 (mgtbj), $t(10)=-.734$. For participation in decision making for senior academics, M=21.4545, SD=4.56867 (decbes), and M=22.1818, SD=3.02715 for junior academics (decbej), $t(10)=-.457$, $P>.0005$. For challenging job, boredom and frustration, fringe benefit, personnel policy, working condition and career ladder, the mean, standard deviation, t values and the p values are as shown in Table 4.34 above.

Table 4.35: Descriptive Paired Samples Statistics of University A Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	mgtbes	21.5455	11	3.29738	.99420
	mgtbej	22.6364	11	3.41388	1.02932
Pair 2	decbes	21.4545	11	4.56867	1.37751
	decbej	22.1818	11	3.02715	.91272
Pair 3	challbes	19.4545	11	3.04512	.91814
	challbej	20.7273	11	2.00454	.60439
Pair 4	borebes	7.5455	11	1.03573	.31228
	borebej	5.5455	11	1.80907	.54545
Pair 5	fringbes	13.1818	11	4.66515	1.40660
	frinfbej	10.1818	11	3.06001	.92263
Pair 6	persbes	14.1818	11	2.52262	.76060
	persbej	13.5455	11	2.80584	.84599
Pair 7	wkconbes	26.0909	11	2.62505	.79148
	wkcondbej	26.0909	11	2.21154	.66680
Pair 8	careerbes	19.0909	11	3.98634	1.20193
	careerbej	28.9091	11	49.85871	15.03297

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

For University B, table 4.36 below shows the responses of the junior and senior academics on the organizational climate variables. From the analysis in Table 4.36 below, the response of the junior and senior academics in University B shows that only one of the probability values is less than .005 and the variable is the management and leadership style.

Table 4.36: Paired Samples Test of University B Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Paired Differences				t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	mgtcraj - mgtercas	3.33333	3.57601	1.03231	1.06124	5.60542	3.229	11	.008
Pair 2	decrcraj - decrcras	.75000	4.65393	1.34347	-2.20697	3.70697	.558	11	.588
Pair 3	challcraj - challcras	1.91667	3.08835	.89153	-.04557	3.87891	2.150	11	.055
Pair 4	borecraj - borecras	.00000	3.04512	.87905	-1.93477	1.93477	.000	11	1.000
Pair 5	fringcraj - fringcras	1.08333	4.73782	1.36769	-1.92694	4.09360	.792	11	.445
Pair 6	perscraj - perspcras	.16667	5.76562	1.66439	-3.49664	3.82997	.100	11	.922
Pair 7	wkconcraj - wkconcras	3.25000	5.02946	1.45188	.05443	6.44557	2.238	11	.047
Pair 8	careercraj - careercras	2.41667	5.07146	1.46400	-.80558	5.63892	1.651	11	.127

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Since the other values are higher than our specified alpha value of .05, we can then conclude that there is no significant difference in the way junior and senior academics in Crawford University experience their organizational climate except in the area of management and leadership style in which the probability value is less than .05 which implies significant difference in the way they see the management and leadership style in this University.

In comparing the mean values, Table 4.37 below presents the values for the mean and standard deviation.

Table 4.37: Descriptive Paired Samples Statistics of University B Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Mgtcraj	20.5000	12	3.65563	1.05529
	Mgtcras	17.1667	12	3.35297	.96792
Pair 2	Deccraj	22.3333	12	3.20038	.92387
	Deccras	21.5833	12	4.03301	1.16423
Pair 3	Challcraj	20.5000	12	1.73205	.50000
	Challcras	18.5833	12	2.15146	.62107
Pair 4	Borecraj	7.8333	12	1.26730	.36584
	Borecras	7.8333	12	2.16725	.62563
Pair 5	Fringcraj	11.7500	12	3.07852	.88869
	Fringcras	10.6667	12	2.14617	.61955
Pair 6	Perscraj	16.2500	12	4.35107	1.25605
	Perspcras	16.0833	12	3.57919	1.03322
Pair 7	wkconcraj	27.9167	12	4.52183	1.30534
	wkconcras	24.6667	12	2.57023	.74196
Pair 8	careercraj	18.0833	12	3.44986	.99589
	careercras	15.6667	12	2.49848	.72125

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

We can conclude from the result that there was a significant decrease in all the organizational climate variables test scores between the junior and senior academics in University B. We should also note that one of the variables (i.e. boredom and frustration) neither increase nor decrease in the mean values between the two categories of academics (i.e. both the junior and senior academics have the same mean values of 7.8333).

The result of the paired-sampled t-test conducted to determine if there is a difference in the way senior and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate in University B can be presented thus; M=20.5000, SD=3.65563 for management and leadership style University B Junior Academics (mgtcraj) and M=17.1667, SD=3.35297 (mgtcras), $t(12)=3.229$, $P>.0005$; for participation in decision making - junior academics (deccraj), M=22.3333, SD=3.20038, Senior academics (decrcras), M=21.5833, SD=4.03301, $t(12)$

=.558, $P > .0005$; for challenging job, fringe benefit, personnel policies, working condition and career ladder, the mean and standard deviation, including the t-values and the p values are as shown in Table 4.43 above. It should also be noted that the mean values for junior and senior academics for boredom and frustration variable are the same. This means that they perceive the constructs under this variable the same way.

For University E, Table 4.38 presents the responses of the junior and senior academics on the way they perceive their organizational climate variables.

Table 4.38: Paired Samples Test of University E Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	mgtcuj – mgteus	.69231	5.26702	1.03295	-1.43509	2.81970	.670	25	.509
Pair 2	deccuj – deccus	.30769	5.68344	1.11462	-1.98790	2.60329	.276	25	.785
Pair 3	challcuj – challcus	.92308	4.11750	.80751	-.74002	2.58617	1.143	25	.264
Pair 4	borecuj – borecus	.07692	2.36513	.46384	-.87837	1.03222	.166	25	.870
Pair 5	fringcuj – fringecus	.53846	5.78433	1.13440	-1.79788	2.87480	.475	25	.639
Pair 6	perscuj – perscus	1.69231	5.15961	1.01188	-.39170	3.77632	1.672	25	.107
Pair 7	wkconcuj – wkconcus	2.11538	7.08422	1.38933	-.74599	4.97676	1.523	25	.140
Pair 8	careercuj – careercus	-.07692	4.99538	.97968	-2.09460	1.94076	-.079	25	.938

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

From the responses as shown in the table above, none of the values on the final column labeled Sig. (2-tailed) is less than .005. Obviously, these values are higher than the specified alpha value of .05. Thus, we can rightly conclude that there is no significant difference in the way junior and senior academics of University E experience their organizational climate. Worthy of note again on the table is the fact that none of the t-values has negative sign in the figure except for the last variable – career ladder, i.e. -0.79.

In comparing the mean values, we can conclude that there was a significant decrease in all the organizational climate variables test score between the junior and senior academics in University E except for the career ladder variable that has a slight increase between the means for the junior and senior academics, (i.e. careercuj=15.4615 and careercus=15.5385).

Table 4.39: Descriptive Paired Samples Statistics of University E Staff (Junior and Senior) Perception on Organisational Climate

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	mgtcuj	20.3462	26	3.56586	.69932
	mgtcus	19.6538	26	4.54262	.89088
Pair 2	deccuj	21.8462	26	3.27038	.64137
	deccus	21.5385	26	4.25423	.83432
Pair 3	challcuj	21.9615	26	3.16835	.62137
	challcus	21.0385	26	2.47355	.48510
Pair 4	borecuj	7.2308	26	1.30561	.25605
	borecus	7.1538	26	1.93271	.37904
Pair 5	fringcuj	12.3846	26	3.85826	.75667
	fringecus	11.8462	26	4.44245	.87124
Pair 6	perscuj	16.7308	26	3.43578	.67381
	perscus	15.0385	26	3.75745	.73690
Pair 7	wkconcuj	25.8462	26	3.51787	.68991
	wkconcus	23.7308	26	5.26542	1.03263
Pair 8	careercuj	15.4615	26	4.46525	.87571
	careercus	15.5385	26	3.62470	.71086

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Thus, the results of the paired-samples t-test conducted to determine if there is a difference in the way senior and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate (for University E) are presented as follows: M=20.3462, SD=3.56586 for management and leadership style University E junior academics (mgtcuj), and M=19.6538, SD=4.54262 (mgtcus), $t(26)=.670$, $P>.005$; for challenging job junior academics (challcuj), M=21.9615, SD=3.16835, Senior academics (challcus), M=21.0385, SD=2.47355, $t(25)=1.143$; for working condition junior academics (wkconcuj), M=25.8462, SD=3.51787 and senior academics (wkconcus), M=23.7308, SD=5.26542, $t(25)=1.523$. In the same manner, the mean values, standard deviation, t-values and the p-values for the other variables are as shown in Table 4.45 above with their significant decreasing except for the last variable which is career ladder that has a slight significant increase, (i.e. 15.4615 mean values for junior and 15.5385 mean value for senior academics).

In addition, the overall analysis was carried out to compare the responses of the junior and senior academics from each of the five Universities sampled and based on their organizational climate variables. The results are as shown in Table 4.40 below.

Table 4.40: Paired Samples Test of All University Sampled on Organisational Climate

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	mgtTs - mgtTj	-1.37634	6.93121	.71873	-2.80381	.05112	-1.915	92	.059
Pair 2	decTs - decTj	1.22581	7.89762	.81894	-.40069	2.85230	1.497	92	.138
Pair 3	challTs - challTj	1.08602	6.08036	.63050	-.16621	2.33826	1.722	92	.088
Pair 4	boreTs - boreTj	-1.24731	4.70812	.48821	-2.21694	-.27769	-2.555	92	.012
Pair 5	fringTs - fringTj	-5.33333	5.23229	.54256	-6.41091	-4.25576	-9.830	92	.000
Pair 6	persTs - persTj	-2.31183	5.68365	.58937	-3.48236	-1.14129	-3.923	92	.000
Pair 7	wkconTs - wkconTj	3.21505	10.82855	1.12287	.98494	5.44517	2.863	92	.005
Pair 8	careerTs - careerTj	-1.54839	18.26110	1.89359	-5.30922	2.21244	-.818	92	.416

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

From Table 4.40 above, the responses of the junior and senior academics in each of the five schools show three of the probability values to be less than or equal to .005. These variables include; fringe benefits, personnel policy and working condition. The other variables including management and leadership style, participation in decision making, challenging job, boredom and frustration and career ladder have values higher than our specified alpha value of .05. We can then say that there are significant differences in the way junior and senior academics view their organizational climate in these five private universities about their fringe benefits, the school's personnel policies and their working conditions.

Thus, the five variables confirm that there are no significant differences in the way the junior and senior academics perceive their organizational climate in the five schools.

In comparing the mean values in each of these schools, Table 4.41 below shows the mean and standard deviation. We can deduce from the table that there are more of significant increases in the table than significant decrease. Only in three variables we have – participation in decision making, challenging job and working condition we have significant decreases. All the other five variables have significant increases. Since the numbers of significant increases are more than the number of significant decreases, then we can conclude that there are differences in the way senior academics and junior academics experience their organizational climate. The result of the paired-samples t-test conducted to determine if there is a difference in the way senior and junior academics perceive the existing organizational climate (for the five private Universities under study) are presented thus;

Table 4.41: Descriptive Paired Samples Statistics of All Universities Sampled on Organisational Climate

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	mgtTs	18.8602	93	5.02730	.52131
	mgtTj	20.2366	93	4.73515	.49101
Pair 2	decTs	21.6022	93	4.49188	.46579
	decTj	20.3763	93	6.54568	.67876
Pair 3	challTs	18.8172	93	3.60237	.37355
	challTj	17.7312	93	4.40883	.45717
Pair 4	boreTs	7.4194	93	2.07114	.21477
	boreTj	8.6667	93	4.26649	.44241
Pair 5	fringTs	8.6667	93	4.26649	.44241
	fringTj	14.0000	93	6.22233	.64523
Pair 6	persTs	12.2366	93	4.03085	.41798
	persTj	14.5484	93	4.12710	.42796
Pair 7	wkconTs	22.5699	93	6.97105	.72286
	wkconTj	19.3548	93	7.76229	.80491
Pair 8	careerTs	17.3333	93	4.05756	.42075
	careerTj	18.8817	93	17.54426	1.81926

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

M=18.8602, SD=5.02730 for management and leadership style total for senior (mgtTs), and M=20.2366, SD=4.73515 (mgtTj), $t(92) = -1.915$, $P > .005$; for participation in decision making total for senior (decTs), M=21.6022, SD=4.49188, and M=20.3763, SD=6.54568 (decTj), $t(92) = 1.497$. For boredom and frustration total for senior (boreTs), M=7.4194, SD=2.07114, and M=8.6667, SD=4.26649, $t(92) = -2.555$. The mean, standard deviation, t-value and p-value for every other variable are as shown in Table 4.41 above.

Table 4.42: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Measures According to the Selected Private Universities

	UNIV A		UNIV B		UNIV C		UNIV D		UNIV E	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
mgtleader	3.2286	.39063	3.0337	.38774	2.9333	.45800	3.0790	.66684	3.2890	.47279
decision	2.9321	.32830	3.2024	.46514	3.1289	.59703	2.8021	.57188	3.3580	.51625
challenge	3.9950	.32813	3.8833	.42902	3.9957	.53309	4.0000	.70810	4.1408	.64111
boredom	2.6125	.91629	3.1875	.95340	2.9571	.75538	2.7847	.74977	2.4368	.82759
fringe	1.8550	.58351	2.1417	.39773	2.5021	.75096	1.9500	.66380	2.3801	.71627
personpolicy	3.1400	.48822	2.9583	.97084	3.5836	.74720	2.8472	.83375	2.9121	.96047
workcond	3.2469	.45949	2.9740	.81091	3.5837	.61336	2.8658	.78966	3.2445	.68247
career	3.1600	.60798	3.4167	.66442	3.7721	.62680	3.0845	.90237	3.4333	.79558
admin	2.9625	.42573	2.8333	.37349	3.0628	.58112	2.9329	.65537	3.2098	.64460
supervi	2.8188	.47362	2.9167	.54006	3.1083	.72833	2.6181	.68430	3.0192	.94492
workload	3.4875	.57443	3.3333	.67028	3.5714	.78036	3.0938	.67511	3.3515	.83066
feedback	3.7000	.76906	3.2778	.84366	3.7476	.87997	3.1343	.86789	3.3295	1.11311
communi	3.2458	.65805	3.2847	.66208	3.8338	.68455	3.1759	.84099	3.7084	.60568
salarypack	3.1000	.67178	2.8611	.47055	3.0310	.67940	2.8333	.61794	3.2663	.85267
promop	2.2813	.78075	2.6771	.66952	2.8786	.66450	2.2604	.88357	2.5489	.88580
age	2.2250	.69752	2.9167	.88055	2.6286	.83703	2.5139	.82211	2.1379	.89146
presenexpe	2.7250	1.21924	3.0000	1.14208	3.5429	1.56673	3.2222	2.54106	3.3793	1.82516
genexper	6.7500	3.90759	10.7917	5.51661	8.0000	5.45070	8.6111	7.19263	8.3793	7.41971
rank	4.7750	1.54401	3.2083	1.69344	4.3714	1.61668	4.7639	1.68250	4.5172	2.01657
Valid N (listwise)										

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The results on Table 4.42 show that none of the standard deviations was below 0.3. This indicates that there is a great variability among the five selected private universities in Southwest, Nigeria. The mean score in each measure varies greatly from one university to the other.

4.5 Responses to the Open Ended Questions

Respondents were asked how they felt about the promotion of personal and professional career development, their level of participation in decision making and their feelings about work environment in their respective Universities. They could indicate in their own words what they felt and their responses were categorized into themes. The number and percentage of people that mentioned any particular theme is given in Table 4.43 below. They were categorized according to the five schools surveyed. Each of the five schools has four tables

since there were four open ended questions, and so we have twenty tables. Note also that, percentages are based on the total sample for each school and not only on those who answered the questions.

UNIVERSITY E

Table 4.43. Responses to the open-ended Question1 about the respondents' feeling of whether the university is doing enough to promote personal career development (n=87).

Table 4.43: Responses to Open-ended Question One

Themes/Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
No (no further comment)	16	18.39
To a large extent, however they can still do more to meet up especially when one considers what operate elsewhere	12	13.79
Yes (no further comment)	9	10.35
Yes, a lot could still be done in areas of staff development scheme	7	8.05
Not enough, Not really	15	17.24
Not at all	5	5.75
I don't have sufficient information because I am relatively new here	3	3.45
Yes, Lecturers are encouraged to research and publish	6	6.90
I think yes by the mandatory YATRAP for non-PhD staff of University	5	5.75
No answer	3	3.45
Not quite well. Preference should be given to junior academics for advancement	3	3.45
Total	87	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

There were considerably more negative issues raised regarding respondents feeling of their university promoting personal career development (51; i.e. 16+12+15+5+3) than positive ones (36 i.e. 9+7+6+5+3+3). Those that answer yes do so because they know there are programmes like YATRAP, training and workshops are available, and some have benefitted from the research funds set aside for research and publications. Some others feel the school is making effort but that a lot could still be done to improve on the state of the personal career development and staff development scheme compared to what is obtainable elsewhere. Some persons are new in the system and so they could not really comment on the state of personal career development while others suggested preference should be given to junior academics for advancement, hence why they are not doing quite well at present.

Table 4.44. Responses to the open-ended Question number 2 about what the respondents feel concerning their work environment (n=87).

There were more negative issues (51) regarding work environment raised than positive issues (36). Considering the results in the table above, respondents raised complaints about the disenchantment and discriminatory tendencies operating in the work environment which they suggested should be removed to sanitize the situation.

Table 4.44: Responses to Open-ended Question Two

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Good/o.k./cute/classic	21	24.14
Conducive, supportive, satisfactory	7	8.05
The working condition (salary) should be looked into to improve worker's take home pay/ Needs improvement	17	19.54
Safe, friendly, conducive, cool/ I feel good	7	8.05
As a young University, more should be done to sanitize situation and remove disenchantment and discriminatory tendencies	5	5.75
Conducive but tensed environment	3	3.45
Very unfriendly, but conducive for academics-absence of cultism, noise prevalent in the public schools	3	3.45
No	1	1.15
Conducive, though at high cost/expensive	2	2.30
Not satisfactory/ Fair enough	6	6.90
Relatively fair but can be improved upon	4	4.60
Conducive to an extent	4	4.60
Delicate, contradictory, dangerous and intriguing	2	2.30
Tense. We live in fear of being fired anytime, too many rules, many eavesdroppers and backbiters/backstabbers	4	4.60
No answer	1	1.15
	87	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

They see the environment as being very unfriendly, though conducive for academics because of the absence of cultism and noise prevalent in the public school, conducive but tensed, conducive but at high cost and tensed in the sense that people live in fear of being fired anytime, too many rules, many eavesdroppers and backstabbers. Some others describe the environment as delicate, contradictory, dangerous and intriguing. They also suggested that since the working condition is relatively fair, it should be improved upon and the working condition (salary) be looked into to improve workers take home pay.

On the positive side, they describe the environment as good, o.k., cute, classic, conducive, satisfactory, supportive, safe, cool and friendly.

However, only one respondent did not respond to this question.

Table 4.45. Responses to the open-ended Question 3 on how the respondents feel about whether the University is doing enough to promote professional career development (n=87).

From Table 4.45 below, the highest frequency we have is for people that are of the opinion that the University is not doing enough to promote professional career development (26.44%, 5%). However, large number of respondents agreed to the fact that the University is doing enough (yes=14) to promote professional career development, some answered further by telling us the various means through which they promote professional career development i.e. through seminars, workshop, e.t.c.

Table 4.45: Responses to Open-Ended Question Three

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
No (No further comment)	23	26.44
To the best of its ability/Good effort, but there are areas and rooms for improvement	11	12.64
Conducive	16	18.39
Yes (no further comment)	14	16.09
Yes, through sponsorship of seminars, workshops e.t.c	7	8.05
Not really/ Not enough	5	5.75
Undecided/I can't say	1	1.15
No answer	4	4.60
They seem to be doing that in pretence	6	6.90
	87	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Others said they seem to be doing that in pretence (6.90%) while some others are of the opinion that they are not doing enough (5.75%). Only one respondent declared that he cannot say probably because he is new in the system.

Moreover, eleven respondents confirmed that they are doing it to the best of their ability but that there are still areas for improvement.

Table 4.46. Responses to the open-ended Question 4 on whether the respondents are involved in decision making (n-87).

Table 4.46: Responses to Open-Ended Question Four

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Yes (no further comment)	3	3.45
Yes, through various committees e.g. timetable committee	4	4.60
Yes, to some extent	6	6.90
No	11	12.64
Yes, at Departmental and College Board level	18	20.69
Not always, minimally, partially	14	16.09
Not really, our opinion rarely count	9	10.35
Yes, if related to my area	3	3.45
Not at all	2	2.30
Decision making is related to only principal officers	14	16.09
No answer	3	3.45
	87	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.46. above shows that there are more respondents that felt they are not involved in decision making, while on the other side, a lot of them agree that they participated in decision making only at departmental and college board level and if related to their areas. They feel that decision making is autocratic as only the principal officers make decision, and where they are present, their opinions rarely count. In most cases, they are just told about decision later, but mostly not involved in decision making. Some of the respondents indicated that they are only involved partially or minimally. They only participate to a certain extent which can be through various committees or unit decisions. 3.45% respondents did not indicate any answer here- i.e. no response from their end to this question, while two respondents (2.30%) categorically declared that they are not at all involved in decision making.

UNIVERSITY D

Table 4.47. Responses to the open-ended Question 1 about the respondents’ feeling on whether the University is doing enough to promote personal career development (n=72).

Table 4.47: Responses to Open-ended Question One

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Yes/ I think so	17	23.61
Not sure/ Not really	7	9.72
Not enough	7	9.72
To some extent	8	11.11
No	3	4.17
Yes, there is need for improvement	15	20.83
They are making efforts but at times contradictory	6	8.33
To a considerable level which is commendable	6	8.33
No answer	3	4.17
	72	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

There were more negative answers than positive answers. Out of the 72 responses got from University D on open-ended Question one, only 23 (32%) gave positive answers, the remaining 49 (68%) respondents were on negative positions. 9.72% were not sure whether the University is doing enough to promote personal career development (7), some declared not really, 4.17% emphatically said No (3); that is, such does not exist in the school, while 11.11% declared they are into the programme to some extent (8), but that there is need for improvement (20.83%). About 8.33% (6respondents) agreed the school is making efforts but at times contradictory. Also, the same number (i.e. 6) and the same percentage (i.e. 8.33%) of respondents agreed they do to a considerable level which is commendable. However, about 4% (i.e. 3 respondents) did not provide answers to the question.

Table 4.48. Responses to open-ended question 2 on what the respondents feel about their work environment (n=72).

From Table 4.48 below, more than half of the respondents are positive about their work environment. They felt the environment is safe, suitable, cool, conducive, ok, good, fascinating, cute and satisfactory (22.22%, 19.44% and 13.89%), while about 3% also felt it is conducive but not too friendly.

Table 4:48: Responses to Open-Ended Question Two

Themes/Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Safe, suitable, cool	16	22.22
Conducive, ok, good, fascinating, cute	14	19.44
Satisfactory	10	13.89
Ok but rigid and expensive	2	2.78
Fairly ok	11	15.28
Conducive but not policies should be employee friendly	5	6.94
Is up to standard, but there is room for improvement	3	4.17
Things will be easier with a better welfare package that considers the interests of staff	4	5.56
No answer	1	0.72
Challenging and encouraging	4	5.56
Conducive but not too friendly	2	2.78
	72	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Others declared the facilities are ok but policies should be employees friendly and things will be easier with a better welfare package that considers the interests of staff. 6% of the respondents see the environment as challenging and encouraging at the same time and that despite the standard at which the work environment is, there is still room for improvement. Only one person did not respond to this Question and this is insignificant (i.e. not up to 1%).

Table 4.49. Responses to open-ended Question3 on how the respondents feel about whether the University is doing enough to promote professional career development (n=72).

Table 4.49: Responses to Open-Ended Question Three

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Yes	13	18.06
No (no further comment)	14	19.44
They are trying but there is room for improvement	9	12.50
Not enough/ Not really/ Not quite	13	18.06
Can't say	3	4.17
Policies should change to promote professionalism	6	8.33
No, they need to do more	7	9.72
Little, fair	3	4.17
Somewhat	3	4.17
No answer	1	1.39
	72	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.49 above shows that only 18% (13respondents) of the respondents gave the positive answers that the University is doing enough to promote professional career development. The rest 82% are of the opinion that though they are trying, yet there is still need for improvement, that policies should change to promote professionalism. Some said it is fair (i.e..4.17%), 18.06% said not enough, not really or not quite while declared no and no further comment. Only one person did not provide answer here while three persons cannot say whether such programme exists or not.

Table 4.50. Responses to open ended question 4 on whether the respondents are involved in decision making (n=72).

Table 4.50 Responses to Open-Ended Question Four

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage Of Total
Yes	8	11.11
No	33	45.83
Not always	6	8.33
To some extent/ partially	4	5.56
Not really	4	5.56
Not at all	3	41.67
Indirectly because it is only at the departmental level	7	9.72
No answer	4	5.56
	72	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

There are more respondents that felt they are not involved in decision making, 64 negative versus 8 positive comments. Some felt they are involved (i.e. no and not at all = 36) while some indicated they are indirectly involved because they partake in the decision making and when found out, it was discovered they were all senior academics from the rank of Professor to Associate Professor/Reader and Senior lecturer.

UNIVERSITY C

Table4.51. Responses to open-ended Question 1 on respondents’ feelings about whether the University is doing enough to promote personal career development (n= 70).

Table 4.51: Responses to Open-Ended Question One

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Not enough, the university can do more than it is doing at present	16	22.86
Yes (no further comment)	23	32.86
Fair	7	10
Yes, but there is room for improvement	10	14.29
No, not at all	8	11.43
Sufficient enough	2	2.86
Not really, they are not doing much	2	2.86
I can't say	1	1.43
No answer	1	1.43
	70	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

The Table above represents respondent's answers to Question 1 from University C. Twenty-five (35.72%) respondents gave positive answers out of the total of 70 respondents from this school. Twenty-three (32.86%) of these respondents indicated Yes and Good that the school is doing enough to promote personal career development programme while the remaining 2 indicated that the school is doing enough on the personal career development programme. The remaining 55 respondents declared fair, no and not at all, not really because they were not doing much, not enough but the University can do more than it is doing at present. The remaining two respondents either did not give answer or cannot say.

Table 4.52. Responses to open ended Question 2 about what the respondents feel about their work environment (n= 70).

Table 4.52: Responses to Open-Ended Question Two

Themes/Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Ok,Excellent, Satisfactory, Great, Peaceful, Quite, Good	28	40
Conducive, Friendly, Comfortable	12	17.14
Safe, lovely, challenging, exciting, suitable, secure sound, e.t.c.	8	11.43
Not good enough/Ok but tensed/ Not conducive, too much control, not suitable in the area of pay	9	12.86
Sometimes, the intention and action are counter productive	7	10
Should be improved upon	3	4.29
Better	2	2.86
No answer	1	1.43
	70	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

There are more positive answers concerning the respondents' feelings about their work environment. Out of the 70 answers obtained, 50 respondents declared that their work environment is excellent, satisfactory, peaceful quite, good, comfortable, friendly, conducive. Some also described it as safe, lovely, sound, secure, challenging, suitable and exciting. On the negative side, only 20 respondents described their work environment as not good enough,

tensed, not conducive. 12.86% indicated that there too much control and not suitable in the area of pay, thus suggested that it should be improved upon, also in the area that the intention and action are counter productive. Only one respondent did not answer the question.

Table 4.53. Responses to open ended Question 3 on how the respondents feel about whether the University is doing enough to promote professional career development (n= 70).

Table 4.53: Responses to Open-Ended Question Three

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Fairly, not satisfactory	9	12.86
Good, yes	25	35.71
Efforts are been made in that direction	8	11.43
Yes, they are trying, but can do better	11	15.71
No	6	8.57
Never enough, not really, to an extent	8	11.43
I can't say	2	2.86
Subject to being redefined	1	1.43
No answer	1	1.43
	70	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.53 above showed that 25 out of the 70 respondents representing about 36% gave a yes answer without further comments on the question. The rest indicated fairly, not satisfactory, never enough, not really or to an extent on whether the university is doing enough to promote professional career development. About 9% declared outright no as their answers, 11.43% of the respondents indicated that efforts are being made in that direction, while 15.71% declared yes, they are trying but can do better. Two of the respondents are undecided and one did not answer the question.

Table 4.54. Responses to open-ended Question 4 on whether the respondents are involved in decision making (n=70).

Table 4.54: Responses to Open-ended Question Four

Themes/Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
No, not at all	27	38.57
Yes, at the departmental level, unit level	15	21.43
Partially, sometimes, not exactly, not really, to a certain extent	8	11.43
Yes (no further comment)	17	24.29
No answer	3	4.29
	70	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

From the Table above, 17 of the respondents (24.29%) indicated yes as their answers without further comments. The remaining respondents i.e. 53 representing 75.71% gave various answers like no, not at all (38.57%), partially, sometimes, to certain extent, not exactly, e.t.c

(11.43). Some indicated yes but at the unit or departmental level representing 21.43% of the respondents.

UNIVERSITY B

Table 4.55 shows responses to open-ended Question 1 about the respondents' feelings on whether the university is doing enough to promote personal career development (n=24).

Table 4.55: Responses to Open-Ended Question One

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Ok	2	8.33
Yes	7	29.17
Fairly enough, partially	6	25.00
No	6	25.00
Trying but below average/ can be improved upon	3	12.50
	24	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.55 represents answers for Question 1 from University B. Only nine of the respondents indicated yes and ok to the question on whether the university is doing enough to promote personal career development. Others indicated fairly enough, partially, trying but below average and that the situation can be improved upon. 25% of the respondents declared no, that the university is not doing enough to promote personal career development.

Table 4.56 shows responses to open-ended Question 2 about what the respondents' feel concerning their work environment (n=24).

Table 4.56: Responses to Open-Ended Question Two

Themes/Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Good, fine	8	33.33
Conducive, serene, ideal, Ok	12	50
Safe, perfect	4	16.67
	24	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

From the Table above concerning what the respondents from University B feel about their work environment, all the answers obtained are positive. They indicated either that the environment is good, fine, conducive, serene or ideal, ok and perfect. Thus, there were no negative feelings about the work environment here.

Table 4.57 Responses to open-ended Question 3 on what the respondents feel about whether the University is doing enough to promote professional career development (n=24).

Table 4. 57: Responses to Open-Ended Three

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Ok	2	8.33
Yes	6	25
Not bad	2	8.33
Trying	5	20.83
No	2	8.33
Partially	2	8.33
Fair	2	8.33
Not too good	3	12.5
	24	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

Fifteen of the respondents from the table above representing 62.5% indicated positive responses about whether their university is doing enough to promote professional career development. They indicated their answers as ok, yes, not bad and trying. The other 9 respondents representing 37.5% indicated that the university is performing partially well and fair enough, while 12.5% indicated not too good as their answers.

Table 4.58. Responses to open ended Question 4 on whether the respondents are involved in decision making (n=24).

Table 4.58: Responses to Open-Ended Question Four

THEMES/ ANSWERS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL
Yes	4	16.67
Sometimes/ partially	4	16.67
No	9	37.5
Not in all cases	7	29.17
	24	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

Only about 17% of the respondents in the table above indicated yes, that they are sometimes, partially alright but not in all cases participated in decision making. 37.5% out rightly declared no, that they are not involved in decision making.

UNIVERSITY A

Table 4.59. Responses to open-ended Question 1 about what the respondents' feelings are on whether the University is doing enough to promote personal career development (n=40).

Table 4.59: Responses to Open-Ended Question One

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Partially	3	7.5
Yes	10	25
No	7	17.5
Not too good	2	5
Not really	4	10
Not enough but there is room for improvement and this is suggested	14	35
	40	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

Responses from the table above show that University A is performing in promoting personal career development (25%). Others indicated they do it but partially (7.5%), 10% said not really, 17.5% said no. 35% indicated that though they do it is not enough, that there is room for improvement and that is suggested.

Table 4.60. Responses to open-ended Question 2 about what the respondents feel concerning their work environment (n=40).

Table 4.60: Responses to Open-Ended Question Two

	Frequency	Percentage of Total
OK, Good, satisfactory, serene	12	30
Safe, Encouraging, well secured	9	22.5
There is room for improvement	10	25
Conducive, Interesting	9	22.5
	40	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

All the answers obtained from University A respondents concerning how they felt about their work environment are positive answers. They all indicated that their work environment is conducive, satisfactory, interesting, serene, etc.

Table 4.61. Responses to open-ended Question 3 on what the respondents feel about whether the University is doing enough to promote professional career development (n=40).

Table 4.61: Responses to Open-Ended Question Three

Themes/ Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Yes	10	25
Not enough, fair	7	17.5
No (no further comment)	8	20
No, the University still have a long way to go	3	7.5
Fine, but the package need to be increased	4	10
Yes, at my level of responsibility	2	5
Not really, partially	4	10
Trying, but can still improve	2	5
	40	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

There were more negative answers to the yes options. This is shown in the table above. Only 25% (i.e. 10 respondents) of the respondents answered yes to the question. The rest answers are not enough or fair (17.5%), outright no as answer (3) that the University has a long way to go. Some agreed that the University is doing fine but the package need to be increased, while some indicated that they are doing partially/ trying but can be improved upon.

Table4.62. Responses to open-ended Question 4 on whether the respondents are involved in decision making.

Table: 4.62: Responses to Open-Ended Question Four

Themes/Answers	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Not always/ Not at all times	14	35
Yes	6	15
No	11	27.5
Partially involved/ To some extent	6	15
Fairly	3	7.5
	40	100

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Result (2009)

Table 4.62 above shows that 6 of the respondents representing only 15% indicated that they are involved in decision making. The other 34 respondents representing 85% either indicated that they are not involved at all, fairly to some extent, fairly or not at all times.

Table 4.63: Summary of Findings from Hypotheses Formulated
Title: Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff in Selected Private Universities in Southwest Nigeria

Hypotheses	Variables	Test Used	Findings	What literature Indicates
Hypothesis 1 There would be no positive significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in southwest Nigeria	For OC Management and Leadership style, Participation in Decision making, Challenging jobs, Boerbom and frustration, Fringe benefits, Personnel policies, Working condition and Career ladder. For JS Appropriate administrative style, Support from superiors, Work load, Feedback about performance, Clear lines of communication, Salary package and Promotional opportunities.	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used. Correlation here using 2 tail test and 0.01 significant level, our r stood at .671 which shows that there is a significant positive relationship between the two variables.	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient analysis finding shows that there is a significant positive relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction. Therefore, the first hypothesis is upheld at sum of squares and cross-products of 40.268 and 35.118 respectively, $df = 293$ and p value = 0.671 significant level. Correlation here is high because Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient analysis reveals the significant positive relationship between the major variables i.e. Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction.	Literature indicates climates of an organization and job satisfactions of their employees vary together. That climate had the greatest impact on satisfaction with interpersonal relationships on a job, a moderate impact upon satisfaction with recognizable advancement in the organization and relatively less impact upon self-realization from task involvement. Friedlander and Margulies (1968); Pritchard and Karasidt, (1993); Morgesson and Hofmann (2009).
Research Hypothesis 2. Factors like clear lines of communication, salary package and promotional opportunities would not contribute to job satisfaction	PROMOOPP- promotional opportunities, SALARYPACK- salary package, COMMUNICATN- clear lines of communication.	Multiple Regression which measures nature of relationship and contributions of variables to a system of equation was used to analyze the hypothesis. This is upheld at $r^2 = .825$, $df = 292$ at 0.000 significant level.	Findings show that 82.5% of the variability in job satisfaction can be explained by factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities. This results in the rejection of the null hypothesis and the adoption of the alternative hypothesis.	Literature suggests that climate dimensions are moderately related to job satisfaction in facets as security working conditions and advancement opportunities. That clearer lines of communication, opportunities for promotion and competitive salary package are variables which motivate people and influence job satisfaction. That immediately these are absent or inadequate, lecturers are neutral towards work but when present, they are highly motivated and satisfied (Judge, et al, 2001).
Research Hypothesis 3 Proportion of faculty leaving a University based on dissatisfactory level of organizational climate cannot be significantly described by work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors.	FEEDBACK- feedback about performance, WORKLOAD- workload and SUPERSUP- supervisor's support.	Multiple Regression was used to analyze the hypothesis. This is upheld at $r^2 = .798$, $df = 291$ at 0.000 significant level.	Findings from the use of multiple regression shows that the variability in job satisfaction can be explained by the factors like work load, feedback about performance and support from superiors. The remaining 20.2% of variability is due to other unexplained factors. Thus, this supports the rejection of the null hypothesis but support the acceptance of alternative hypothesis at $r = .798$, $df = 291$ and 0.000 significant level.	Literature suggests that satisfaction within an organization is as a result of poor planning, poor communication, unclear rules and regulations, unreasonable pressures, excessive work (otherwise known as work load), understaffing, uncooperative heads of departments/ units and non-academic duties. This was confirmed by our analysis. Several other studies affirmed these factors listed above as describing job satisfaction in organization. Gerber, et al (1998), Booyens (1998), Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (1998) and Chung (1997), in their studies identified organizational structure; rules, regulation and policies; supervision and leadership, work group; work environment, etc as factors that cause satisfaction in the work environment (Klein, 2007).
Research Hypothesis 4	DECISIONMAKE- decision making, BOREDOM- boredom,	Multiple Regression was used in analyzing	This research hypothesis is upheld at $r^2 = .857$, $df = 292$ and at 0.000	Literature indicates different organizational climate as

<p>Organizational climate consist of participation in decision making, boredom and frustration, personnel policies and working conditions which would not significantly encourage job satisfaction among academic staff in private university.</p>	<p>WORKCOND- working condition, PERSPOLICY- personnel policy.</p>	<p>the variables here. The result of regression shows that organizational climate include boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making. This is upheld at $r^2 = .857$, $df = 292$ at 0.000 significant level.</p>	<p>significant level. The findings show that 85.7% of the variability in organizational climate can be explained by boredom and frustration, personnel policies, working conditions and participation in decision making. The remaining 14.30% of variability is due to other unexplained factors. This supports the further retention of the alternative hypothesis and the rejection of the null hypothesis.</p>	<p>comprising personnel policies, working conditions, opportunity in partaking in decision making. For example, Agho (1993) and Moorhead & Griffin(1998),admitted that communication, problem solving, decision making, learning and motivation all can be affected by the organizational climate, which in turn might have impact on the effectiveness and productivity of the organization as well as the work environment and employee well being in the workplace. Some studies (Watzon,2000; Vinokur-Kaplan,1996 and Schneider, 2008) found that these variables- boredom and frustration, personnel policies working conditions and participation in decision making can be said to reliably make up organizational climate.</p>
<p>Research Hypothesis 5 There would be no positive significant difference in the way senior and junior academic perceive their organizational climate.</p>	<p>Management and Leadership style, Participation in Decision making, Challenging jobs, Boredom and frustration, Fringe benefits, Personnel policies, Working condition and Career ladder.</p>	<p>Paired- samples t-test was used to carry out the test on this hypothesis. Leadership</p>	<p>In the overall analysis carried out to compare the responses of the junior and senior academics from each of the five (5) Universities sampled based on their organizational climate variables, We can then say that there are significant differences in the way junior and senior academics view their organizational climate in these five (5) schools about their fringe benefits, the school's personnel policies and their working conditions. Thus, for the remaining five (5) variables, there are no significant differences in the way the junior and senior academics perceive their organizational climate in the five (5) schools.</p>	<p>Literature indicates that there are bound to be differences in way junior academics perceive their OC in relation to their senior counterparts. Those junior academics are likely to experience variables in their OC as negative compare to the way senior academics will perceive these variables. Literature indicates that perceptions emerge as a result of the activities, interactions and experiences of the individual which in the case of senior academics are more favourable to them the junior academics who attach different meaning to different situations most times negatively. Schneider and Rentsch (2008); Chan (2008); Glisson and James (2006).</p>

Source: Researcher's Field Survey Result (2009)

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the data analyses of the study. This chapter presents the summary of the findings, the conclusions and recommendations for further studies.

The purpose of the study was to identify elements within the organizational climate that may cause satisfaction among academic staff in selected private Universities in South- west Nigeria and provide guidelines for improving the situation.

In specific terms, the study sought:

- To find out the relationship that exists between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in Southwest Nigeria.
- To identify factors that determines job satisfaction of academics and their consequential effects on academic excellence.
- To determine whether faculty leaving a university is based on their dissatisfaction with the workload, feedback about performance and inadequate salary package expectation.
- To identify interactional organizational climate variables that can cause job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among academics.
- To determine whether there is a difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive their organizational climate.

5.2 Summary of Work

In the previous chapter, the views of the junior and senior academics on how they perceived the organizational climate were provided.

The University's organizational climate from the selected five schools within the Southwest Nigeria had not been evaluated since the inception of the private schools in Nigeria. It appeared in general that the academic staff members were dissatisfied with the work

environment. This is based on the researcher's observations during interaction with the academic staff coupled with the fact that there had been constant mobility of highly skilled academics from one University to another (Kestetner, 1994). Literature also shows that University lecturers are currently facing many challenges in education and society, which may well affect their levels of job satisfaction (Kniveton, 1991). For example: (1) Lecturers complained of the University management practice of favouritism when selecting academics for career development: (2) Lecturers see every now and then meetings as not too good because these prevent them from doing their best on the job as a result of the effect of boredom that result from here. (3) They complained about their non participation when developing or revising the goals and objectives of the institution which they see as a developmental process with their suggestions.

In Chapter One, the observed views of the academics with regard to factors that led to their satisfaction were generally identified. The theoretical framework of the research was briefly introduced, namely Herzberg's two-factors theory or motivation-Hygiene theory. The goal and the objectives of the study were also provided.

In Chapter Two, the literature review with regard to organizational climate was discussed. The chapter also included discussions on the relevant literature regarding Herzberg's two-factor theory as it formed the theoretical framework for this study. Promotion of job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, motivating factors, hygiene factors and organizational climate were dealt with. Towards the end of the chapter, activities that promote organizational climate were discussed.

Chapter Three focused on the research methodology. A cross sectional study design with an exploratory and descriptive design was used. The justification for the use of these designs focus on the phenomenon of interest, which according to this study, is to find out whether there is a difference in the way senior academics and junior academics perceive their organizational climate and help in identifying factors relating to organizational climate that cause job satisfaction among academics. The survey method was used to gather data regarding the organizational climate. The study population from which the sample was drawn

consists of eighteen private Universities in the South West Nigeria. Out of these eighteen private Universities, five were selected as the study sample through judgmental sampling method. Thus, questionnaires were administered to the academic staff ranging from the Professors, Associate Professors, etc.

The research design, population and sample were explained. The research instrument, namely a structured questionnaire was discussed, and the validity and reliability of the instrument were explained.

In Chapter Four, the analyses and interpretations of the data were dealt with. Tables 4.1 to Tables 4.5b report responses on the demographic profile of the participants, showing their distributions in terms of rank/level in the University, years the respondents have been in the current University, gender, years they have spent lecturing in the University system generally and age. Table 4.6 gave the confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 4.7 – 4.21 gave the descriptive statistics on the respondents views about the factors in organizational climate, which could result in job satisfaction of employees, namely – appropriate administrative style, support from supervisors, work load, feedback about performance, clear lines of communication, salary package and promotional opportunities. Table 4.22 – 4.48 reported the responses from the five Hypotheses tested. For example, Table 4.22 and 4.23 reported the descriptive statistic of organizational climate and job satisfaction, and correlational analysis of organizational climate and job satisfaction respectively. Table 4.24 – 4.27 related to Hypothesis 2 and they presented the regression model summary of organizational climate, regression of the two variables, summary of estimated co-efficient of communication, salary package and promotional opportunity and the descriptive statistics of job satisfaction, clear lines of communication, salary package and promotional opportunity. Table 4.28 – 4.30 presented the model summary of the variables, regression of the variables and summary of estimated coefficient of the variables. Table 4.31– 4.35 are related to Hypothesis four. They present the descriptive statistics of the variables, the correlation coefficients of the variables, model summary of coefficient of determination of the variables, regression analysis on the variables and the summary of estimated coefficient of the variables.

Hypothesis Five concerns the perception of the junior and senior staff members on how they experience their organizational climate were presented in Tables 4.36 – 4.47. It was not only that, responses to open ended questions were presented in Tables 4.48 – 4.56 for University C, Tables 4.57 – 4.60 for University B and Tables 4.61 – 4.68 reported responses to the open ended questions for University A academic staff and Table 4.69 gave the overall summary of findings of the study. These tables gave the researcher an insight into organizational climate of the selected private Universities in Southwest Nigeria which should enable the researcher to make specific and relevant conclusions.

In Chapter five, the researcher presents the discussions on the findings in chapter four, draws conclusion from the findings and comes up with recommendations, which address the factors that contributed to job satisfaction among academic staff. Also how these negative factors can be prevented in the future, which equally serves as the contributions to knowledge are indicated in this chapter.

5.3 Discussion of Findings

The discussion of research findings is based on the data analyses and the five tested hypotheses.

5.3.1 Relationship between Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction among Academics

The main aim of this study is to examine the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction among academics in the selected private Universities.

It was earlier stated that relationships among variables can be discerned in terms of whether they change together or separately. The reality perceived may be of dependence, concomitance, co-variation, coincidence, concurrence of independence or of dissatisfaction, that when two things covary, two possibilities emerge.

One is that the change in one may be in concomitance with the change in another, which is denoted as positive covariation or positive correlation and second is that the higher magnitudes of one go with the lower magnitude of the other and vice versa, which is denoted as negative covariation or negative correlation.

However, going by the above analysis that the correlation coefficient measures the degree to which two things vary together or oppositely, this present study correlated two variables: organizational climate and job satisfaction in testing Hypothesis One. The findings showed a significant positive relationship between these two variables. For the two variables at the same significant level of 0.01 (2-tailed) and degree of freedom (at 293), their Pearson correlation stood at .67, also supported the results from other studies. Friedlander and Margulies (1968) studied the multiple impacts of organizational climate components on individual job values on worker satisfaction. They found that climate of an organization and job satisfactions of their employees vary together. That climate had the greatest impact on satisfaction with interpersonal relationships on a job, a moderate impact upon satisfaction with recognizable advancement in the organization, and relatively less impact upon self-realization from task involvement.

Pritchard and Karasidit (1993) studied 76 employees from two different industrial organizations. They found climate dimensions to be moderately and strongly related to job satisfaction in facets as security, working conditions and advancement opportunities respectively. In other words, factors like clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities contributed to job satisfaction.

Judge, et al (2001) in their study listed clearer lines of communication, opportunities for promotion and competitive salary package as variables, which motivate people and influence job satisfaction. They said immediately these are absent or inadequate, workers became neutral toward work but when present, workers were highly motivated and satisfied. Luthans (2002) revealed that when there were unclear lines of communication and the opportunities to grow on one's job was not there, there would be the tendency for one not to find his employment sufficiently satisfactory. Most scholars recognized that job satisfaction is a global concept that also comprises various facets. Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) considered five of such facets as pay, promotions, co-workers, supervisors and the work itself. Some researchers classified job satisfaction into intrinsic and extrinsic elements where pay and promotions are considered as extrinsic factors with co-workers, supervision and the

work itself are considered as intrinsic factors. Silver, Paulin and Manning (1997) see job satisfaction as a multidimensional system of interrelated variables that are divided into three categories that are:

- a) Characteristically related to personal factors like attitude, values.
- b) Intrinsic rewards related to characteristics of job tasks such as opportunity for advancement, opportunity to be creative, problem solving challenges; and,
- c) Extrinsic rewards having to do with organizational characteristics such as wages/salaries, benefits, working hours, etc.
- d) Marriner-Tomey (1996) also viewed job satisfaction as a match between the employee's interest with the organizational goals and benefits accruing from it. That job satisfaction includes aspects like satisfaction with work, pay, opportunities for promotion, clear lines of communication, etc. In practice, the views of these authors are appropriate as employees generally feel satisfied when they receive good salary package and there is opportunity for promotion and advancement. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1997) and Luthans (1998) identify dimensions that are associated with job satisfaction- namely salaries, job promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers. All these support the acceptance of this proposition that factors listed actually contribute to job dissatisfaction if not in place. Even Herzberg in his study found that intrinsic factors (including pay/salary, promotional opportunities, etc.) were more strongly correlated with satisfaction.
- e) Moreover, Marriner-Tomey (1996) admitted that dissatisfaction occurs when people perceive that they are being treated unfairly with salaries, benefits, incentives, job security, etc. He stressed that poor planning, poor communication, inadequate explanations of decisions affecting jobs, unclear rules and regulations, etc. are all sources of dissatisfaction within the organization. From the point of view of Morrison (1993), low salaries promote dissatisfaction and would make workers feel frustrated. Gibson, et al (1997) indicated that employees might perceive the amount of pay received as unfair or fair as they normally expect equity among the salaries that are received by them and their colleagues who hold the same post description. As Ching (1997) puts it, "poor salaries that are not uncompetitive lead to unhappiness and discontentment. Thus, extensive study and application of these factors in literature rest

on the strong believe that factors like unclear lines of communication, low/unrealistic salary package and lack of promotional opportunities contribute to job dissatisfaction. Again, as hypothesized by Greenberg and Baron (1993), that organisation's reward system and policies pertaining to promotional opportunities, lines of communication, etc. are highly related to job satisfaction, which makes it important for the organization to make employees aware of these rewards so as to eliminate misunderstanding among the employer and the employees. Unclear reward systems and lines of communication lead to conflict and unfair practices within the workplace.

5.3.2 Factors Describing Job Satisfaction.

This study determines what factors describe the extent to which academics are satisfied with their jobs. The study showed that about 80% of the variability in job satisfaction can be explained by factors like work load, feedback about performance, support from superiors and appropriate administrative style. Most of the studies conducted in this area did not consider the appropriateness of administrative style and support from superiors but the variable used were good supervision and leadership; organizational structure; rules regulation and policies; work groups; interpersonal conflicts and poor work environment.

As Marriner-Tomey puts it, he stressed that dissatisfaction within an organization is as a result of poor planning, poor communication, unclear rules and regulations, unreasonable pressures, excessive work (otherwise known as work load), understaffing, uncooperative heads of departments/ units and non-academic duties.

This was confirmed by our analyses. Several other studies affirmed these factors listed above as describing job dissatisfaction in organization. Gerber, et al (1998), Booyens (1998) and Chung (1997) in their studies identified organizational structure; rules, regulation and policies; supervision and leadership, work group and poor work environment, etc, as factors that caused dissatisfaction in the work environment. Ivancevich and Donnelly (1997) in their study also identified supervision, promotional opportunities, etc. as dimensions that are associated with job satisfaction.

Mcfarland and Morris (1984) described supervision as a dynamic process in which employees are encouraged to participate regarding activities designed to meet

organizational goals and aid in the development of an employee. They further state that supervision is divided into technical skills which involve the use of knowledge, procedure, techniques and equipment to perform their tasks, the absence of which will bring about dissatisfaction.

He emphasized that employees could be given opportunities to update their knowledge through training, induction orientation procedures as well as providing in-service education and on-the-job training. However, Gillies (1982) also supported this submission.

f) Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (1998) submitted that satisfaction is promoted where there are good supervision and the employee perceives the supervision as helpful, competent and effective. They reiterated that poor supervision may arise within the work environment when the supervisor is insensitive.

University E

Responses to open-ended Question number One (1) on what the feelings of the respondents are all about, whether the university is doing enough to promote personal career development indicated more negative issues than the positive ones. Some supported the question by indicating yes and still went further to outline some of the programmes on ground which the university is using to promote personal career development such as YATRAP (Young Academic Training Programme) for young graduates especially their graduated students, M.Sc and Ph.D programmes for their staff and payment of annual dues for the staff professional affiliations. Some answered yes, to a large extent but added that a lot still needed to be done in the areas of staff development scheme. Some persons indicated they were relatively new in the system and so they could not really comment on the state of the school's career development. Some suggested preference should be given to junior academics for advancement as this accounted for their inability to do well at present. However, a large numbers of respondents indicated some dissatisfaction with career development. They answered not at all, not enough, while some answered no. In summary, since we have more negative answers than the positive answers, this suggests that both groups are dissatisfied with the way career development programmes are being handled in this school.

Response to open ended Question Two concerning the respondent's feelings about their work environment revealed that there were certain aspects that affected the functioning of the respondents negatively. There were more negative issues (51 out of n =87) raised than positive issues (36) regarding the respondents work environment. These include; (a) disenchantment and discriminatory tendencies in the work environment, (b) costly/ expensive environment, (c) unfriendly, tense, delicate, contradictory and intriguing. Though some described the environment as classic, ok, satisfactory, conducive and cool, a lot of respondents looked at it from the point of view of salary, that it should be looked into to enhance workers take home pay. Some described it as being dangerous- that they lived in fear of being fired anytime, with too many rules and many eavesdroppers / backstabbers. Some described the environment, as being tensed, though conducive for academics, especially with the absence of cultism and noise that are prevalent in the public schools.

Response to open-ended Question Three about their university's professional career development generated the highest frequency of people that are dissatisfied with the professional career development programme of the university. Some are of the opinion that they are not doing enough and some said they do but they do it in pretence. However, some others favoured the programme that it is a good effort though there are areas for improvement. Some commented that the school sponsors workshops, seminars, and conferences.

Responses to open ended Question Four about the respondents involvement in decision making revealed that decision making is limited to only the principal officers in the university .A greater number of them indicated that they are not in any way involved in decision making in the university, and where they are involved, it is only at the departmental or college board level and if related to their areas. They see the decision-making platform as autocratic when only the principal officers make decisions, that even where they are present, their opinions rarely count.

University D

Response to open ended Question One on whether the university is doing enough to promote personal career development have more negative answers than positive ones. As

a matter of fact, a good number answered yes, though with recommendations that there is need for improvement. Others indicated that it is to a considerable level, which is commendable, and eight (11.11%) are of the opinion that it is to some extent. Seven (9.72%) indicated that they are not sure while seven (9.72%) said it is not enough. Three (4.17%) respondents did not provide any answer.

However, for the second open ended question on the respondents' feelings about their work environment, more than half of the respondents are positive about their work environment. They described that the environment is challenging and encouraging (5.56%), conducive and fascinating (19.4%), safe and suitable (22.22%), satisfactory and fairly okay (13.89 and 15.28%). Only two respondents representing 2.78% indicated that though it is conducive, yet not too friendly. Five (6.94%) commented that the facilities are ok but that the policies should be employees friendly, while 5.56% looked at it from the viewpoint of better package that considers the interest of staff.

Response from open-ended Question Three on what the respondents feel about the university's professional career development programme received positive outcomes. Six respondents (8.33%) indicated that the university is trying though with little adjustments and the policies modified to be in full support of professionalism. In other words, that there is room for improvement. Seven (9.72%) out rightly say no, while 4.17% said it is fair as they do little upon which better performances are expected.

Information from the open-ended Question Four indicated that about 90% of the respondents indicated that they are not in any way involved in decision making. Further probe into the analysis revealed that almost everybody that indicated they are not involved in decision making is junior academics. This suggests that decision making in this university is reserved exclusively for the senior academics.

University C

Answers to open-ended Question One did not meet with favourable responses from the academics. Only 25 out of the 70 respondents have positive answers. The remaining ones are of the opinion that they are not doing sufficiently enough (22.86%), 10% said they are doing fairly while 11.43% are of the opinion that they are not doing at all. The university

is thus encouraged to do more than it is doing at present to promote personal career development,

For the second open –ended question, respondents indicated that they are satisfied with their work environment. 12.86% indicated their dissatisfaction with the work environment on the ground of too much control and its non-suitability in the area of pay. 10% expressed their dissatisfaction on ground that the intention and action are counter productive. Thus, they suggested improvement in these areas. Others favourably described the work environment as satisfactory and peaceful (40%); secure, sound, comfortable friendly (11.43%).

The third open-ended question also received fairly satisfied answers on the feelings of the academics about their University's professional career development. 11.43% submitted that though efforts are being made in that direction, while 1.43% submitted that they can do better by redefining the subject to improve the satisfactory level of the programme. A good number certified the programme as good (35.71%).

Again, responses to the open ended Question Four indicated that 38.57% of the respondents are not involved in decision making but the few numbers that agreed indicated that they do so at the departmental/ unit level (i.e. 21.43). 11.43% indicated partially, sometimes, not really and not at all.

University B

Responses to open-ended Question One are satisfactory;-that is, the respondents indicated okay 8.33% and yes 29.17% to the fact that the university is doing enough to promote personal career development. 12.50% indicated that their efforts are below average but can be improved upon.

Moreover, all the respondents describe their work environment in response to open – ended Question Two as either good, fine, safe, serene, ideal or perfect.

For open ended question three, responses were favourably disposed. The percentages of positive responses were more than the negative responses. Only 12.5% of the total percentage feel that the University is not doing too good to promote professional career development. Thus, we found out that the university is doing enough to promote professional career development.

Not only that, in the area of participation in decision making, only 15% of the respondents indicated yes as their answers, while 15% others responded with sometimes/partially and 27.5% indicated no while 35% responded not in all cases respectively.

University A

Responses to the first open ended question indicated that the school is only doing 25% in promoting personal career development. 17.5% gave no out rightly as answers, while 7.5% said they do it partially, 35% indicated not enough, of which room for improvement was suggested. For the second question, everybody gave satisfactory answers about their work environment which they described as serene, interesting, conducive, well secured, etc

Responses to the third open- ended question indicated that the respondents are dissatisfied with the university's professional career development. They indicated that the university still has a long way to go because the programme on ground is not enough/not fair but needs improvement. They recommended that the package needed to increase.

The fourth question on whether the respondents are involved in decision making indicated that about 85% of the respondents are either not involved at all or to some extent/ not at all times.

Analysis of the climate items in the study yielded a total of five climate factors for the organization, confirming the multidimensionality of the climate construct. The correlation results between the climate and satisfaction dimensions in this study were not too different from the findings of other researchers who studied similar research topic.

The findings of this study show the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction. In other words, that there is a significant positive relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction. Thus, it implies that certain factors exist within the organizational climate that affects the satisfaction of employees on the job. This means the factors when identified must be studied carefully, see how they affect the performance and satisfaction of employees and take appropriate action to minimize their negative effects.

The factors within the environment of an organization which constitute the climate include personnel policies, working conditions, boredom, frustration and participation in decision making. They were hypothesized and tested and the study found out that these factors exist within an organization and they can be said to reliably make up organizational climate; therefore, measures to initiate such a climate may be justified. This will help the organization to understand the extent to which these factors if not properly managed could lead to job dissatisfaction of employees. For example information gathered on personnel policies will be a pointer to the management that employees need to be informed about any new or revised policies especially the ones affecting their performances and that departmental policy should be framed in a way that will facilitate the achievement of its members' goals.

For the working conditions, information gathered will encourage the senior colleagues to create a challenging environment for their members, allow for the use of their own discretion and inform the university as a whole that equipment and resources necessary for the execution of their responsibilities must be provided.

Not only that, in the area of their participation in decision making, responses gathered showed that large number of the academic staff reported that they are neither involved in decision making nor their abilities taking into consideration when delegating. These, they submitted affect their abilities to perform since it is the senior academics that schedule work for all categories of lecturers from which they are not allowed to question rules set by the senior colleagues.

Important organizational climate factors which can cause satisfaction among academics were again identified. The factors include clear lines of communication, realistic salary package and promotional opportunities.

These are necessary for certain reasons. If the lines of communication are clear, it means the rules and regulations they have to follow the university's goals/objectives and mission statement and the exact performance expected of the employee will be clearly outlined and communicated to all. This will enhance employee performance and improves their morale as Udogo (2008) puts it; "good communication induces people to put forth greater

efforts in their work performances upon which the success of every organization depends”.

Another important component of job satisfaction variable is the promotional opportunities. To obtain co-operation, commitment and loyalty of the employee, it was reliably gathered from the study that appropriate in-service education programmes leading to promotions should be made available to all and sundry, that promotion criteria should be well defined and opportunities to attend workshops, seminars, conferences and to express their professional developmental needs to expand their knowledge, should be provided.

The realistic salary package view of the aspect of job satisfaction was mentioned to be competitive. This will help to attract, motivate, and retain the work force.

Appropriate administrative style, work load, feedback about performances and support from superiors, were gathered from the study to contribute to job satisfaction. Respondents in their reactions to appropriate administrative style confirmed (both junior and senior academics) that they spend too much time at meetings which prevent them from doing their best on the job and that if they have their ways, they will avoid going for the meetings. In their reactions to the work load variable, we found out that sometimes courses allocated to the junior academics are outside their field of specialization. At times, their work load increases because their colleagues are not doing their jobs properly. It was also gathered that they are not encouraged to make inputs with regards to their jobs. All these, if improved upon by the management will help bring out the best in their employees. It is important for the management of these private universities to be well disposed to job satisfaction of their employees. Their commitment to the job satisfaction of their employees will ensure the development of organizational climate which is conceptually the worker's affective evaluations of attitudes concerning his job and his work environment, knowing well that a worker's satisfaction does influence his job behaviour. Thus, management must pay much attention to the general manners in which company policies and practice are developed, administered and controlled. For example, in response to the open ended question about the respondents' feelings of what they perceive about the promotion of personal career development in their organization, there

were more negative answers to these questions. This means that, the academics are dissatisfied with the state of the personal career development and staff development schemes in their various schools which they are attributed to their not doing quite well at present.

The same responses go for their perception on what their universities are doing to promote professional career development. That is, they are of the view that their universities are not doing enough to promote career development (University E, 26.44%; University D, 19.44%; University C, 8.57%; University B, 8.33%; University A, 8.33%). Within the range of observations included in this study, however, satisfaction increases as academics are given greater support and direction (Table 4.16, descriptive statistics on support from superiors with mean statistics of 2.58, 2.69, 2.86 and 2.99; all of which are considered high enough above 2.50 on a 5-point scale).

When an academic perceives that he is an active participant in decision making especially in areas that relate to his work and in determining the policies and standards that affect him, he tends to be happier with those policies and standards as well as with the other members of his department who administer and implement them.

In the area of support from superiors/supervisors, academics tend to be more satisfied with their jobs when they perceive that their immediate superior closely directs and monitors their activities.

Junior academics are generally more satisfied with their jobs when management and senior colleagues provide them with adequate assistance and support- in the form of information, helping them to solve personal problems, sometimes doing personal favour for them, encouraging them to take initiatives in solving problems, willingness to listen to job related problems etc- to help them cope with the non routine problems and unusual demands they encounter on the job.

There may be limits to the amount of direction, support and structure that academics will find desirable. If carried to extremes, for instance, close supervision might so reduce the academics autonomy that he will feel overly restricted and become dissatisfied with his superior as well as many other aspects of his job.

5.4 Recommendations

However the following are the recommendations using the satisfaction antecedents and the various organizational climate variables identified in the study.

- In the area of the universities personal career development, we recommend that the universities management be more responsive to the academic career development programmes as had been suggested by the staff especially to the junior academics for their advancement .
- The management team should continually conduct workshops, or seminars to update their staff in their various endeavours and different leadership styles so that they can select the most appropriate leadership style in accordance with a particular situation maturity of their staff and be updated on the current research modules and outlets.
- The management team should conduct a survey within their universities in order to determine the availability and adequacy of equipment and resources necessary for the execution of responsibilities and negotiate remedial action with the authorities. Also strict control over existing equipments and material resources should be taken to prevent unnecessary wastage and loss.
- Management team should design a year plan regarding career development for all categories of academic staff to ensure that all academics are given a fair opportunity to develop. They should design criteria for selecting the staff who are to be sent for career development and training, and administer these selection criteria fairly.
- Management should not practice favouritism when selecting staff for career development. A selection committee can be established with representatives from the different categories of academics staff. Policies and opportunities regarding career development should be collated and communicated to all employees through circular/memos and meetings to ensure that all academics are well informed.
- The management team should show recognition and appreciation for work well done/achievement and provision of incentives to facilitate job satisfaction –e.g. announcement at meetings, personal letters and a rotating trophy. Marriner-Tomey(1996) and Robbinson (2007) state that positive reinforcement increases the probability of a recurrence of the desired behaviour.

- Management and senior academic staff should design a system that will encourage academic to put forward their inputs regarding empowering possibilities by creating suggestion boxes that can be placed in prominent areas. Not only that, management should acknowledge good ideas put forward by subordinates by giving credit privately and publicly. They should create opportunities for growth for example; by giving academics (junior academics most importantly) challenging assignments.
- The management team should involve academics when developing or revising the goals and objectives of the institution through workshops, so that academic suggestions can form part of the development process, thus enabling successful implementation. Also, they should conduct workshops on cultivating and emphasizing ethical standards, loyalty and value clarification.
- Management should ensure that existing benefits for academic staff are fairly, justly and competitively allocated to them. They should allocate courses to academics according to their skills and preference so that they do not leave the organization because they are allocated courses they do not feel comfortable with.
- Management can arrange meetings to be once in a month, so as to promote communication between the academics and thus reduce the effects of boredom resulting from every now and then meetings which prevent them from doing their best on their jobs. The use of circulars and memos should be encouraged to ensure that all academics have the same information without having to meet all the time.

5.5 Contributions to Knowledge

The study has contributed immensely to knowledge in the following ways:

- a) The study provides valuable compact of ideas, facts and figures that can be used by academics, management practitioners and consultants in understanding the dynamics of relationships and resultant effects between organizational climate and job satisfaction variables.
- b) The study provides insight into organizational factors that impinge on job satisfaction in a privatized environment using private universities as sample area.
- c) The empirical investigation into the relevant research data on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction studies showed that very few of them have focused on job satisfaction of the university teachers in relation to their organizational climate. Even these few

studies had been carried out in UK, USA and Malaysia. There is none of this research area among academics in Nigeria. Thus, this study will provide the extent to which research findings in these countries can be applied to Nigeria's organizational climate.

- d) The previous studies on ground have explained a worker's job satisfaction as a function of the individual's personal characteristics and characteristics of the job itself using variables like age, gender, educational status, time in position, conflict, closeness of supervision, amount of communication, etc. However, this study had provided other variables like lines of communication, salary package, promotional opportunities, personnel policies, working conditions, participation in decision making, etc, to study job satisfaction in which none of these studies used combination of these variables. This study therefore, provides research opportunities for further researchers on the field to expand the horizon of knowledge on these variables thus identified as job satisfaction antecedents.
- e) A lot of limitations were identified during the study such as the concentration of the study on the private universities alone, which limit the reliability and validity of the results obtained. Thus, the study then paves way into other research opportunities in the field to stretch the depth of knowledge into public universities- i.e. the federal and state universities. It also serves as eye opener to conduct the research into other zones in Nigeria to see whether their organizational climate in relation to job satisfaction of the academics in those places will differ from what we have in the south-western Nigeria.
- f) The study provided differences in the perceptions of junior and senior academics in the university environment and the explanations of measured differences in their job satisfaction levels.
- g) Above all, adoptable policies and strategies for mitigating organizational correlates of job dissatisfaction were recommended/ preferred.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

The limitations of this study are identified so that the findings can be interpreted correctly within the context of the study, while the recommendations will be discussed by using the job dissatisfaction antecedents and the various organizational climates identified in the study. The limitation of the study covers areas such as the population, sample, methodology and data analyses.

The total population of this study from which the sample was drawn include the eighteen private universities in the southwestern Nigeria published by National Universities Commission (NUC) as at January 2009. Because this study sample was limited to the southwestern Nigeria, it implies that other private institutions in the South-south, South-east, North, etc that are not included were ignored. Most importantly because the environment in which these ones are situated may give another perspective on the organizational climate of these universities. Hence, one reason the researcher may not be able to generalize the results to all the private universities within the country.

A study that attempts to find causal effects of variables (Organizational Climate and Job satisfaction) and the changing nature of the variables over time should use a more appropriate research design to collect data. Cross-sectional research design is used because it uses one-time-only observation but involves as many variables as are necessary for the study. Thus, the research design may fail to capture the continuous relationships between variables. Unlike longitudinal study, cross-sectional design does not capture causal relationships and the continuous changes in the variables. It only provides on the spot assessment of an institution (or company) and it saves time.

Another limitation of the study is in the area of the population for the study. The study used private universities in the southwest Nigeria. The population can equally be extended to all the private universities in the country and this will cover all the geopolitical zones in Nigeria from which the sample can then be drawn.

One major limitation of the study is that it concentrated on private universities only. This may affect the level of reliability and validity of the results obtained. Future researchers should look at the relationships between the two variables considered in the study in the public universities (i.e. both federal and state universities). Better still,

the perception of both the public and private lecturers on the two variables can be combined in a study and compared to see whether the lecturers in the two categories of schools perceive their organizational climate in relation to their job satisfaction differently.

Further research is recommended in order to reassess the perceptions of the academic staff regarding the organizational climate in order to re-evaluate whether the situation is improving and also to determine the true work load of different categories of academic staff in public universities.

Finally, the perceptions of academic staff in private universities and public universities can be compared on how they view their organizational climate in relation to their job satisfaction/job dissatisfaction in addition to involvement and commitment.

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RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Business Studies
Covenant University
P. M B. 1023, Ota. Ogun State
January 18, 2008.

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral degree student of Covenant University conducting a research in Industrial Relations And Human Resource Management, titled: **“Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction Among Academic Staff in Some Selected Private Universities within the South-West Zone of Nigeria.”**

To assist me in this regard, I would appreciate your efforts in completing the attached questionnaire. I assure you that all information received in this connection shall be treated and held in strict confidence.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Adeniji Anthonia Adenike (Mrs.)

QUESTIONNAIRE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

SECTION A

Questions directed to Senior and Junior Academic Staff.

Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 5; If you Strongly Agree (SA), for instance, tick 5, or if you Strongly Disagree (SD), please tick 1. We are interested in the number that best shows your views on the expectation of the study.

Sn	STATEMENTS	OPTIONS				
		(SD) 1	(D) 2	(U) 3	(A) 4	(SA) 5
1.	Management and leadership style in my University does not support lecturing profession.					
2.	Management and leadership style is sensitive and supportive of lecturer's work schedule.					
3.	Management style does not allow for academic input in the decision making process.					
4.	Management style encourages junior academic career path and growth.					
5.	Senior academics do not provide feedback on employees' evaluation and performance.					
6.	I am generally satisfied with the leadership style in my organization					
7.	I will like my Head of Department to change his or her leadership style.					
8.	Senior academics schedule work for all categories of lecturers.					
9.	Junior academics participate in decision making.					
10.	My participation in decision making enhance my ability to perform.					
11.	I never question rules set by the senior colleagues.					
12.	I am allowed autonomy in discharging my duties.					
13.	My abilities are taken into consideration when delegating.					
14.	I am involved when the University policies are reviewed.					
15.	I believe that the University sets high standard of performance.					
16.	Delegated responsibilities are challenging to me.					
17.	Delegated responsibilities allowed me to overcome limitation in my experience.					
18.	I find delegated responsibilities interesting.					
19.	My job is challenging.					
20.	Lecturers are given sufficient instruction on how to go about their work.					
21.	Senior academics schedule work for all categories of lecturers.					
22.	My work does not allow for use of my own discretion.					
23.	I am satisfied with the benefits that I receive at the University.					
24.	The benefits I receive are adequate to fulfill my basic needs.					

25.	My benefits equal my contributions to the University goals.					
26.	The benefits in my University are equal with the external labour market.					
27.	Lecturers work together when doing routine duties.					
28.	My work is evaluated according to the organization's set standards.					
29.	I am informed about any new or revised policies.					
30.	I believe my departmental policies facilitate the achievement of my goals.					
31.	My University sponsor local and overseas training.					
32.	My department provides sufficient material for our use.					
33.	Supplies are available when needed.					
34.	Lecturers co-operate well with each other in the University.					
35.	I am facilitated to overcome limitations in my experience.					
36.	My senior colleagues create a challenging environment for me.					
37.	The University provides the equipment and resources necessary for me to execute my responsibilities.					
38.	My work place is a noise-free environment.					
39.	I feel that my work place is a safe environment.					
40.	Senior academics share useful information with junior academics.					
41.	Senior academics ensure high performance among the junior academics.					
42.	Senior academics provide me with opportunities to overcome any limitations in knowledge.					
43.	I believe that I have opportunity for career advancement.					
44.	Career paths are well defined.					
45.	We spend too much time in meetings.					
46.	Time spent in meetings keep me from doing my best on the job.					
47.	I benefit a lot from meetings.					
48.	If I have my way, I will avoid going for the meetings.					
49.	Senior academics help to solve personal problems of their junior colleagues.					
50.	Senior academics sometimes do personal favour for junior academics.					
51.	Senior academics encourage their subordinates to take initiatives in solving problems.					
52.	Senior academics are willing to listen to job related problems.					
53.	Courses allocated to me are sometimes outside my area/field of specialization.					
54.	My workload is often increased because my colleagues are not doing their jobs properly.					
55.	My level of education and experience is used in allocating courses.					
56.	I am encouraged to make inputs with regards to my job.					
57.	Senior academics explain reasons for his or her criticism.					
58.	I am promoted based on my performance.					

59.	My performance appraisal is fair.					
60.	I am made aware of the rules and regulations I have to follow.					
61.	It is easy for me to talk with my superior.					
62.	I am aware of the University goals and objectives.					
63.	I know what the University's mission statement is.					
64.	I know exactly what is expected of me.					
65.	Disciplinary procedure is well outlined and communicated to all.					
66.	University remuneration package is competitive.					
67.	I am satisfied with the totality of my salary package.					
68.	If I get better option am willing to leave this organization immediately.					
69.	I am given the opportunity to attend workshops, seminars and conferences to expand my knowledge.					
70.	Appropriate in-service education programmes leading to promotions are available.					
71.	I am given opportunities to express my professional developmental needs.					
72.	Promotion criteria are well defined.					
73.	I am in a dead end job.					

SECTION B
OPEN-ENDED QUESTION

Instruction: Please give precise answer to the following questions. You may give practical examples where possible.

1. Do you feel the University is doing enough to promote personal career development?

.....

.....

.....

2. How do you feel about your work environment?

.....

.....

3. Do you feel the University is doing enough to promote professional career development?

.....

.....

4. Do you feel you are involved in decision-making?

.....

.....

SECTION C

Respondent Bio Data:

Instruction: Please tick the appropriate answer in the box provided.

1. What is your rank (level) in the University?

Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Associate Professor/ Reader	<input type="checkbox"/>
Senior Lecturer	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lecturer I	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lecturer II	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assistant Lecturer	<input type="checkbox"/>
Graduate Assistant	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How many years have you been in your current University?

..... (Write in years).

3. What is your gender? Male: Female:

4. How many years have you spent lecturing in the university system generally?

.....(Write in years).

5. Age. 19-25 26-40 41-60 61 & Above

THANK YOU AND GOD BLESS