

**GENDER DIFFERENCES AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG
ACADEMIC STAFF OF TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN ANAMBRA
STATE, NIGERIA.**

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APPROVAL PAGE

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DEDICATION

THIS WORK IS DEDICATED TO MY CARING DARLING MOTHER, LATE MADAM (OYOO) CECILIA OFODILE “OGO ADI IGBO NMA” WHO SLEPT IN THE LORD ON THE 5TH APRIL 2014.

MAY YOUR GENTLE SOUL REST IN PERFECT PEACE. AMEN.

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that I am responsible for the work submitted in this dissertation, that the original work is mine except as specified in the acknowledgements and references and that neither the dissertation nor the original work contained therein has been submitted to the university or any other institution for the award of a degree.

Okonkwo Mary Ekwy (Mrs.)

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Abstract

This study is a descriptive survey of gender differences and job satisfaction. The purpose of the study is to ascertain whether gender differences have any influence on job the satisfaction of academic staff of tertiary institutions in Anambra State, Nigeria. A sample size of 359 was proportionately drawn based on the size of the tertiary institution in Anambra State. A self developed questionnaire was administered to the sample. Four hypotheses were tested and no significant differences was found across the hypotheses tested. Based on the research findings, the researcher recommends that lecturers should be given fair treatment by their employers to enable them work efficiently towards organizational goals. Professional development should be encouraged through inservice and on the job training to enhance their skills on the job. The government should ensure prompt payment of salaries, wages, and conducive working environment so as to motivate the staff and avoid unnecessary industrial action.

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Gender is dynamic and it is quite different from sex. The issue of gender which has to do with social relationship in any given society is all about the way in which the biological makeup of man and woman, male and female, masculine and feminine has been used to determine the roles and position of the sexes. According to Oakley (1972), gender is about those characteristics of men and women which are socially determined in contrast to those which are biologically determined. It is everything men and women do and everything expected of them, with the exception of their sexually distinct functions (impregnation, child bearing and breast feeding) which can change and does change overtime through various cultural factors. In virtually all societies the role of each sex is shaped and determined by the society and a culturally accepted position is established.

This means that expectations are reached regarding what a man's role is and that of a woman in such a way that each sex is clearly aware of what is expected of him or her. For centuries the roles and expectations assigned to the sexes have been a source of concern and indeed bitterness since the issues of domination, inequality, denial of rights etc are seen to be a feature of gender as a phenomena. Gender roles – the behavior expected from members of a particular sex –are socially constructed, and are not biologically based.

Thus, there exist gender differences on the basis of biological fact of sex as well as in relation to culturally determined roles and expectations between men and women. Evidence for this comes from cross-cultural studies where women and men behave in very different ways than for instance, in western societies.

The role of women is usually associated with domestic sphere where a woman is seen as a wife, mother, sister, bearer and rearer of children, taking care of the home and a host of other things in the domestic sphere. On the other hand, men are associated with outside of the house work and activities, they are the bread winners and those who provide for the needs of the house. These roles are often associated with the biology of the sexes in which a stereotype is established for each of the sexes. On account of these stereotypes, gender differences is commonly found in which expectations are built on what a woman role should be vis-à-vis that of men and any distraction in this evokes some resentment or objection.

Women were seen by both men and even many women themselves, as less likely to have ability, desires, responsibility, skilled in business matters. Men are seen to be tough, preoccupied with tasks rather than relationships. The actual perception of tasks as masculine or feminine influences the behavior of an individual more than his or her biological make up (sex). Gender differences is taken to be classification according to sex differences of males and females.

The ideas generated by feminists and those who have developed misgivings regarding the gender relationship have led to movements and theories that seek to change this situation. As a result of this a lot of changes have taken place in the last century and changes in the current millennium.

Evidently, although a lot of changes have taken place a lot of more need to be achieved to ameliorate the gendered relationship found in society. One of the major areas in which the issue of gender is evoked is in the sphere of work. Work is largely carried out in formal organizations where people are employed. Working in formal organizations has proved to be a major problem for women who have to still contend with social and cultural roles and expectations of home making, bearing and rearing of children among many other things. Many studies have shown

how women are affected by this situation or condition and how gender differences represent an aspect of serious concern which feminists and even policy makers have remained much disturbed and wish to reduce the disparity between men and women.

The issue of gender differences can be associated with many things related to work and one such area is that of job satisfaction in work places such as tertiary institutions. Given the existing or prevailing expectations regarding the roles and positions assigned to women, it can be seen that the issue of job satisfaction between the sexes is imbued with numerous problems which affected women and men differently. Job satisfaction is an ingredient in any organization towards optimum attainment of an organizational goal. It has to do with personal fulfillment in work usually achieved through motivation. Organizations strongly desire job satisfaction from their employees (Oshagbemi 2003). Due to the important role of human resources on organizations performance, they try to keep employees satisfied. Satisfied employees or workers would produce superior performance in optimal time which leads to increase profits. When employees are satisfied with their work, they would be more creative and innovative and offer advances and allow company to evolve positively over time with changes in market conditions.

Organizations that overlook this do that at their own peril. Job satisfaction which has to do with individual or workers life time fulfillment, which comes through workers motivation on such things like leave and leave grant, increase in salary, housing, car loan, death benefits etc Sinqe - non for the attainment of organizational goal. On the other hand, the lack of job satisfaction results in a low level of workers commitment that in turn, affect performance and achievement of organizational goals. Since job satisfaction has something to do with a lot of things, gender differences is found to affect the sexes differently. This study is about differences as they affect men and women. This study examines these differences in higher institutions of

learning in Nigeria and Anambra state in particular. The study therefore covers both women and men academics in the institutions.

Quality in teaching and learning can only be enhanced if the institution members are satisfied and contented (Chen et al, 2006), and the health of an educational institutions depend on the job satisfaction of its employees (Wood, 1976). On the other hand, the goals of higher education are to provide in-depth knowledge, seek academic development, educate students and to coordinate national development demands (Johnes and Tayler, 1990). These goals cannot be accomplished efficiently and are barriers to utilization if low satisfaction or dissatisfaction exists amongst the academic staff in higher education sector. Syed et al (2012) recognized that staff satisfaction is the most significant aspect of the upper educational system. The current situation of strikes in the higher institutions in Nigeria has a lot to do with the problems of lack of job satisfaction by workers. This study is interested in this situation and especially as it relates to gender differences and job satisfaction among academic workers of these institutions.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problems

The issue of gender has become a major area of study in the globe. The issue of gender differences and job satisfaction has been of particular interest and concern not only in terms of gender but also in organizational studies. Among the many areas of concern in this regard include; disparity between women and men in terms of the kinds of job women are found, leadership style and behavior and job satisfaction among others. It is common knowledge that women face a number of challenges in work places which they have to cope with. Given these challenges an area that is worth investigating is that of gender differences and job satisfaction. As differences do really exist between the sexes it will be interesting to study and examine how differences due to gender affect or influence job satisfaction for women as well as men.

In view of this, a consideration of those factors that influence or affect job satisfaction need to be studied in order to find out how the gender differences affect the women and men. Among such factors are the intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Satisfaction derived by the workers from the job content factors is referred to as the intrinsic job satisfaction, e.g; achievement, recognition, advancement and work itself. While extrinsic satisfaction derived from the job-context factor e.g social atmosphere, administrative atmosphere, salary, other benefits and these will be examined in order to see how the sexes are differently influenced in an organization.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The major aim of the study is to examine job satisfaction among male and female academic staff in tertiary institutions in Anambra state, Nigeria. The specific objectives of this study are to:

- (i) To find out whether gender differences exist in job satisfaction among academic staff in tertiary institutions
- (ii) To find out how male and female academic staff are influence by intrinsic factors of job satisfaction in tertiary institutions;
- (iii) To find out how male and female academic staff are influenced by extrinsic factors of job satisfaction in tertiary institutions,

1.4 Research Questions

To find out whether age, tenure and rank have influence on job satisfaction between male and female academic staff. The study will try to look at such questions as:

1. How does gender determine differences in job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions?

2. How do intrinsic factors influence job satisfaction in tertiary institutions between male and female academic staff?
3. How do extrinsic factors influence job satisfaction between male and female academic staff?
4. Does age, tenure and rank have influence on job satisfaction between male and female academic staff?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses for this study are:

HO1: There is no significant difference between male and female academic staff in terms of job satisfaction.

HO2: There is no significant difference between male and female academic staff in terms of intrinsic factors of job satisfaction in tertiary institutions;

HO3: There is no significant difference between male and female academic staff in terms of extrinsic factors of job satisfaction in tertiary institutions.

HO4: There is no significant difference between male and female academic staff in relation to age and rank.

1.6 Significance of the Study

There has been a wide spread opinion about gender differences in the ability and capabilities of staff academic, in tertiary institutions in the performance of their role expectations. Some scholars hold the view that women are a weak sex and therefore cannot in any way perform more than their male counterparts in the work or administrations of tertiary institutions, others hold the view that men are more intelligent than women and therefore should not be given equal task performances. This study will be beneficial to tertiary institutions in that it is a major study in the theoretical field of need – theory and self-concept. Since what happens to people (male and female) at their work (particularly to tertiary institutions academic staff) has profound effect on their life and upon society as a whole, these effects cannot be ignored if the quality of life in the society is to be good.

The findings of this study will help educational policy-makers and administrators to fashion their policies in the direction that will positively influence academic staff job attitudes, behaviour and performance. This study, it is hoped, would contribute to principles aiding the practice of administrators in institutions of higher learning. It is also intended that the results of this study will contribute to a fuller comprehension of gender differences in job satisfaction among academic staff in tertiary institutions. Administrators in institution of higher learning will be able to understand how some factors such as working condition, supervision, trriage benefits etc influence job satisfaction in tertiary institution among academic staff; they could take steps leading to the creation of conducive condition of the attainment of greater degrees of job satisfaction.

From the findings administrators would be aided in understanding why some of their academic staff leave the service and join another establishment such as the petroleum industry. It may be in

fact, that those who stay are not necessarily satisfied as in some other occupations. According to Krause (1971), although the percentage of leavers may be low, yet “a profound morale and mobility crises is in progress among many who have not left.” An understanding of organization behaviour requires an examination of the on-going behavioural process, which goes on between the organization and the workers. This will assist the administrator in developing strategies to modify these on-going processes with a view to improving both system performance effectiveness and the quality of the organizational experience for the individual member of the organization of institutions.

Moreover, higher education management clearly needs to re-examine their current institutional policies on faculty work in order to keep highly productive faculty more satisfied with their job and to make the necessary changes in the policies and practices to enhance job satisfaction.

It is hoped that the barrier to the job satisfaction of academic members are found in this study may be useful for management institutes to develop work environment and culture that would allow higher levels of faculty job satisfaction and can contribute to a great extent to improve the level of academic members in developing countries in general and Nigeria higher education in particular.

The work also assist management to understand whether gender disparity exist between male and female staff and how to proffer solution to the problem.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The research work covers only the academic staff in the higher institutions in Anambra State. It covers six higher institutions of the state and comprises of both male and female staff of the institutions. Non-academic staffs are not included in the study.

1.8 Operational definitions of terms

Gender differences: Classification of sex differences of male and females.

Gender: male and female in respect of roles and position in tertiary institutions.

Job satisfaction: refers to the satisfaction derived by a worker from his work making the worker to like and be committed to his work.

Intrinsic job satisfaction: the satisfaction derived by the worker from the job-content factors, such as recognition, achievement, responsibility, advancement and the work itself.

Extrinsic job satisfaction: the satisfaction derived from the job-context factors such as social atmosphere, administrative atmosphere, salary, and other benefits.

Academic Staff: Tertiary institution personnel who are listed in the institution calendars for the academic year 2014/2015 as having the rank of professor, PHD, Principal Lecturer; senior lecturer, lecturer, part-time person.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the study. It sets out to trace the evolution, through which various studies, of the major concepts involved in this study and it then explores their relationship. The chapter tackles issues to do with gender, gender differences, job satisfaction in work organization. Consequently it treats various other concepts such as motivation in formal organization. Thus, the concept of gender, gender differences in human and management development, theories of gender differences such as; Gender Role Theory; functionalist theories; the need theory, Feminist theories.

2.1 Gender Differences

Genders differences refer to situation where men and women or boys or girls are not given equal rights and opportunities at all times (Akani, 2008). There is a disparity between males and females and their abilities to sharpen their future. Akani goes further to see this disparity as a thing that has traditionally given men a greater proportion of the benefits and to women a disproportion of house hold responsibility". Females have suffered deprivation and pain from little or no access to education, lack of economic employment or control of materials resources, lack of decision making power at family level (Akani, 2008).

Since it is the society that assigns the roles and power, the gender disparity and biases tend to eat deep into the society's law, policies and social practices which in turn influence the self-identities, attitudes and behaviour of the people. The consequence is the situation of "gender inequality" that favours one gender to the disadvantage of another. Yet gender difference is a human right issue under the international human rights treaties (Akani, 2008).

Gender equality has been and still a major issue to individuals, government, NGOs and international organizations. This leads to the convening of the fourth world conference on women from September, 1-15 1995 in Beijing, China and officially tagged “The fourth world conference on women: action for equity, development and peace”. The conference provided a platform for action that aimed at achieving equality and opportunity for women. Resulted in the Beijing declaration and platform for action which forms and gender for women’s empowerment worldwide (Nkang, 2009).

A Critical Look at Gender and Gender Differences

Gender is central to the way the society is organized. Like the family, religion, race, and other social institutions, gender affects the role men and women play in the society (Rley, 1991). Also, Akani (2008) defined gender as “sets of relationships, attributes, roles, and beliefs and attitudes that define what being a man or woman is within the society. It is a socially ascribed attributes as oppose to “sex” which is a biological attribute. In addition to these, Obasi (2008) also opined that “gender establishes patterns of behavior through interaction with other institutions, just as social class and the economy, also social institutions influenced each other. It can also be seen as the behavioural, cultural, or psychological traits typically associated with ones sex.

2.2 Gender Difference in Management and Human Development

Gender differences exist in nearly every social phenomena. From the moment of birth, gender expectations influence how boys and girls are treated. Infact, gender expectation may begin before birth as parents and grandparents decorate the baby’s room with stereotype gender colours. Also, since the first day of a baby’s life, research showed that girls are handled more

gently than the boys. Girls are expected to be sweet and want to be cuddled whereas boys are handled more roughly and are given greater independence.

Sociologists make clear distinctions between the term gender and sex. Sex refers to one's biological identity of being male or female while gender refers to the socially learned expectations and behavior associated with being male or female. Sex is biologically assigned while gender is culturally learned.

Our educational work place is bound predominantly by male creation, male values and precedence. Some argued that there is no innate difference in management style and functioning (Rothwell, 1982), between male and female other described distinctive differences in the attributes express (Drake, 1985; Leary, 1985). Reports highlight the lack of female representation in management (Cox, 1982) or underline the lack of equal opportunity in the work place (Guardian, 1995). Several books have been written to support and encourage women. Based on the assumption that they can and want to progress in salary and status in the work place (La Rouché, 1985) find out that this is in fact due to the increase in women's interest in their own learning and development (Tanton, 1994) few are unaware of feminist in gaining recognition and promotion. Likewise, the changes in work place practices to open part-time, temporary workers and the continuing evidence of women on lower pay for work of equal value. All these point to change.

Hofstede (1991) identifies a women's culture which differs from man's culture within each society. Women do to carry the symbols, do not correspond to the hero images, and do not participate in posturing values dominants in the man's culture and vice-versa (Hofstede, 1991:16). He argues that the difference in gender culture is as strong as difference in national

culture. Hofstede (1991:81-82) identifies masculine and feminine peoples, when employees of a multinational firm score the sexes consistently differently. The men selected.

- Have opportunities of high earnings.
 - Get recognition you deserved when you do a good job.
 - Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs.
 - Have challenging to do work from which there is personal sense of accomplishment
- (Hofstede, 1991:81-82)

The women choose goals from the other end of the spectrum namely:

- Have a good working relationship with direct superior.
- Work with people who co-operate well with one another.
- Live in an area desirable to you and your family.
- Have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to.

Difference in management style between male and female is usually portrayed in stereotypes such as predominantly communal, interpersonal, expressive, cooperative, intuitive, etc listed by Campbell (1977) and Drake (1985). However, Brown (1984) argued that “managerial success is seen not be gender dependent”. Perhaps, this is because our interpretation of success vary. So an example of successful management may be linked tom the completion of the task, rather than the process which led up to it. In the view of the researcher, having variety of style is to meet the varying needs of the individual and the task in hand, for it may be that organizations favour one style over another.

Role relationship (i.e organization structure) consists of the combination of variety of individual skills, background knowledge and other behaviuoral issues. According toHdersy and Blanchard (1972) leadership behavior depends on the ability to influence either person (s) in

order to achieve set goals. Perhaps this fact of the individual influencing the other (s) was a not known to traditional management which relied on principles to provide one best way of managing, organization, of delegating and division of labour. The impact of gender in leadership effectiveness was considered one most vital incident of individual differences in particular and group differences in general. Scholars like (Byrne, 1978), Ejiogu, (1977) Hersey et al (1972); Fapounda, (1989) never agreed in either the similarities or the differences in the level of leadership behavior of man and woman in management.

Given the fact that United Nations (1975), the World Bank (1994), Nigerian Country Report (1990) and other international and local agencies will not agree on the best ability of one gender in relationship. However, legislators have been used to denounce prejudices that lead to different employment pay and so on. Byrne (1978) claims that even with many legislation, decrees, edicts and extensive government pronouncement, the adult labour market is still characterized by latent structure practice which probate recrimination against gender set as if they have been found incompetent.

Many scholars such as Ejiogu (1977); Hegelsen, (1993) have stated that women are better leaders than the men due to some personality qualities found to be with associated with women. On the contrary Davis (1980), Kaufman (1990), and World Bank (1994) are of the perspectives that men and women who enjoy some opportunities are bound to show similar pattern of leadership proficiency and effectiveness.

Yet, Hall (1973) has the perspectives that women leaders are failures. A very neutral respective Dockyard (1979), hold that it can be traced to different socialization of men and women and to the fact that women tend to give more emphasis to interpersonal relationships

especially with their male peers they work better with desirable working condition (Dockyard, 1979:321).

Schein, (1973) and Yeager (1990) in their gender discuss centered leadership circumstances and the policy of the work place. They observed the females managers whose self image incorporates stereotypical feminine roles may be less incline to take job behavior associated with masculine managerial positions. They believed that who have 'made' it may have getting promotion for themselves and others to the high level. What is not available yet is the bank of female success stories where women have chosen to maintain traditional female attributes and been promoted through the glass ceiling 'Van Velso and Hughes of women and men, acknowledging that each has developed a set of assumptions that structure the way we interpret our experiences. They also acknowledge the work done by Morrison (1987) suggesting "that the psychological profile of women who succeed in positions of executive leadership may be more like those of men counterparts and like those of women in general (Van Velso and Hughes, 1990:30).

However, there are women in Nigeria who are very effective leaders on top executive positions, perhaps, these shrewd women realized what they needed to do and which attributes they had to portray in order to be recognized for promotion. The decade for women (1975-85) in Nigeria witnessed the emergence of various federal government directorates that focus on the task of improving the status and the role of women in development. Thus, there emerged various programmes aimed at projecting women's special needs as men's partners of development: the Better life programme (BLP) 1978; Family Support Programme (FSP) 1994 and the establishment of Ministry of Women Affairs (1995:5), Nigeria is not only active members but also a signatory to all United conventions and policies aimed promoting equal gender

opportunities. Hence, (partnership development) the United Nations system in Nigeria (October, 1995:5) states:

Nigerian women are entering the labour market in unprecedented numbers and making in-roads into traditionally male dominated areas. Women are playing better role at all levels of public life. And gaining crucial access to property, health care, education, and civil justice.

For instance, Akunyili was appointed the director general of NAFDAC (National Agency for Food and Drugs Administration Council) by president Olusegun Obasanjo in the year 2000. She took Herculean task in shad, went straight into action with pro-active responsibilities for bringing drastic and revolutionary improvements with countless corrective measures for bringing in transparency, rooting out corruption, fake and adulterated drugs, importing of substandard pharmaceutical production with a very short span of time- (under two years). According to Akinyele (2003:13), “the mammoth task and rapid pace of her reform, Progress and revolution is unprecedented and is not likely to have a parallel anywhere in the world. Her sense of achievement has gone unnoticed worldwide. The integrity Award for Transparency International and EMRC Euro-market Award coffered on her is a testimony of the world recognition of her total commitment to quality and ethical practice in the food, drug and other regulated product industries in shipping and transport Association (WISTA) Nigerian chapter. This is an international association of Women in Shipping and transport with membership spanning 24 countries worldwide. It has existed in Nigeria since 1994 and with the target of women interested in the shipping industry. Over the years, the work of the association has generated a lot of interest in women to get involved in shipping (Abah, 2003). According to Abah, (2003:21) Mfon, Ekong, Usoro combines legal practice and consultancy effectively.

Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala, the World Bank’s, Vice-president and corporate secretary in Washington DC and the minister of finance in June 2003 in the Obasanjo regime, was able to

work out a prognosis on the way forward for a depressed economy. In celebrating of her excellent and for her exploits, she was recently honoured with merit of the year Award by the Nigerian Lawyers Association in the New York (Akande, 2003:14) councilor (Mrs.)Kat Anolue is a labour officer- the ruling party elected councilor in Enfield Bought of North London. (Onyedoyin, 2003:14). This management position was hitherto for men.

According to Ms Prisca Soares (2002:24):

In the last two decades, only a handful of women could be spotted in an insurance company. Many of them turned down job offers from insurance companies, describing it ignorantly as a demanding job. The number of women in insurance is still very low especially at the top and when looked from the point of view of statics.

However, it is no longer news that Ms Prisca Soares: the management director and chief Executive Officer of NICON Insurance Cooperation is the first female insurance professional to preside over the N 1billion capitalized NOICON insurance Corporation, but what is news is the fact that Ms Soares emerge as the next woman elected president of chartered Institute of Insurance Nigeria (CIIN)in between the time, however, she has developed the good mind of cajoling more ladies in insurance to aspire the tops. The professional insurance Ladies Association (PILA) a group of women in insurance, present a ready platform for her campaign. She declared that gender is no longer an obstacle in the race of success (Egerue, 2002:30).

Meanwhile, the low number of Nigerian women in the insurance industries has become a source of worry to some of the practitioners in the industry. Out of the 118 existing insurance companies in Nigeria only five are female managing directors. The brokerage firms have only 23 women as chief executive in an industry that have a total number of 359 registered insurance Brokers (Daily Champion, 2002:25).

In the area of politics, women like Senator Kofoworola Buckor-Akerele occupied a very sensitive position of the Deputy Governor of Lagos state. The Deputy Governor was consistently at variance with the Governor Bola Hamed Tinubu. According to Eihigiahor(2002), the deputy governor has said repeatedly that the problem between them started as a result of her refusal to support Tinubu to upstage Alhaji Ganiyu Dawodu as the Chairman of the Alliance For Democracy (AD) in the state and hijack the party machinery. Her stay with governor was marred by one controversy or the other but she insisted on serving fully her four years tenure since according to her, she was elected on the same ticket as governor Tinubu and does not therefore see any reason to be intimidated out of the office (Eighiator, 2002:18) since this cat and dog relationship exists between them the governor no longer accord her office the proper annual budget allocations. The Governor never for once handed over the affairs of the state as required by the constitution, each time he embarked on overseas tours. Nevertheless, Senator Bukola-Akerele was not impeached out resigned on December 16, 2002.

Prince Vivian Anazodo National Party Chairman of United People Party (UNNPP) (Vanguard, 2003:34). Chekwa was the Minister of Aviation and Mrs. Adelaja was the Minister of state of Ministry of Defense in the political regime that ended on the 29th May, 2003. Mrs. Nwachukwu won the seat of Ogbaru Local Government Chairman. Despite the opposition she received from her party members she was still able to emerge as an effective and efficient local government chairman (Guardian, 2001:6).

According to Chibueze, (2003:8) Mrs. Balogun the president of chartered institute of Taxation in Nigeria (CITN) said that:

Her institute of taxation in Nigeria stands as a distinct professional body symbolizing a reference point in the pursuit of the best ideals in professionalism. The institute, she further states has also unturned its short history carved a niche for itself by promoting practice and excellence among

its members but also remained at the Vanguard of effort geared toward fashioning an efficient fiscal policy regime for the country.

The minister of state of health is also a female, Hajiya Amina Ndalolo she has determined to eradicate among other diseases polio she said “we cannot afford to fold our arms and watch our children die carelessly. It involves determinations, devotion and confidence for parties to achieve our aim to kick out polio from our country” (Guradina, 2002:6). The Director-General Nigerian Institute of International Affairs (NIIA) is also a female Professor Joy Ogwu (Abayomi, 2003:3).

Mrs. Okoye is the Chief executive of Emzor Pharmaceutical Industries Limited. She received the world quality commitment (WOC) international Award for quality in the Goal category in Spain. Emzor becomes the first pharmaceutical company in Nigeria and the fourth company in Africa to win the award. According to the business initiative directory (BDI) in Madrid Emzor won the Award for corporate achievement in recognition of its product quality and excellence. (Financial Standards 2003:6).

In the Oil industries Princess Oduah popularly called “the oil princess” is referred to as ‘ICON’ of our time. She single handedly redefined customer services delivery in the petroleum marketing sub-sector by venturing into a male dominated business sector and over time turned the table to become the most respected woman in the industry, (Ovation, 2003:4). However, comparatively, Igbo women tend to lag behind their sisters in other parts of the federation, because it seems that Igbo men for the most part are not very willing to share power with women.

In areas of education, most Nigerian heads of institutions are male though few females are recorded. Allele-Williams were at one time the Vice-chancellor of University of Benin. The

tough and shrewd character in her administration earned her a name “Mamangida of Uni-Ben” (mother of Uni-Ben) (Tell, 1988:6).

Maduewesi was one time provost of Nwafor-Orizu College of Education Nsugbe. She was firm in her administration. Barrister Jessy Balonwu was the commissioner for Education in Anambra state in the year 2000 administration during His Excellency C.C. Mbadinuju’s tenure as governor. She also contested for the seat of senate in 2003 election. Nkechi Ikediugwu was the chairman of state Education in Anambra state in the year 2000. She held the office for two years.

The major challenge to today’s business world is structure in the typical organization of bureaucracy and hierarchy. Participatory management and transformation leadership are seen as asset rather than liabilities (O’Leary and Ryan, 1994) Rosener suggested that women will succeed to executive levels: because of certain characteristics generally considered to be ‘feminine’ and appropriate in leaders’ (1990:1240). What is important is that these characteristics, values or ways of doing things are not lost in the struggle to climb the ladder.

Sciein (1973) assessed the requisite characteristics perceived as determining managerial success and concluded that “to think manager was to think male”. A judgment about managerial success based on men values (Calas and Smircich, 1990), and these same values have been the same or partially inaccurate beliefs about women inability to manage or lead effectively. Birds (1970) and Epstein (1971) suggested that women must primarily extend their achievements, motives and aspiration beyond the traditional level of assumed “female work”

Onwuchekwa (1990) confirms that women with higher achievement ambition are definitely poles apart from the mere traditional women. The former are professional women who have indeed worked very hard and are highly motivated into top successful women by their ability.

2.3 Gender Role Theory

Gender role theory posits that boys and girls learn the appropriate behavior and attitudes from the family and overall culture they grow up with, and so non-physical gender differences are a product of socialization. Social role theory process that the social structure is the underlying force for the for gender differences. Social roles theory proposed that the sex differentiated behavior is driven by the division of labor between two sexes within a society. Division of labor creates gender role, which in turn lead to gender social behavior.

The physical socialization of the sexes is considered distal cause of gender roles. Men's unique physical advantage in terms of body size and upper body strength provided them an edge over women in those social activities that demand such physical attributes such as hunting herding and warfare. On the other hand, women's biological capacity for production and child bearing is proposed to explain their limited involvement in other social activities. Such divided activity arrangement for the purpose of achieving activity-efficiency lead to the division of labour between sexes. Social role theory have explicitly traced that the labour division is not narrowly defined as that between paid employment and domestics activities rather, is conceptualized to include all activities performed within a society that are necessary for its existence and sustainability. The characteristics of the activities performed by men and women became people's perceptions and beliefs of the dispositional attributes of men or women themselves. Through the process of correspondent influence (Gilbert, 1998), division of labour led to gender role or stereotype. Ultimately, people expected men and women who occupy certain position to behave according to these attributes. These socially constructed gender roles are considered to be hierarchical and characterized as a male advantage gender hierarchy (Wood and Eagly, 2002). The activities men were involved in were often those that provided them with

more access to or control of resources and decision-making power rendering men not only superior dispositional attributes via correspondence bias (Gilbert, 1998), but also higher status and authority as societal progressed. The particular pattern of the labour division within a certain society is a dynamic process and determined by its specific economic and cultural characteristics. For instance, man's industrial economy, the emphasis on physical strength in social activities becomes less compared with that in a less advanced economy. In a low birth rate society, women will be less confined to reproductive activities and thus more likely to be involved in a wide range of societal activities. The beliefs that people holds about the sexes are derived from observations of the role performance of men and women and thus reflect the sexual division of labour and gender hierarchy of the society (Eagly et al, 2000).

Gender roles provide guides to normative behavior that are typical, ought-to-be and thus "likely effective" for each sex within social context. Gender roles also depict ideal, should-be, and thus desirable behavior of men and women who are occupying a particular position or involving in certain social activities. Put it another way, men and women as social beings, strive to belong and seek for approval by complying and countermining to the social and cultural norms their society. The conformity to social norms not only shapes the pattern, but also maintains the very existence of sex-type social behaviour (Eagly et al, 2004)

In summary, social roles theory "treat these differing distribution of women and men into roles as the primary origin of sex-differentiated social behavior, their impact of behavior, their impact on behavior is mediated by physical and social processes" (Eagly, 1997), including developmental and socialization processes, as well as by processes involved in social interaction such as expectancy confirmation, and self-regulation" (Eagly et al, 2004).

2.3.1 Functionalist Theories

Functionalism is the oldest and still the dominant, theoretical perspective in sociology and many other social sciences. Functionalism is also known as functional analysis or 'consensus' theory. It is often referred to as 'consensus' theory because it does not address the issue of conflict in society; rather, it projects an ideal picture of harmonious social relationships.

Functionalism is a sociological perspective that originally attempted to explain social institutions as collective means to fill individual biological needs. Later, it came to focus in the ways in which social institutions fill social needs, especially social stability (Wikipedia, 2006). Functionalism is a theoretical perspective based on the notion that social events can best be explained in terms of the functions they perform – that is, the contributions they make to the continuity of a society (Giddens, 1993). Functionalist analysis has a long history in sociology (Haralambus and H.Holborn, 2000). It is prominent in the work of Auguste Comte (1798 – 1857) and Herbert Sencer (1820 – 1903). It was developed by Emile Durkheim (1858 – 1917) and refined by Talcott Parsons (1902-1979).

The main ideas – the starting point of all functionalism is that all societies have certain basic needs-functionalists are therefore concerned with the contribution the various parts of society make towards the needs. Functionalists believe that the basis of an orderly society is the existence of a central value system that imposes common values on all its members. Therefore, when functionalists look at the ways in which the various parts of society contribute to the bringing about of social order, they are mainly concerned with the ways in which these parts help to perpetuate and maintain this common value system.

Gender roles process of socialization cannot say that they are biologically derived because there have been observed wide differences across cultures. We often fail to distinguish sex – a

biological term denoting physiological characteristics; from gender – a psychological and cultural term which denotes learned behaviour which is associated with biological characteristics.

Obviously there's the "biological division of labour in reproduction, which leads to the foundation and elaboration of gender roles (Shepard, p344). (But given this basic distinction, society can shape these roles in many different ways).

Some studies have shown that genetic differences have predisposed males toward more aggressive behaviour (hormones like testosterone and androgens in the male and progesterone and estrogen in the female). But outside of aggression, other biologically derived differences have not been conclusively discovered.

Cultural factors: Margaret Meade studied the three primitive peoples of New Guinea described above, and found significant differences in gender roles. This, she took to indicate that human nature is sufficiently malleable to rule out biological determination of gender roles (Sheppard, p. 346). But Meade's societies were the exception, not the rule. Cross culturally, the predominant feature has been for the men to be dominant and the women to be nurturing. Women are usually found to do the domestic chores, care for kids, and promoting family emotional harmony. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to provide for the family and to represent the family activities outside the home (Sheppard, p.346). Why is this so? Men have the physical advantage of size and women have been restricted to child care because of pregnancy and lactation. Physical advantages lead to economic, political and social advantages. Once these have been gained, hard to give them up.

Numerous societies have made deliberate efforts to reduce or eliminate gender roles that have traditionally served to distinguish "men's work" from "women's work". The results have

been mixed: In our country, men have more power, independence, social respect, and health. While women lack power in society, sociologists consider them to be a “minority.”

Theoretical Approaches:

Functionalist explanations of Gender roles; the division of labour based upon sex has survived because it is beneficent and efficient for society. This view states that even today, this is the case. (Parsons and Shils) argued in the 1950s that family stability was maintained because one member the male assumed the “instrumental role” of breadwinner; while the female adopted the “expressive role” of managing relationships within the family and keeping it together. (If both members were to work, this would place strain on the family because of role competition).

This sexual division of labour traces its roots to prehistoric times where women’s movement was restricted due to child-bearing and nurturing. Men had more freedom of movement and thus, adopted instrumental roles.

2.3.2 The Need Theory

According to Beach (1975) “it is both humiliating and true that scientists are unable in the final analysis, to distinguish all the characteristics of humans from those of their animals. But many social scientists will agree that among those activities most defines man with the greatest certainty”.

Motivation theory has been increasing in complexity since 1900 to date. Taylor’s scientific management marked the beginning of systematic theory of work motivation. Up-till Taylor (1911), the traditional management practice was based on three simple additive assumptions:

1. Personnel primarily are economically motivated secondarily desire security and good working conditions (a non-authoritarian type of supervision is considered as part of the conditions)
2. Provision of the above rewards to personnel will have a positive effect on their morale.
3. There is positive correlation between morale and productivity (unfortunate this traditional approach overlooked too many facts in the in the complex matter of the human motivation which is not a simple economics, security, working-conditions affairs).

Gradually, these three assumptions got invalidated through research and experience. Although it may be said that Taylor who introduces what is called scientific management, did not consider the feeling and needs of the people when he developed this methods of improving production, yet from this ideas about the division of the profit of the workers in view. His scientific management philosophy and principles could be summarized in his own words as:

1. Scientific, not rule of the thumb.
2. Harmony, not disorder.
3. Cooperation, not individualism;
4. Maximum output, in place of restricted output; and
5. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity.

The human factor in work situation has therefore always been a matter of interest to psychologists, sociologist and educationist. Job satisfaction with the attitudes it describe how long been recognized as one of the important human but the human relation movement and of industrial sociology as a result of his Hawthorn investigation brought about a fuller realization and understanding of the human factor, in work situations. Mayo was interested in discovering how spontaneous corporation could be achieved. It is this, which has been the basis of human

relation movement, use of insight of social sciences to secure the commitment of individual to the end and activities of the organization, through the satisfaction of their social needs.

One of the revered conceptual models, which focus on the satisfaction of human needs, is the one developed by Maslow (1943-1954) arising out of the work of Goldstein (1939). Maslow postulated that man is basically a wanting animal. His life style is predominantly directed towards satisfying his various wants. As each one becomes satisfied, new ones arise. From the moment of birth, an unending change reaction is set in motion. There is a general development from the seeking of satisfaction of primordial needs basic to the existence of life itself, through a series of levels, to the pursuit of satisfaction on higher intellectual, cultural and social planes. Maslow organized his category of human needs into a hierarchy of importance. This is generally referred to by scholars as Maslow taxonomy of need viz:

1. Physiological needs essential to biological survival, such as food and water, air to breathe, physical activity, sleep, rest and sex. When these needs are catered for, man then needs.
2. Safety and protection in order to safeguard what has already been accomplished. These take the form not of somewhere to live alone, but also of stable non-hostile environment
3. Love need the widest sense, then become apparent i.e. friendly working relationship with other individuals, recognitions by one's peers as fellow group member.
4. Esteem needs then arise, in which the individual seek properly founded self respect and the esteem of others arising out of his own unique contribution to society and leading to the highest level of.
5. Self-actualization needs to develop one's skills capacities and aptitude to the full develop into a whole man (woman)

Maslow did not inherit that his need hierarchy should be directly applied to work motivation. In fact, he did not delve into the motivating aspect of human in organization until about 20 years after originally proposed the theory. Despite this lack of intent on Maslow's own parts, other such as McGregor (1960) and Likert (1967) popularized his theory in management literature. The number and names of the levels of needs identified by Maslow are not important. As Maslow himself pointed out, the need may not always occur in the order indicated and there may not always be learn distinction between the various levels. His major contributions lie in the hierarchical aspects. He was the first to emphasized that once a need is satisfied it no longer serve as motive.

McGregor, building up the work of Maslow in recognition of the necessity to satisfy the needs of the employee in order to motivate him to work, contented that too many business organizations still conduct their affairs in accordance with a traditional view of direction and controlled based on task achievement only, with no real recognition of the importance of satisfying individual needs from self-development and growth.

He labeled as "theory X" a set of assumption about human nature and human behavior underlying this traditional views, that dislike and will avoid work if they can, that they therefore have to be coerced, controlled, directed and even threatened with punishment to get them to work toward organizational objectives, and that the treasured security above else because they have little sense of responsibilities or ambition and simply want to be directed.

In contrast, he described the more enlightened view of the task of organization as based on "theory Y" that people like work and find it as natural as play or rest, that they will use self-direction and self-control in working toward organization objectives which they accept, that working toward organizational objectives can yield a variety of reward, of which the most

significant are ego satisfaction and self-actualization and that, giving proper condition, people will even seek responsibility and use a high degree of their potentiality of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving problems of organization. Hence, the most significant reward that can be offered to in order to obtain good leadership the satisfaction of the individual self-actualizing needs. The concept essential which McGregor and later on, Likert are propounding is that modern organization to be effective, most regards themselves as interacting groups of people 'supportive relationship to others. Likert formulated what he called an integrating principle, which provide a funder mental formula of obtaining the full potential of every major motive which can be harnessed in a working situation.

The principles of supportive relationship are as follows:

The leadership and other processes of the organization must be as to ensure as maximum probability that in all interaction and all relationship with the organization, each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintain his sense of personal worth and importance.

The above need theories are relevant to this study because they gives us an insight into knowing the extent to which need can play a very serious part in the efficiency or satisfaction of a worker with his job.

In conclusion, man therefore has a set of needs which must be satisfied in his working life. The satisfaction of these needs has been termed job satisfaction.

2.3.3 Feminist Theories

In this study, feminism, as a sociological theory is adopted. Generally, feminism approaches stress the nature of society and explore how this power developed, its effect upon women[and men] and the mechanisms by which male power continues . According

to Moore (1998), these approaches are generally influenced by structural theory and often times overlap with other types of theory such as Marxist perspective.

Moore (1998) categorizes feminist theories into;

1. Liberal Feminism
2. Marxist Feminism
3. Radical Feminism
4. Dual-System Feminism theory and
5. Black Feminism

Liberal Feminism examines the processes of socialization and sex-role conditioning in order to show that the gender roles of male and female are not biologically based. Most early sociological studies followed this route by unraveling socialization patterns in the various agents and agitating for different ways of socializing children, to offer higher schooling expectation for girls and to change the images of women in the media.

The second is Marxist Feminism approach, which examines the nature of capitalist society. It posits that capitalism exploits and oppresses both males and females, and by exposing and then replacing capitalist society, both males and females will be liberated. It further examines the position of domestic labour within capitalism, and sees women as important reproductive agents in capitalism, who physically produce and care for the next generation of labourers, and who socialize the next generation into submissive attitude.

Radical Feminism on the other hand starts from the assumption that the real cause of the oppression of women is men. Patriarchy, the power of men, exists because men deliberately or unknowingly benefit from this and wish it to continue. Women are categorized as an inferior class to men and are exploited. Some radical feminists argue

that women fall into category of the underclass because on political and economic grounds their experiences are significantly worse than men.

Next is the Daul- System theory, which offers the most comprehensive critique of the position of women. It combines elements of radical feminism and Marxist feminism and argues that two intertwined system of exploitation and oppression exist: The first of these is capitalism which ensures the exploitation of all workers, but in particular women; the second is that at the same time women are oppressed by within the capitalist structure. The interconnected roles of women in the labour force and in the home combine to form a system of oppression that maintains women are forced to engage in part-time, and generally insecure employment because of the demands made on them as mothers and house workers. Their family and domestic commitment prevent them from taking senior positions in the labour force or in the political system; and so they remain in an inferior position.

The last but not the least is black feminism, which is only a partial approach to the position of women- black and Asian women. It claims that feminism is ethnocentric reflecting the concerns of white and often middle-class women.

From the above exposition, this study adopts the Marxist feminism approach and the dual-system theory in view of their strength and the experience of the Nigerian women in particular, and the female-folk in general cum the nature of our economic system.

2.4 Work and Organization

Work and organization, concept of work, the concept of organization, characteristics of formal organization, organizational climate enhancing. Organisational climate, work,

organization and job satisfaction. The second part will review the studies that have been devoted to job satisfaction.

2.4.1 The Concept of Work

When one thinks of work, one often thinks of a job in modern societies. But work is far more than a job. Although work certainly provides for basic subsistence needs and decent living conditions, this is not its only function. Work is, above all, an activity through which an individual fits into the world, creates new relations, uses his talents, learns and grows, develops his identity and a sense of belonging. To work is to exert effort in order to make something, to achieve something, to produce a desired effect. For human beings, “to be able to do something” means to make it visible.

The notion of “work” has several definitions, but they all share the idea of a purposeful activity. This notion generally refers to expending energy through a set of coordinated activities aimed at producing something useful. Work may be pleasant or unpleasant, and may or may not be associated with monetary exchanges. Moreover, it does not necessarily have to be accomplished in the context of a job.

According to Morin (2004) work can be defined as an effect of coherence between the subject and the work he does, the level of harmony or balance he achieves in his relationship to work. The thoughts that one has about something else tend to organize themselves into balanced systems and consequently, any incoherence leads to activities (intellectual, emotional, behavioral, etc) to restore that balance. The sense of coherence that the subject finds in his relationship to work gives him a sense of psychological security and serenity which helps him to cope with the challenges that are inevitably involved in performing his duties. This position derives from his study of organization and work. These are; social purpose (Doing some purpose

(Doing something that is useful to others or to society, that contributes to society), moral correctness (Doing a job that is morally justifiable in terms of its processes and its results), achievement-related pleasure (Enjoying one's job, doing a job that stimulates the development of one's potential and that enables achieving one's goals), autonomy (Being able to use one's skills and judgment to solve problems and make decision regarding one's job), recognition (Doing a job that corresponds to one's skills, whose results are recognized and whose salary is adequate), and positive relationships (Doing a job that enables making interesting contacts and good relationships with others). The categorization above by Morin shows that, a meaningful work, especially in the academics, is useful to society. Work is meaningful when it is done responsibly, not just in terms of its execution, but in terms of the products and consequences it engenders.

Debebe's (2003), work is an activity that brings people and groups of people together, that gives rise to conflicts and that leads to consequences that aren't always predictable. Work is meaningful when it is performed in a context following established rules and duties and when inspired by moral and spiritual values. For work to be meaningful, it should also be enjoyable to the worker. For this to occur, it should correspond to his fields of interest, call on his skills, stimulate his potential, and effectively enable him to reach his objectives. For work to be meaningful, it should also enable the worker to use his skills and judgment, to showcase his problem-solving creativity, and to have a voice with regard to decisions that involve him. Recognition is another important characteristic of a meaningful job. Working at a job that corresponds to one's abilities, where one's talents are recognized, and they provides a salary that provides for one's needs are all desirable signs of recognition.

For work to be meaningful, jackal (1996), opined that it should be performed in an environment that stimulates the development of positive professional relationships: a job that

enables the worker to enjoy interesting contacts, good relationships with others, camaraderie with one's co-workers, and the ability to yield influence in one's field. To this extent therefore, it suffices to say that the academic environment provide an enabling environment under which the above mentioned variables can thrive. In sum, work is a major activity for human beings. It corresponds to the motivation to demonstrate one's existence, to transcend one's own death by leaving traces of one's existence.

2.4.2 The Concept of Organization

According to one of the prominent scholars, "*organizations are social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals.*" (Etzioni, 1964). In this definition organizations are seen as social units or human groupings, which implies that the basic elements of organizations are individuals. Thus the first key element of this definition is the fact that organizations are groupings of individuals. Another basic element is deliberate construction that is, organizations are deliberately constructed for accomplishing specific objectives. The third element is of course the concept of goals, organizations are established for the accomplishment of certain goals. In another definition organizations are defined as "*collectivities that have been established for the pursuit of relatively specific objectives on a more or less continuous basis.*" (Scott, 1964). Again in this definition organizations are defined as social units composed of individuals, and they are specifically created for the pursuit of certain objectives. According to Pfiffner and Presthus "*organization is the structuring of individuals and functions into productive relationship*". Again as it can be seen the basic element of organizations is individuals, an organization is a grouping of individuals. In this definition organizations is not only a grouping of individuals but also a number of functions are brought together alongside individuals. The concept of goal is another basic elements of this definition;

the term, “productive relationship”, simply implies that the individuals and functions are brought together for the objective of producing something, goods or services. When the above definitions are evaluated carefully, it is obvious that there are certain common elements in the definitions of different scholars regarding the concept of organization. These common elements are a grouping of individuals, deliberate establishment or construction, and the accomplishment of specific goals. By referring to the above common elements, we will define organizations as “*social units or human groupings deliberately established for the accomplishment of specific objectives.*” Ministries, corporations, universities, hospitals, schools, political parties, prisons, associations etc. are organizations in this sense. One of the major problems in discussing or thinking about organizations is that the very term is so similar to the broader term of “social organization”. Social organization refers to the ways in which human conduct becomes socially organized, (Blau and Scoot, 1962). This statement simply indicates that the observed regularities in the behavior of people are due to the social conditions in which they find themselves rather than to their physiological or psychological characteristics as individuals. That is, social conditions influence the conduct of people. Social conditions which influence the behavior of people can be divided into two main types: (a) The structure of social relations in a group, (b) The shared beliefs and orientations that unite the members of the group or collectivity and guide their conduct. These two main types of social conditions constitute the two basic aspects or characteristics of social organizations.

The conception of structure implies that in a social organization individuals stand in some relation to one another. Thus, there is a certain network of relations which is one of the dimensions of social organization. The second dimension of social organization is the system of shared beliefs and orientations which serve as standards for human conduct. In the course of

social interaction, common notions arise as to how people should act that is, common expectations concerning how people ought to behave. In short social norms develop, and social sanctions are used to discourage the violations of these norms. By taking the above discussions into consideration, we can define social organization as “*networks of social relations and shared orientations.*”

2.4.3 Characteristics of formal organization

Having in mind the definition made previously, the most prominent characteristic of organizations (formal organization) is the conscious deliberate human efforts to establish and operate them for the accomplishment of pre-determined goals. In other words, organizations are deliberately created by human decisions for the purpose of accomplishing pre-determined goals. The goals may vary from one organization to another. The important point here is the fact that goal accomplishment is important (basic, vital) and that is why the organization is created in the first place. Another important feature of formal organizations is the structured relations among its members. As has been mentioned before, organizations are established for accomplishing specific objectives, and these objectives are going to be accomplished through the efforts and contributions of a number of people who are members of that organization. Since hundreds or thousands of people are going to contribute their mental or physical efforts for the accomplishment of the same goal, the relations among the individuals have to be structured or planned in a way which will facilitate goal accomplishment. When you have a group of individuals working for the accomplishment of a common goal, you have to relate the individuals to each other and coordinate their activities. Without relating the members of the group to each other without planning their activities, it is not possible to accomplish the common objective. Because each member of the group will behave and take action in his/her own way,

there will be chaos within the group. In this sense, in formal organizations, the relations among the members are structured, their activities as members of the organization are ordered. In short, the relations among the members are orderly, and they perform their activities according to pre-determined rules and regulations in view of the goals to be accomplish. One of the important characteristics of formal organization is the fact that their members are selected on the basis of their individual qualifications. Since each organization has pre-determined, specific goals to accomplish, and the accomplishment of goals requires a variety of activities, the individuals who are going to contribute their mental and/or physical activities have to be selected in view of the activities necessary for goal accomplishment. This selection has to be based on the qualifications of the individuals in view of the goals to be accomplished. According to the kind of activities necessary for accomplishing the goal, the members will be selected by the organization.

2.4.4 Organizational climate

Researchers in organizational behaviours have long been interested in understanding the influence of work environment and the perception of the workers, and how these perceptions influence individuals' work related attitudes and job satisfaction. Early researchers suggested that the social climate or atmosphere created in a work place had significant consequences. The workers 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 (Katz and Khan, 2004; Mehrejour, 2000 in Adeniji, 2011). 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).

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 can also have negative effects on the climate even though the academic environment allows for expression of ideas and opinions.

2.4.5 Enhancing 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 work place climate is always positive to prevent job dissatisfaction and create a deep sense of well-being (satisfaction). Booyuns, (1998) as cited in Adeniji (2011), identified actions that can be mobilized by the management to create a positive organizational climate:

- a) The development of the organisation's vision, mission statement, goals and objectives can influence the management to promote a positive climate that allow full use of input from workers. This provides for high-level feeling of motivation and recognition.
- b) By establishing trust and openness between the management and employees through communication including frequent feedback in an organization, would help promote high morale among workers. Thus, communication can help raise problems both at individual and organizational level thereby providing a basis for solving them hence an improvement in performance and job satisfaction.
- c) Practice of an open-door policy which entails in encouraging free expression of ideas, constructive criticisms and opinions can help improve organizational climate and ultimately leading to job satisfaction.

- d) Provision of a workable career ladder. Management in this regard, should provide promotion opportunities for their employees. This will help in identifying employees with exceptional performance for promotion to higher positions which will may invariably support them to higher status.

Furthermore, Lockbwn and Terry (2004). Concert to Booyen's position stated above, as he also argued 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. In the same vein as Lockbwn and Terry, Mcdeese-Smoth (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 help them to do their possible best.

Equity theory: Exchange theory relates to equity theory, which is concerned with each of fairness about the regards received from an organization. The rewards covered are all types, including psychological and social rewards along with economic rewards. The theory helps that employees tend to determine equity by considering their input and outcomes on the job compared with the inputs and outcomes of selected comparison people. If the ratios of the two people are unequal, this condition creates a tension of inequity in the employee that motivates corrective action. What really occurs is a cognitive dissonance in which employee feelings of equity do not agree with the actual rewards received.

Jorman (1974) calls this as expectancy disconfirmation. Whenever workers perceive inequity in their social exchange with the organization, studies show that absence and turnover increase. Whereas, as has been pointed out, when they perceive the exchange relationship as rewarding they will remain with the organization, feel attached to it and support. This is the

kernel of this theoretical framework that the result of the employee's comparison of his aspiration with his attainment is his level of job satisfaction and that his level of job satisfaction is related to both male and female to the organization in the sense that the higher his level of job satisfaction the higher they feel belonging to the organization. So that in equity, theory terms, the employee male and female gives his best to the organization in exchange for the degree of satisfaction he/she derives from his job. Job satisfaction relates to gender differences in a way in which job satisfaction either strengthens males or females or adores them, so that the level of gender differences will correlate to the level of job satisfaction to the institution.

2.5 Work and organization

Throughout the life individual spend significant amount of time on the activities related to work. Hence job's related behavior is central issues of the employees such as job burnout, job involvement, job satisfaction and locus of control has received lessen attention by the management and social scientist in the areas of human resource management, industrial psychology and organizational behavior during the last few decades and excellence of the organization can only be achieved when employee will perceive minimal degree of job burnout and higher level of facilities at workplace to enhance the degree of satisfaction and involvement.

Work is an important aspect of human life. Some consider work as a source of prestige and social recognition while some evaluate work as meaningful because it provides the excitement of creativity and the opportunity to give something to them. But for most, the main purpose of work is to make money for living. However, this does not indicate that money is the only reward in a job; friendship, the change to exercise power and feeling useful are also important (Ghosh and Ghorpade, 1991). Workforce was adopted as only one of the inputs of the production system in the initial stages of the industrial revolution. It was the Hawthorne Studies

carried out by Elton Mayo from 1924 to 1932 that revealed the shift in the perception about employees by organizations. These studies resulted that workers are not motivated solely by money and that workers behaviour is linked to their attitudes. The Hawthorne Studies began the human relations approach to management, whereby the needs and motivation of workers become the primary focus of managers (Kulkarni and Chiniwar, 2009).

As a large part of one's life is spent in work place, it can be said that working life should be pleasant for someone. Unhappiness with work life influences both the work life and the rest sections of human life. Beside this fact, organizations are social systems where human resources are the most important factors for effectiveness and efficiency. Organizations need effective managers and workers to achieve their objectives. Organizations cannot succeed without their human resource efforts and commitment. Therefore, organizations need to understand factors affecting their human resource performance.

Given the above, it suffices to say that the quality of work life experienced by workers in organizations has been an area of great interest for practitioners and researchers. The concept of job satisfaction has been one of significant concepts related to the quality of work life. Thus, Green (2010) posits that job satisfaction has been used as a measure of job quality by many writers. Thus, when the quality of work is treated, the job satisfaction concept is taken as an indicator for an assessment for employment policies. Job satisfaction is so important to organizations because it reduces employee turnover, laziness, absenteeism, tardiness, and health setbacks due to stress and increases organizational commitment (Rusbult, et al. 1988; Tet and Meyer, 1993; Moser, 1997; Allen, 2006; Chimanikire, 2007). Workers who are satisfied at their workplaces show positive attitudes in their homes and make a psychologically healthy society.

On the other hand, dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs or be absent than satisfied employees. Chiboiwa et al. (2011) express that there is a positive relationship between labour turnover and job dissatisfaction in existing literature. Lack of job satisfaction is an indicator of quitting a job. Sometimes workers may quit from public to the private sector and vice versa. At the other times the movement is from one profession to another one and people tend to migrate to better jobs (Tella, et al., 2007). According to Al-Zu'bi (2010), job satisfaction is critical to retaining and attracting well-qualified workers, and more satisfied employees have more innovative activities in continuous quality improvement. It is obvious that organizations loose productivity, social capital and suffer customer defection when a productive worker quits. To this extent therefore, the academic environment and the sensitive nature of its service (knowledge dissemination), requires competent and highly motivated faculties as a basis for promoting job satisfaction.

2.6 Job Satisfaction

Until recently, job satisfaction was treated as a single faceted construct. But this evidently too simplistic for the reason that a worker may be highly satisfied with one of his work while is dissatisfied with other aspect. As Cross point out, he may be satisfied with the wages he receives, moderately satisfied with his work mate, but very dissatisfied with his immediate supervisor. Herzberg and his colleagues, (1959) extended Maslow hierarchy of needs and applied it to the work motivation with the introduction dichotomy in which it was argued with that job satisfaction is not the opposite of job dissatisfaction.

Although, there is no universal concept of most of the definition that exist in the literature have a common theme. Different authors have different approaches towards defining job satisfaction. The most used definition of job satisfaction in organizational research is that Locke

(1976), who described job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences and as achieving or facilitating that achievement of one's job value (Nguri Slegers and Donessen, 2006). Job satisfaction is an attitude developed by an individual toward the job condition (Luthans, 1994). 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 parts of the job.

Telman and Unsal (2004) recognized that the factors affecting job satisfaction are internal, external and personal. Internal factors include characteristics related to the basic nature of work. External factors are the condition, relationship with superior and co-worker, creativity, job security, organizational structure and culture. Personality factors including factors such as gender, age, educational level etc), in personality traits and incentive, knowledge and skills. Furthermore, satisfaction of academic members in high educational institutions is also shown to be affected greatly by the institutional variables including leadership, colleague and students' relationship, climate and culture of the University, (Grunwald and Peterson, 2003). Hegedern, (2000) Zhou and Volkwein, (2004). Social relationship and psychological factors are the main cause of job satisfaction and productivity in employees (Robbin, 2002).

Based on comparison among review of literature in job satisfaction, many researchers defined job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is "an effective and emotional response to various parts of one's job" Kreiner and Kinichi, (2004), and Locke (1968) described as "being an emotional response that results from the employees' perceived fulfillment of their needs and what they believe the company to have offered". Although recently researchers have tried to reflect current theoretical underpinning of job satisfaction, Robert Hoppocks (1935), definition which one of the earliest definitions of this concept is still the most cited one. He says "job satisfaction

is any ambition of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstance that cause a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job' (Hoppecks, 1935). The concept job satisfaction and its definition have continually grown, expended and unfolded through the previous decades. Although, basically it is a work related positive effective reaction in majority of the definitions less consistency can be observed in the factors that brings about job satisfaction. This in of consistency may be because job satisfaction can be influenced by various factors including personal traits and characteristics of the job (Wexley and Yaki, 1984). To get deep understanding of employees, characteristics of jobs and their relation to the issue of job satisfaction various theories have been formulated. These theories aim at developing appropriate on this concept.

2.6.1 The Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an elusive and complex concept that has been subject of intense research since, the emergence of organizational studies (Xuong and Duong, 2013). Little is known about job satisfaction in higher educational institutions particularly in developing countries like Nigeria.

Although there is no universal definition of the concept, most of the definitions that exist in literature have a common theme. Different authors have different approaches towards defining job satisfaction. The most used definition of job satisfaction in organizational research in that of Locke (1976), who described job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences and as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values (Nguri et al, 2006 in Xnong and Duong, 2013). Job satisfaction is an attitude developed by an individual towards the job and job conditions (Luthans, 1994). 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 or careers (e.g. compensation, autonomy, coworkers). In another definition, job satisfaction is the phenomenon ascertaining the contentment of the worker and appearing when the qualifications of the job and the demand of the workers match (Restchers, 2006). In line with these definitions, job satisfaction might be seen as the consequence resulting from the comparison between the expectations of the worker from his job and the job in question which is performed. The consequence may emerge as satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the worker from the job.

Furthermore, implicit in the definitions above is the importance of both feeling and cognition or thinking. When we think, we have feelings, we think about what we feel. Conversely, when we have feelings, we think about what we feel. Cognition and feeling are thus inextricably linked in our psychology. Thus, job evaluation involves both thinking and feeling. This cannot be divorced from the fact that, 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).

Job Satisfaction is also viewed from a bi-dimensional (Intrinsic – extrinsic) perspective (Rose, 2001). Intrinsic source of satisfaction depend on the individual characteristics of the person, such as the ability to use initiative, relations with supervisors, or the work that the person actually performs; these are symbolic or qualitative facets of the job. Extrinsic sources of satisfaction are situational and depend on the environment, such as pay, promotion, or job security; these are financial and other material rewards or advantages of a job. Both extrinsic and intrinsic job facets should be represented, as equally as possible, in a composite measure of overall job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction therefore, as an importance work variable has significant influence on the individual worker as well as the organization. Many scholars believe that job satisfaction can affect workers behavior and influence work productivity, employee absenteeism, work effort and turnover. For example, job satisfaction has been found to predict emotional well being or psychological health of workers (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Fox, Dwyer, & Ganster, 1993); overall individual well-being (Diaz-serrano & Cabra – Viera, 2005) as well as intention to leave a job (Gazioglu & Tansel, 2002). To the organization or institution, the more employees are satisfied, the more they are likely to profit the organization or institution, as low turnover and higher productivity are ensured (European Foundation for the improvement of Living and working conditions, 2007).

Job satisfaction has been the most frequently investigated variable in institutional or organizational behaviour (Spector, 1997). Job Satisfaction varies and researchers, for example Peretomode (1991) and Whawo (1993), have suggested that the higher the prestige of the job, the greater the job satisfaction. Many worker, however, are satisfied in even the least prestigious jobs. That is, they simply like what they do. In any case, job satisfaction is as individual as one's feelings or state of mind. Job satisfaction can be influenced by a variety of factors, for example, the quality of one's relationship with their supervisors, the quality of the physical environment in which they work, the degree of fulfilment in their work, etc however, there is no strong acceptance among researchers, consultants etc that increased job satisfaction produces improved job performance. (Evans, 1998).

Osuala in Aguba (2005) opines that lecturers job satisfaction is concerned with the content of the job, the nature of supervision, the nature of opportunities for advancement, the amount of pay, the nature of fringe benefits and the suitability of working conditions. Lecturers

need to have job satisfaction in order to be more functional and contribute meaningfully to the teaching and learning process in the schools. It is the lecturers that translate the education programme of any nation into practical learning experiences through teaching and research. The job of the teacher is multifaceted and requires a special skill to combine both administrative functions with the real classroom activities that translate into the teaching-learning process.

The overall job satisfaction depends on what one expects and what he or she receives. An employee will remain satisfied with fewer amenities, provided he or she expects less. However, dissatisfaction occurs when one gets less than what he/she expects. Overall or general job satisfaction describes a person's overall affective reaction to the set of work and work-related factors (Cranny et al., 1992). It involves workers' feelings toward different dimensions of the work and work environment (Cranny et al., 1992).

2.6.2 Job Satisfaction in Organization

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Based on comparison among review of literature in job satisfaction, many researchers defined job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is "an effective and emotional response to various parts of one's job" Kreiner and Kinichi, (2004), and Locke (1968) described as "being an emotional response that results from the employees' perceived fulfillment of their needs and what they believe the company to have offered". Although recently researchers have tried to reflect current theoretical underpinning of job satisfaction, Robert Hoppocks (1935), definition which is one of the earliest definitions of this concept is still the most cited one. He says "job satisfaction

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2.6.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

There are numerous theories attempt be explain job satisfaction, but two conceptual frameworks seem to be more prominent in the literature. These frameworks are named as content theories and process theories. In the following sections the main theories and theorists from each framework are discussed to clarify the relevance and direction of them to the current study.

2.6.4 Content Theories

Based on the content theory, job satisfaction is gained when an employee feels that his/her job gives him the sense of growth and self-actualization. The discussion of these two factors directly links to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Content theories assume that all employees in the organization have the same set of needs and therefore predict the characteristics that should be present in the job. These theories emphasize on the factors and needs that encourage and inspire the behaviour as well as performance (Nel et al., 2004).

2.6.5 Process Theories

In process theories, job satisfaction is explained by the extent to which an individual's expectations and values are met in a job (Crutledge, 1979). Based on these theories job holders' behaviour is driven by their needs. These theories focus on employees' diverse needs and the cognitive process behind these diversities. In these theories, sources and causes of employees' behaviour, as well as the motives that affect the intensity and direction of those behaviours are given attention and shown in Table 1.

Table 2. 1: Summary of Theories of Motivation

Category	Theory	Authors
Content	Need hierarchy theory	Maslow (1943)
	Two-factor theory	Herzberg (1959)
	Achievement theory	McClelland (1958)
	X and Y theory	McGregor (1960)
	Existence, relatedness and growth	Alderfer (1969)
Process	Expectancy theory	Vrooms (1964)
	Equity theory	Adams (1963)
	Goal setting theory	Locke (1968)

2.6.6 Job Satisfaction with Special Reference to Two-factor Theory

Job satisfaction is important to studies of organizational behaviour. According to Mullins (1999) job satisfaction is an attitude, an internal state. The state further that job satisfaction could be associated with personal feelings of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative. Luthans

(2002) in defining job satisfaction, states that there are three generally accepted dimensions to job satisfaction;

First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. It cannot be seen, it can only be inferred. Second, job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. For instance, if organizational participants feel that men are working much harder than others in the department but are receiving fewer rewards, they will probably have a negative attitude toward the work, the boss, and co-workers. If they feel they are being treated very well and are being paid equitably, then are likely to have a positive attitude toward the job. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes about the most important characteristics of a job like the work itself, the pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and the co-workers. Studies have indicated that job satisfaction could be influenced by some factors. These factors have been variously described in the literature as either causes or determinants or antecedents of job satisfaction as the case may be. For instance, Mullins (1999) highlights the factors influencing job satisfaction of workers:

- Individual factors such as personality, education, intelligence/abilities, age, marital status, orientation to work and so on.
- Social factors such as relationship with co-workers, group working and norms, opportunities for interaction and informal organization.
- Cultural factors such as underlying attitudes, beliefs and values.
- Organizational factors such as nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, employee relations, nature of the work, technology and work organization, supervision and styles of leadership, management systems and working conditions.
- Environmental factors such as economic, social, technical and governmental influences.

In addition, Mullins (1999) states that other factors that influence job satisfaction are Herzberg's hygiene and motivating factors. The Herzberg two-factor theory of job satisfaction highlights the factors leading to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The factors leading to satisfaction include recognition for achievement, the work itself, and advancement. The factors that lead to dissatisfaction include organizational policy and administration, supervision, salary and interpersonal relationships.

McShane and Von Glinco (2000) state that employees who are highly satisfied with their work are less likely to quit their jobs, be absent from work, or experience mental or physical health problems, and that employees who are dissatisfied are more likely to steal, deliberately sabotage company products, and engage in acts of violence against their supervisors or co-workers. They state further that employees who are dissatisfied with their pay or working conditions can join labour unions and go on strike.

2.7 Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a key factor in productivity (Oshagbemi, 2000 in Adeniji, 2011). However, in the past two decades, there have been significant research gains in understanding dispositional and cultural influences on job satisfaction as against the prevailing understanding of the work situation as a determinant of job satisfaction.

2.7.1 Dispositional Influences

Several innovative studies have shown the influences of a person's disposition on job satisfaction. One of the first studies in this area is that of (Staw and Ross, 1985) as cited in (Adeniji, 2011). They demonstrated that a person's job satisfaction scores have stability over time, even when he or she changes jobs or place of work. In a related study, childhood

temperament was found to be statistically related to adult job satisfaction up to forty (40) years later (Staw, Bell and Clansen, 1986).

Despite its contributions for our understanding of the causes of job satisfaction, one of the limitations in this literature is that it is not yet informative as to how exactly dispositions affect job satisfaction (Erez, 1994 in Lise and Judge, 2004).

Continuing this theoretical development, Judge et al, (1998, 2001) found that one of the primary determinants of the relationship between dispositional influences and job satisfaction is the perception of the job itself which they also limited to what may be the most important personality trait to predict job satisfaction i.e core self- evaluation. Evidence also indicates that some other personality traits, such as extraversion and conscientiousness, can also influence job satisfaction (Judge et al, 2002).

These various research findings indicate that there is in fact a relationship between disposition or personality and job satisfaction. Even though organizations cannot directly impact employee personality, the use of sound selection methods and a good match between employees and jobs will ensure people are selected and placed into jobs most appropriate for them, which in turn, will help enhance their job satisfaction. Thus, the workability of this position in the academic environment cannot be relegated.

2.7.2 Cultural Influences

Lise and Judge, (2004), argued that in terms of other influences on job satisfaction, there is also a small, but growing body of research on the influences of culture or country on job satisfaction. The continued globalization of organizations poses new challenges for understanding organizational and human resources issues. (Erez 1994; House 1995; Triandis; 1994).

The most cited cross cultural work on job satisfaction is that of Hofstede (1985) whose research on employee attitude in 67 countries shows the variation of countries along these dimension. The four cross-cultural dimensions are:

- a) Individualism – collectivism
- b) Uncertainty avoidance versus risk taking
- c) Power distance
- d) Masculinity/Femininity or Achievement Orientation.

These four dimensions have been a useful framework for understanding cross cultural differences in job satisfaction, as well as recognizing the importance of cultural influences on job satisfaction.

The importance of culture has also been found in how employees are viewed and valued across countries or cultures (Jackson, 2002).

2.7.3 Work situation influences

Work situation also matters, in job satisfaction. Contrary to some commonly held beliefs, the most notable situational influence on job satisfaction is the nature of the work itself. This is often called “intrinsic job characteristics.” Research studies across many years, organizations, and types of jobs show that when employees are asked to evaluate different facet of their job such as supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, and so forth, the nature of the work itself generally emerges as the most important job facet (Judge and Church, 2000). This is not to say that well designed compensation programs or effective supervision are unimportant, rather, it is that much can be done to influence job satisfaction by ensuring work as interesting and challenging as possible.

Of all the major job satisfaction areas, satisfaction with the nature of the work itself which includes job challenge, autonomy, variety and scope, best predicts overall job satisfaction as well as other outcomes like retention (Fraed and Ferris, 1987; Parise and Weiner, 1999; Weiner, 2000). Thus, the nature of work itself is a major stand in the understanding of the determinants of job satisfaction.

The conceptual domain of job satisfaction is too broad, since it involves the job and its environment characteristics. Thus, in order to manage the broadness and obtain measures of job satisfaction two approaches have been developed, global scale and facet scale. While the former attempts to combine an employee's reaction to different aspects of his job single, integrated response, the latter tries to cover each of the principal areas separately within the general satisfaction domain. Regarding these two approaches, several researchers offer different measurement tools for measuring job satisfaction. Smith et al. (1969) define five facets for measuring job satisfaction. Based on their instrument, job satisfaction consists of several facets, including satisfaction with the supervisor, relationship with co-workers, present pay, nature of work, and opportunities for promotion.

2.7.4 Nature of work

The nature of work performed by employees has a significant effect on their level of job satisfaction (Larwood, 1983; Landy, 1989; Luthans, 2006; Criffen and Moorhead, 2009). Robbins et al., (2003) refer to the work itself as "the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results.

Sharma and Bhaskar (1991) assume that most significant influence over job satisfaction of employees appears from the nature of the work given to them male and female. In addition,

then assert job satisfaction can be achieved by employees if the job requires sufficient variety, discretion, challenge and scope for using an individual's own skills and abilities. It was also found out that the job security is considered as the most significant factor among managers of lower rank job satisfaction. In addition, Landy (1989) believes that job satisfaction is achieved for jobs which are found to be interesting to employees.

2.7.5 Present pay

Many researchers have done studies regard to the influence of pay on job satisfaction (Luthans, 2006; Taylor and West, 1992; Robbins, 2004). Luthans (2006) claimed that apart from helping people to achieve and obtain their basic needs, salaries also work to satisfy the higher level needs of people. Taylor and West (1992) figured out that job satisfaction is affected by the payment levels affect. It is reported that most public employees will feel less satisfy with their jobs if they compare their salaries to those who work for the private sector.

Robbins et al. (2003) supposed that most employees will look for payment systems that believed to be fair, definition and aligned with their expectations. Satisfaction is expected to be achieved if the payment seems to be equitable, equal with job demands, individual skill level and community payment standards. In contrast, the findings of survey performed by Brainard (2005) figured out that job satisfaction is less likely to be connected with the payment and benefits.

2.7.6 Opportunities for promotion

Several researchers share the opinion that job satisfaction has a great connection with opportunities for promotion (Pergamit and Veum, 1999; Sclafane, 1999; Ellickson and Loqsdon, 2002; Peterson et al, 2003). Promotion as defined by Heery and Noon (2001) refers to “the action of shifting on employee up the organization hierarchy which will normally bring to an increase of responsibility and status and a better remuneration package among the individuals who are

promoted.” Kreitner and Kinicike (2004) mentioned that job satisfaction and the promotion positive relationship relies on supposed fairness by employees. A lot of people will experience satisfaction when they think that they have good future opportunities as supposed by Drafska and Kossen (2002).

This can be interpreted as the opportunities for progression and development in their present workplace or providing better chances to look out for alternative employment. It is assumed that the level of job satisfaction will go down if people think that they have less career advancement opportunities.

McCormick (2008) mentioned that job satisfaction among employees with promotional opportunities will rely on the promotions equity.

2.7.7 Supervision

Many researches reveal that supervision and job satisfaction has a positive relationship (Peterson et al., 2003; Koustelus, 2001; Smucker et al., 2003). According to Heery and Noon (2001), a supervisor is defined as “a frontline manager who is responsible for the supervision of employees.” Nel et al. (2004) regard the supervisor as employees who regulate the activities of lower-level employees. Staudt (1997) research has noticed that respondents are probably to feel satisfied generally with their job if they feel satisfied with their supervisors. Supervision outlines a very important role that has to do with employees’ job satisfaction in terms of the supervisor’s capability to give support of emotional and technical along with direction with any task that has to do with their job (Robbins et al., 2003).

According to the study performed by Packard and Kauppi (1991), the employees with supervisors showing styles of the democratic management will experience higher job satisfaction in compare to those working with supervisors who displayed an autocratic kind of supervision.

Brewer and Hensher (1998) mentioned that supervisors who stress deliberation and concern for employees in their leadership normally have more workers who feel satisfied and contented compared to those who practice task, structuring and care more for production. Normally, employee-centred supervisors will show interest to the employees by listening to what they have to say which will result to the increase of number of satisfied employees.

2.7.8 Relationship with Co-workers

There are several studies that show that friendly and supportive colleagues enhance the rate of job satisfaction in a working environment (Khaleque and Choudhury, 1948; Johns, 1996; Viswesvaran et al, 1998; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004; Luthans, 2006). This area of satisfaction is measured by how well employees get along with each other and how well they look up to their fellow employees. Markiewicz et al (1997) figured out that the close friendships quality was related to both job satisfaction and career success among employees. Berta (2005) finds a similar result after conducting a survey among 1250 food brand employees. Rordan and Griffeth (1995) found that a positive relationship among co-workers improves the rate of job satisfaction. Their research shows that friendship network among co-workers influence the outcome of workplace. It increases job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitments, while reduces the intention to turnover.

2.8 Motivation and Job Satisfaction

An effective organization will ensure that there is a spirit of cooperation and sense of commitment and satisfaction within the sphere of its influence. This is largely the outcome of motivation. In line with this position, Tella et al., (2007) were of the view that motivation is an important ingredient for job satisfaction.

For Luthan (1998), motivation is “a process that starts with a physiological deficiency or need that activates a behavior or a drive that is aimed at a goal incentive.” He further argued that, motivation consists of three interdependent and interacting elements. These are needs, drives, and incentives. To this extent therefore, it suffices to say that, motivation is a human psychological characteristic that contributes to a person’s degree of commitment.

In line with the above position, Olajide (2000) in Tella et al, (2007), opined that motivation is good directed, and therefore forms an integral part of organizational goals and necessary for job satisfaction.

2.8.1 Strategies of motivation

The ultimate test of organizational success lies in its ability to create and maintain values for compensating for the burdens imposed upon resources contributed. The question here is what strategies can be used to motivate academics, particularly those in tertiary institutions of learning. Bernard (1995) in Tella (2007) gave an outline of strategies that can be utilized for motivation. These are:

- a) **Salary, Wages and Conditions of Service:** Using salary as an effective source of motivation, entails in considering four major components of a salary structure. These are the job rate, which relates to the importance the organization attaches to each job, payment which encourages workers by rewarding them according to their performance, personal or special allowances associated with factors such as scarcity of particular skills or certain categories of skills needed in the academic environment and fringe benefits such as holidays with pay, pensions and so on. It is also important to ensure that the prevailing pay in other academic establishments is taken into consideration in determining the pay structure of the organization.

- b) **Money:** Akintoye (2000), in Tella (2007) argued that money remains the most significant motivational strategy. He cited the position of Frederick Taylor and his scientific management associate who described money as the most important factor in motivating workers to achieve greater heights in productivity. This helps stimulate workers to higher performance, commitment, and eventually satisfaction. Money possesses significant motivating power in as much as it symbolizes intangible goals like security, power, prestige and a feeling of accomplishment and success. Katz, in Sinclair et al., (2005) demonstrates the motivational power of money through the process of job choice. He argued that money has the power to attract, retain, and motivate individuals towards higher performance. For instance, if a university lecturer has another job offer which has identical job characteristics with his current job, but greater financial reward, he/she would in all probability be motivated to accept the new job offer
- c) **Staff Training:** Staff training is an indispensable strategy for motivating workers. Academic institutions must have good training programme. For example; conferences, workshops and seminars will give academics the opportunities for self-improvement and development to meet the challenges and requirement of new techniques in teaching and knowledge dissemination.

2.9 Maslow's theory and Job Satisfaction

An array of theories is available to explain the motivational contents and cognitive processes that constitute the issues of job satisfaction in any organization (Saifuddin Khan Saif et.al., 2012). Most of the debates about theories of job-satisfaction start with Maslow's theory of 'Hierarchy of Needs' (1943). Maslow (1943) identified five levels of need hierarchy; physical needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem/achievement needs and self-actualization. The different

levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs are in this order for a purpose and it is based on the premise that individuals are not motivated by the higher needs until they have satisfied the lower needs (Čížek, 2012) and as a result, individuals tend to fulfill the needs from the bottom of the hierarchy of needs. Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs can be considered to be the initial motivation theory that laid the foundation for the theories of job satisfaction and serves as a good start from which researchers can analyse problems of job satisfaction among employees. Maslow came up with this theory on hierarchy of needs in 1943 based on deficiency and growth needs and he arranged human needs in an ascending order of physiological needs which are needs for basic things of life like food, water etc.; safety needs which is the need for security; need for love and belonging which are the needs for being accepted among groups and feeling of companionship; need for self-esteem which is the need for recognition and respect; and finally the need for self-actualization which is the need for self-fulfillment and to make use of the most unique abilities (Ifedili, 2012). This is shown in Figure 1.

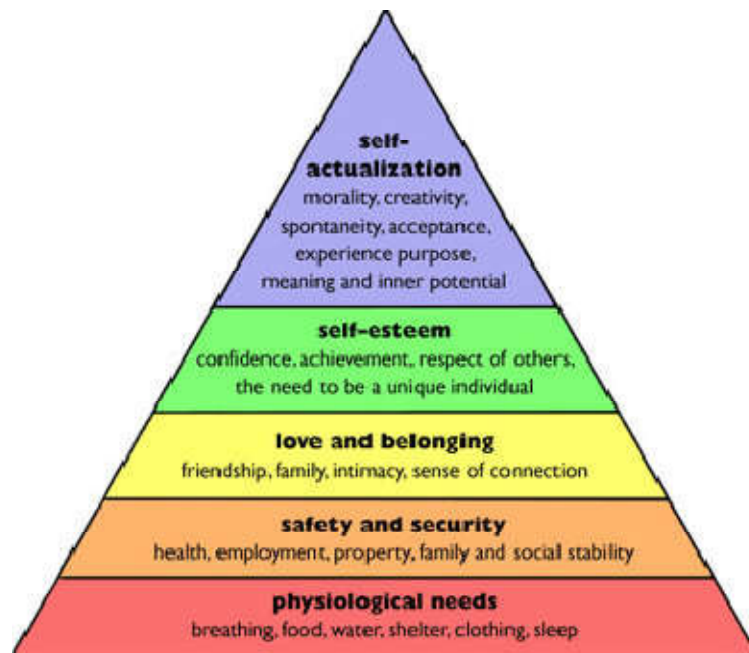


Figure 1: Abraham Maslow Hierarchy of Needs (1943)

Despite the popularity of this theory (Koontz, 1998), there is a constant debate over it with researchers critiquing the hierarchy adopted by Maslow (Wahba and Bridwell, 1976; Hall and Nougain, 1968; Lawler and Suttle, 1972). Writing in the *Psychological Review* in 1943, Maslow stated, "human needs arrange themselves in hierarchies of prepotency which means that the appearance of one need usually rests on the prior satisfaction of another more proponent need. This is supported by Worlu and Chidozie (2012), who claimed that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory states that human needs are ordered; that is they range from lower-order to higher-order needs and as one need is adequately or partially fulfilled, the individual moves to the next-higher-order need.

According to Rast and Tourani (2012), employees' job satisfaction in organizations and institutions has been given close attention by researchers since mid-20th century after the emergence of Maslow's theory of Need Hierarchy in 1943. Since, Maslow's need theory is typically described and illustrated as a vertical scale or a pyramid; it makes the theoretical framework useful as a means for measuring some type of satisfaction, particularly job satisfaction. In fact, the concept of satisfaction is meaningless unless there is some form to measure or recognize it. Since needs explain behavior, and behavior reflects attitude, the study of satisfaction naturally inherits the attribute of being measured on some scale.

Various analytical studies have been conducted in the area of job satisfaction using Maslow's theory (Ajayi, 1998; Chimanikire et al., 2007; Williams, 1998). These researchers are in consensus that Maslow's pyramid of needs can be divided into two categories: deficiency needs (physiological and safety) and growth needs (belonging, self-esteem and self-actualisation). It is further asserted that if the deficiency needs aren't satisfied, the person will experience a deficit which will stifle his or her development. In terms of applying this theory to

organisations, Maher (2002) claims that the theory proposes that the lower-order needs must be gratified before the higher-order needs are activated and as such, employers must ensure that their employees' physiological, safety, belongingness and esteem needs are satisfied. She went on to suggest that the employer can help the employee to gratify each need, for example, to help them gratify their physiological and safety needs, employers can increase their employees' pay. Once these needs are satisfied, the relationship between the employee and their supervisors and coworkers takes on increased strength and the employer can help the employee to gratify this need through increasing the amount of social interaction among employees and this process needs to be continued until the employees have gratified all of the lower-order needs, and are reaching for selfactualisation, should the nature of the job permit this level to be attained (Maher, 2002). In analyzing job satisfaction using Maslow's theory, Cherrington (1991) identified organizational factors related to Maslow's physiological need level as including pay, pleasant working conditions, cafeteria while safety or growth need level as including safe working conditions, company benefits and job security.

Although some of the propositions in the need hierarchy theory have not received empirical support, the theory has been extensively accepted in the management literature (Roberts, 1982). Moreover, the general idea that the concepts of love, safety, self-esteem, and growth contribute to motivation and satisfaction are acceptable to both psychologists and management scientists (Shoura & Singh, 1999). In relation to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the motivators were likened to higher order needs such as the social esteem, and self-actualization need levels (Adler, 1991). However, the fundamental problem in applying Maslow's (1970) theory to work organisations is that little is known about how to reach the ultimate goal of self-actualisation. Maslow's (1970, p.46) definition of self-actualisation is "what a man can be, he

must be” is extremely vague, and there is no agreed upon way of operationalising the construct, or facilitating it in employees. Another concern is that there is no need or drive that can be treated as if it were isolated or discrete; every drive is related to the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of drives (Ott, 1996).

Job satisfaction therefore, as an importance work variable has significant influence on the individual worker as well as the organisation. Many scholars believe that job satisfaction can affect workers behaviour and influence work productivity, employee absenteeism, work effort and turnover. For example, job satisfaction has been found to predict emotional well-being or psychological health of workers (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Fox, Dwyer, & Ganster, 1993); overall individual well-being (Diaz-Serrano & Cabra-Vierra, 2005) as well as intention to leave a job (Gazioghu & Tansel, 2002). To the organisation, the more employees are satisfied, the more they are likely to profit the organisation, as low turnover and higher productivity are ensured (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007). Studies have also established significant relationship between job satisfaction and employee commitment, turnover, absenteeism, productivity and occupational stress (De Nobile & McCormick, 2005; Luthans, 2002; Singh & Billingsley, 1996; Spector, 2000), organisational commitment (Hassan, Hassan & Mabekoje, 2008; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulain, 1974; Rose, 1991), burnout (Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley, 1991), turnover intention (Hulin, Roznowski & Hatiiya, 1985) The success of any educational enterprise depends on the teachers. Studies on teachers’ job satisfaction are therefore important for the crucial role job satisfaction plays in various work elements. It is evident that levels of job satisfaction felt by teachers in similar work environments can vary from one individual to another. Researchers have found teachers’ job satisfaction to significantly correlate with job-related and workplace variables such

as professional freedom and development (Dinham & Scott, 1998a; Scott & Dinham, 2001), administrative support and leadership (Perie & Baker, 1997), involvement in decision making and shared responsibility (Bernard, 1990), positive relationship with colleagues and students (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Scott & Dinham, 2001), lack of status rewards and recognition (Dinham & Scott, 1998a; Scott & Dinham, 2001), time pressure (Sparks & Hammond, 1981), autonomy (Nguyen, Taylor & Bradley, 2003), negative students' performance, attitude and discipline (Sparks & Hammond, 1981), role ambiguity and role conflict (Thompson, McMamara & Hoyle, 1997). While some of these workplace variables have positive correlation with job satisfaction others are negative. Also, demographic factors may play a role in the level of job satisfaction perceived by teachers (Bedeian, Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Bogler, 2002; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Niehoff, 1997). In particular, literature suggests four variables that may have significant interactions with teacher job satisfaction, namely; age (Clark, Oswald & Warr, 1995), gender (Clark, 1997; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Sousa-Poza & Sousa Poza, 2000), education (Clark & Oswald, 1996; Tsang, Rumberger & Levin, 1991). Work experience and time in current school have been found to influence teachers' job satisfaction. For example, teaching experience has been found (Kicker & Loadman, 1997; Scott & Dinham, 2001) to influence job satisfaction. Other demographic factors as time in current school have been observed to influence job satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1996). Specifically, gender had been frequently examined as a biographical factor in the job satisfaction studies (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Hagerdorn, 1996; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Poole, 1992).

However, findings have been far from conclusive about the nature of the relationship between gender and job satisfaction. In their study of teachers in various types of schools, Crossman and Harris (2006) reported that males were slightly more satisfied than females.

Conversely, Bedeian et al (1992) and Klecker (1997) found females to be more satisfied with a range of job dimensions. Hill (1994) found male head teachers to be more dissatisfied with aspects of work than their female counterparts. Koustelios (2001) however reported that gender differences in job satisfaction 101 female teachers (both primary and secondary) were more satisfied with working conditions than males. Other studies have reported similarly limited findings (Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1998; Ma & MacMillan, 1999). In all these studies, the effect sizes were small. Other biographical variables may play moderating role. For example, Klecker (1997) reported that gender differences in job satisfaction were influenced by age group. Whereas no gender effects have been found on job satisfaction (Hautchinson, 1990; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1998; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; McCann, 2002, Newby, 1999), differences have been

While some studies have, come to conclude that male workers have higher job satisfaction (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Hill, 1994), others have findings in favour of female workers therefore establishing the gender paradox (Bedeian et al, 1992; Klecker, 1997; Koustelios, 2001). The premise wherein gender differences in job satisfaction were found had in most cases been where there are wage disparities between male and female workers (Fagan & Burchell, 2002; Hagedorn, 1996; Young, 1999). Most of the studies however have been on global job satisfaction (Bowling, Beehr, & Lepisto, 2006; Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Hagedorn, 1996; Ladebo, Olaoye, & Adamu, 2008; Robertson & Bean, 1998) rather than facets or dimensions of job satisfaction so as to underpin the specific areas for research and practices.

The Spector's Job Satisfaction Scale has been widely used (Hassan, Hassan, & Mabekoje, 2008; Parmer & East, 1993; Sierpe, 1999) as a measure of nine dimensions of job satisfaction in human service and as well as the measurement of global job satisfaction. The scale was developed along nine dimensions of; pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits,

contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. Results of such studies however have not specifically considered or reported gender differences along the nine identified factors or rather targeting teachers. It is the focus of the present study therefore to examine gender differences in teachers' job satisfaction as measured by Spector's (1985) nine dimensional job satisfaction survey. It is therefore hypothesized that there would not significant gender differences in teachers' job satisfaction along pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication as well as the overall job satisfaction.

2.10 Job Satisfaction and Commitment

Job satisfaction is defined as how content an individual is with his or her job or the contentment arising out of the interplay of employee's positive and negative feelings towards his or her job (Akehurst, 2009). In addition, Akpoture (2006) argued that, the happier the person is at work, the more satisfied he/she will be with the job. However, Okokoyo (2006) stated that, satisfaction in relation to one's occupation means the overall feeling about career in terms of specific outcomes of the job such as productivity and job performance. Satisfaction with one's job helps in predicting organizational strength and stability which as a result lead to a reduction in turnover of that organization (Alam, 2005). According to Talha (2005), if job satisfaction can be defined as how content an individual is with his/ her job, then well-functioning institutions should seek to boost variables that affect job satisfaction. In addition, Zainudin et al., (2010) argued that, job satisfaction is an important area in organizations. Zainudin et al argued that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and work commitment. Their research findings indicated that satisfied lecturers will be committed to their job. They further commented that promotional opportunities, workload and relationship with colleagues should be given due

consideration as they significantly affect job satisfaction level among lecturers. In addition Karim (2008), also stated that, six variables significantly correlate with job satisfaction thus effective commitment, job autonomy, job performance, role conflict, role clarity and organizational tenure, out of these effective commitment and organizational tenure have predictive relationship with job satisfaction.

Conversely, commitment is a multi-dimensional construct that comprises three components, which are affective, continuance and normative (Chua, 2005). Thus an employee may be committed to his job due to different reasons, probably because he/she is sentimental toward his job, the cost of leaving the job is relatively high or he feels socially responsible toward his job. Furthermore, employee commitment refers to the psychological attachment of workers to their workplaces (Becker et al., 1996) and employees desire to remain with the organization (Balfour and Wechsler, 1996). Also Addae et al., (2008) mentioned that, “theoretically each type of commitment interrelates with the willingness of an employee to continue to work.

2.11 Job Satisfaction and Gender Differences

In spite of their submission to the insufficient focus on researches on gender differences and job satisfaction in educational sector, Santhappara and Alam (2005), opined that female academic staff in tertiary institutions in Malaysia were more satisfied than their counterpart in all facets being studied, including working environment and pay. This is further supported by Malik (2011) who revealed that overall gender differences can be seen as women do not have high expectations on pay, fringe benefits, nature of job etc. However, Oshagbemi (2003) found that there are no significant differences between the two groups. He argued that female academics at higher ranks are more satisfied with their jobs than male academics. The study further confirmed

that the interaction effect of rank and gender does affect the overall job satisfaction among the tertiary institutions teachers, but gender itself does not affect job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2000). A similar result was found by Ali et al. (2009) who explained that there is no significant differences between the male and female academics in their satisfaction level (Dhanpal, 2013).

Most researches carried out in European countries reported that women had more personal satisfaction than men despite a clear disadvantage in terms of earnings promotions and career prospects, (Dhanpal, 2013), Moreover, Okpara et al., (2005) revealed that gender differences exist in the levels of job satisfaction of tertiary institutions teachers. It showed that female teachers hold negative perceptions about their pay, supervision and promotion, thus producing a low level of overall job satisfaction, while their male counterparts hold favourable opinions about pay, promotion policies and supervision and thus indicating high level of job satisfaction.

It suffices to say that inconsistencies in findings concerning the relationship between gender and job satisfaction may therefore be due to a variety of factors. Not only are the differences in the forms of job ranks, levels, position, career prospects, earnings, but also in demographics and cultural aspects. Thus, a job high on social satisfaction, but low on skill utilization and career prospects may results in higher job satisfaction for females, than for males, whereas in occupations allowing little scope for social relationship, the differences in satisfaction might be different. Given the findings above, it suffices to say that when other variables were taken into consideration, there is very little evidence to suggest that gender directly influences job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2003 in Dhanpal et al., 2013).

Several studies on the determinants of academic job satisfaction have been undertaken (Ali 2009; Hagedorn 2000; Lin and Nur-Awaleh 2005; Milosheff 1990; Seifert and Umbach

2008). Seifert and Umbert (2008) , for example, analysed data collected from academics who belong to doctoral research institutions and found that women were consistently less satisfied with their work than their male colleagues and that the effect of being female varies by discipline on levels of job satisfaction. However, in other analysis, it has been found that gender did not affect academic job satisfaction.

There are numerous researches on gender differences in job satisfaction across different fields. However, there is insufficient focus in the education sector. As stated by Santhapparaj and Alam (2005), female academic staffs in private universities in Malaysia were more satisfied than their counterpart in all facets being studied including working environment and pay. This is further supported by Malik (2011) who revealed that overall gender differences can be seen as women do not have high expectations on pay, fringe benefits, nature of job, etc. However, Oshagbemi (2003) found that there are no significant differences between the two groups. He asserted that female academics at higher rank were more satisfied with their jobs than male academics. The study further confirmed that the interaction effect of rank and gender does affect the overall job satisfaction among the university teachers, but gender itself does not affect job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2000). A similar result was found by Ali et. al. (2009) who explained that there is no significant differences between the male and female faculty members in their satisfaction level in the environmental and social context. Hajiha et. al. (2010) confirmed this by asserting that there is no significant difference between men and women lecturers in any of the proposed hypotheses. The most influential factors on women's job satisfaction are opportunities for promotion and relations with their co-workers. As for men, work itself, relations with co-workers, supervision and salary affect their job satisfaction respectively.

In contrast, Sabharwal and Corley (2009) asserted that there was a significant difference between male and female lecturer as per their discipline in the faculty. Across all disciplines, they found that female faculty members expressed lower levels of satisfaction when compared with male faculty members and female members tended to be more satisfied compared to men in health, social sciences and engineering field. While most researches carried out in the European countries reported that women had more personal satisfaction than men despite a clear disadvantage in terms of earnings, promotions and career prospects, Aydin et. al (2012) found that the men in Turkey had more job satisfaction compared to the women who were driven out to work for economic reasons. Further research by Ahmadi and Keshavarzi (2012) who studied the Islamic Azad University (Iran) faculty members' views of the effective factors in job satisfaction found that female teachers are more satisfied with their job compared to men. Moreover, Okpara et. al. (2005) revealed that gender differences exist in the levels of job satisfaction of university teachers. It showed that female teachers hold negative perceptions about their pay, supervision and promotion, thus producing a low level of overall job satisfaction, while their male counterparts hold favorable opinions about pay, promotion policies and supervision and thus indicating high level of job satisfaction.

In contrast, the analysis on gender differences in job satisfaction among full time workers in various fields by Hodson (1989) revealed that there are a number of differences between men and women in determining job satisfaction based on factors such as job characteristics, family responsibilities and personal expectations.

Inconsistencies in findings concerning the relationship between gender and job satisfaction may therefore be due to a variety of factors. Not only are the differences in the forms of job ranks, levels, position, career prospects, area of specialization, earning, but also in

demographics and cultural aspects. A job high on social satisfaction, but low on skill utilization and career prospects may result in higher job satisfaction for females than for males, whereas in occupations allowing little scope for social relationship, the differences in satisfaction might be different. Given the overall results or findings above, it is apparent that when other variables were taken into consideration, there is very little evidence to suggest that gender directly influences job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2003).

2.11.1 The Results of Job Satisfaction

One major knowledge gap in the area of understanding the consequences of job satisfaction. There have been strands of debates about whether satisfied employees are productive employees (Lise and Judge, 2004). To this extent therefore, all organizational policies must be understood in terms of effect on performance and job satisfaction. Thus, job satisfaction can result in job performance and life satisfaction.

In the words of Lise and Judge (2004), job satisfaction and job performance has a controversial history. They argued that from 1930's to date, researchers have taken a critical look at the notion that a "happy worker is a productive worker." Most of early literatures suggested a weak and inconsistent relationship between job satisfaction and performance. The argument was rooted in the fact that, the presumed relationship between job satisfaction and performance was "illusory" and "trivial" (Lise and judge, 2004).

However, further research does not concern to the conclusion stated above. Organ (1988) as cited in Lise and Judge (2004), suggested that the failure to find a strong relationship between job satisfaction and performance is due to narrow means often used to define job performance. He argued that when performance is defined to include important behaviours not generally reflected in performance appraisals.

Furthermore, Judge et al., (2001) found that there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and job performance. This was the outcome of a review of 301 studies they conducted earlier. They further argued that, the relationship between job satisfaction and performance was found to be even higher for complex professional jobs than for less complex jobs. Thus, negating earlier positions, it suffices to say that job satisfaction is, in fact related to job performance.

An emerging area of study is the interplay between job and life satisfaction. Researchers have speculated that there are three possible forms of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. These according to Judge and Watanabe (1994), are:

- Spill over, where job experiences spill over into nonwork life and vice versa.
- Segmentation, where job and life experiences are separated and have little to do with one another.

Compensation, where an individual seeks to compensate for a dissatisfying job by seeking fulfilment and happiness in his or her non-work life and vice versa. Judge and Watanabe further argued that these different models may exist for different individuals. Based on the findings of Judge and Watanabe, it can be asserted that organizations have so much control over a person's job satisfaction, because for many people, their job satisfaction is as a result, in part, of spillover of their life satisfaction. Thus, the need to institute continuous actions for addressing how job satisfaction is imperative for organizations.

2.11.2 Factors associated with Job satisfaction among Academics staff of Tertiary

Institutions.

The goals of higher education across the globe have undergone dramatic transformations in recent decades, from broadly defined social, cultural and political goals towards explicitly

contributing to national productivity and economic growth (Lafferty and Flemming, 2000) in (Benthey et al; 2011). Concerns about job satisfaction in academic are nothing new. Internationally, Lacy and Sheehan (1997), cited in Benthey et al; (2011) found that academics in Australia were less satisfied than academics in most other countries, while more recent studies show an even bleaker international position (Coates et al., 2009). This was blamed on increasing accountability requirements, competition for diminishing resources, poor salaries and unmanageable workloads. Lacy and sheen (1997), believed it is common in the academia to hear assertions that “morale has never been lower” and “staff are at breaking point. In a separate study in 2002, Anderson et al., (2002) concluded that, academic profession had lost its attractiveness due to declines in status, control, prestige and salary. To this extent, Coates et al. (2009), posited that, there are concerns that the academic career is unattractive to new entrants.

Contrary to the positions above, there seems to be a Suaging interest among aspirants trying to navigate their way into an academic career. Edwards et al. (2011). In justifying this position, Mc Innis and Anderson (2005 p.134) as cited in Benthey et al. (2011) argue that academics are simply less motivated by “extrinsic rewards” such as salary compared with the satisfaction of the work itself.

Academic work may be a better option than other works for those who value autonomy and challenge. Compared to workers in the nonteaching sectors, academics in most places around, the world enjoy greater job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to remain in their current positions and very positive experiences with their co-workers. (Langford, 2010). He however shows an array of areas where academics are less satisfied than others working in non-academic establishments. These include almost all aspects of work-life balance, organizational participation and resources.

Furthermore, Hargedon (2000) in her study of factors associated with job satisfaction amongst Australian University Academics argues that academic job satisfaction is an outcome of two interacting constructs: mediators and triggers. Mediators refer to interacting factors providing the context through which job satisfaction can be understood and include: motivators and hygiene's (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards associated with one's work), demographics and environmental conditions. On the other hand, triggers are significant work or non-work events affecting one's reference point, such as receiving a promotion, moving institution or starting a family.

Given the findings of Hargedon, it suffices to say that her framework is guided by Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction which viewed motivators as factors associated with job satisfaction. These factors include achievement, challenging work and professional development. Hygiene on the other hand are contextual factors surrounding the work itself, such as policies, supervision and collegial relationships, and for a lesser extent salary and working conditions.

A number of studies, mostly in the industrialized world, have sought to examine aspect of academics satisfaction with their job across nations. Boyer et al. (1994) as cited in Ssesanga and Garrett (2005), conducted an international study that explored among other factors, sources of satisfaction and frustration among academics in 14 countries (Australasia, Brazil, Chile, USA, UK, Germany, Israel, Hong Kong, Netherlands, Korea, Japan, Russia, Sweden and Mexico). Their findings showed a high sense of satisfaction largely deriving from their intellectual lives, courses taught, as well as relationships with colleagues. They argued that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can contribute to job satisfaction. On the whole, academics across the sampled nations were generally satisfied particularly with four facets of their jobs. These include relationship

with colleagues, the opportunity to pursue their own ideas, job security, and their general situation. Garrett (2005), opined that co-worker behaviour, supervision and intrinsic facet of teaching are factors associated with job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Uganda. Their sources of dissatisfaction are however, remuneration, governance, promotion and physical facilities.

Similarly, Telman and Unsal (2004) recognized that the factors affecting job satisfaction into internal, external and personal. Internal factors include characteristics related to the basic nature of work. External factors encompasses conditions such as physical work, promotion conditions, relationships with superiors and co-workers, creativity, job security, organizational structure and culture. Personal factors include factors such as demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational level etc), personality traits and incentive. Furthermore, satisfaction of academic members in higher education institutions is also shown to be affected greatly by institutional variables, including leadership, collegial and student relationship, climate and culture of the university (Gomirald and Peterson, 2003; Hagedorn, 2000) in Xuong et al. (2013).

For Obineli (2010), work environment is an important determinant of job satisfaction among academics. He argued that inspired workplace will result in inspired workers and draws attention to the importance for work performance, the atmosphere, quality and style of buildings and offices. The work environment for him, embraces working conditions such as the temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting, noise, cleanliness of the workplace and adequate tools and equipments (such as public address system, computer, resource materials for teaching).

Undoubtedly, favourable working conditions provide greater physical comfort for teachers and boost their morale while unfavourable conditions leads to high spirit of dissatisfaction. Supporting this position, Okonkwo and Obineli (2011) further stressed that many

academics, especially in public schools lack motivation and job satisfaction because of poor pay package and poor condition of the environment of their workplace.

2.12 Job satisfaction level between male and female academic staff.

Quality in teaching and learning can only be promoted if academics are satisfied and content with their job (Chen et al., 2006). More so, the health of an educational institution depend on the job satisfaction of its employees. On the other hand, the goals of higher education are to provide in-depth knowledge, seek academic development, educate students, and to coordinate national development emands. These goals cannot be accomplished without job satisfaction among the academics (Johnes and Taylor, 1990).

There have been several studies in Asia and other parts of Europe. However, not much of evidence is found for studies determining the level of job satisfaction between males and females in Nigerian tertiary institutions. In a study titled “A comparison of Job Satisfaction Level between Male and Female Academics of Vietnan National University, Xuong and Duong (2013) cited Paul and Phua (2011) that a 2009 study of similar orientation shows no significant difference in terms of gender and job satisfaction.

In a similar study, Ssesanga and Garrett, (2005) posited that male academic staff were more satisfied than their counterparts citing teaching support equipment, working insurance, teacher promotion, gender equality, in-service teaching training, work autonomy, colleague academic interaction, colleague social relationship, development aim of school research pressure, leadership style and administrative efficiency as the forces behind their job satisfaction experiences. In a study of job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in Pakistan, Muhammad Asghar et al., (2011) admitted that male teachers were more satisfied with their job than their female counterparts.

Furthermore, Sargeut and Hannum (2003) as cited in Akiri (2014), found out that gender does not have significant relationship with teacher's satisfaction even though female teachers appeared to be more satisfied. Contrary to the findings of Sargent and Hannum, Akuri (2014), in a study of teacher's career satisfaction and students' academic performance in Delta Public secondary schools, reported slightly higher satisfaction for female teachers stating financial commitment as the basis of their satisfaction than gender difference. For him, men are culturally responsible for providing the financial needs to their immediate and extended families, an obligation which they are often unable to meet from the low salary paid to teachers. He therefore argued that, female teachers may appear to be more satisfied than male teachers because the socio-cultural expectation for the female is less.

2.12.1 Job satisfaction and motivation of academic staff around the world

In many ways, the academic profession is one of the “key professions” in the knowledge society. Academics hold central positions in the knowledge society through their traditional roles as producers of knowledge and educators of knowledge workers. Universities are also emerging as a key source of innovation and economic and social development, taking on responsibilities previously in the realm of business and government (Etzkowitz et al. 2007). However, the positive and opportunistic outlook of university-driven innovation is contingent upon individual academics successfully adapting to these new roles and balancing competing demands. Across a wide range of studies, job satisfaction has been shown to correlate significantly with job performance, with the strongest correlation found in jobs requiring complexity and autonomy (Judge et al. 2001).

Given its importance, surprisingly little at an aggregate level is known about the people who teach and carry out research in universities, about the characteristics of the academic

profession or about what is required to ensure its sustainability and future development. We do know, however, that there are a number of characteristics peculiar to the higher education and research sector: authority relationships are loosely coupled (Weick 1976) and goals are multiple and often ambiguous (Cohen and March 1974); organisational subunits are fragmented (Clark 1983), and the principal workers – “the academic professionals” – have a strong influence “on the determination of goals, on the management and administration of institutions and on the daily routines of work” (Enders 2006) .

As higher education itself has grown and diversified in recent years, so has the academic profession. With the massification of student enrolments, universities no longer enjoy the privileges of their former elite status and neither do academics (Levine 1997). Under what Teichler (2003) terms post-massification, academics nearly everywhere are asked to work longer hours for less money relative to salary scales of a couple of decades ago and to that earned by other professional groups (Welch 1998; Ward and Sloane 2000). In many countries, the academic profession is increasingly insecure, more accountable, more differentiated, more internationalized and less likely to be organised along disciplinary lines. In most OECD countries, the academic profession is aging, whilst there is evidence to suggest that the most intellectually talented of the younger generation do not view an academic career as attractive as they once did (Harman 2003). Academics are asked to supplement their traditional functions of teaching and research with those of community relevance and entrepreneurial pursuits, clearly demonstrating to their institutional masters that they earn their salaries (Henkel 2001).

At the same time, they have lost some of their traditional autonomy of control over work time and output (Gappa, 2001). “Overall trust in the self-steering capacities of academics as long-standing and deeply socialized professionals that are best left alone and only symbolically

represented by institutional and governmental leadership is diminishing” (Enders, 2006). Whilst the number of students they each have to instruct rises, the resources per student for doing that task fall. The teaching task itself becomes more “professionalised”, requiring training and monitoring. Many of the teaching functions of tenured academics are being outsourced to lower-level casual contract staff (Clark 1997; Altbach 1997). Research is required to be strategic and relevant, whilst the presumed defining characteristic of university teaching informed by research is under challenge in several jurisdictions (Owen-Smith and Powell 2001; Rip, 2004). A private higher education sector has become more prominent in many parts of the world, and new approaches to governance and management are evolving in both private and public sectors. Some argue that the very definition of an academic has become ambiguous, as have the boundaries between academic jobs and the jobs of other professionals, both within and beyond the walls of the academy (Askling 2001).

With expansion of higher education has come increasing differentiation, increasing expectations from society and an evolution of professional roles that may take academics away from their original disciplines towards new forms of identity and loyalty. At the same time, knowledge has come to be identified as the most vital resource of contemporary societies, and many nations have taken great strides to improve their capacity for knowledge creation and application. This new devotion to knowledge has both expanded the role of the academy and challenged the coherence and viability of the traditional academic role (Rothblatt 1997).

The Academic Profession in Argentina

The academic profession in Argentina belatedly begins to take shape towards the middle of the twentieth century. The period 1955–1960 constituted a stage of highly significant qualitative growth that had a profound impact on what at that time could be described as a

clearly identifiable academic profession. It was a time notable for scientific and academic advances, whereby the academic profession clearly advanced towards a strong identity in terms of its disciplinary relevance more than the merely institutional. Heterogeneity, successive institutional disruptions and government interventions in university life, plus the unplanned expansion of the teaching body as a product of the expansion of student enrolments, appear as the main features of the Argentine academic profession.

Another characteristic of academic staff in Argentina is related to the majority presence of part-time teachers (10 h weekly), the proportion of which reached more than 60% and are supposed to devote their time only to teaching tasks. More than 20% have a semi-full-time position (20 h/week), and only 15% are full-timers (40 h/week). Unlike other countries in the world and also in the region, the possession of a graduate degree is not a generalised condition among Argentine academics. Only 23% have doctorates and the possession of a masters is the case for a similar proportion (Marquina 2009).

Compared with other countries, Argentina has an overall satisfaction value similar to the international average, and it is significantly above that average when considering career improvement. It is also well ranked regarding influence on institutional decisions and also in attitudes about choosing the academic profession again. However, there are other items where values are significantly lower than the international average. In three of the items, Argentina is placed last (physical infrastructure, service provision and teaching-related issues), while in a fourth it is among the last three (research-related issues).

The Academic Profession in Australia

The goals of Australian higher education have undergone dramatic transformations in recent decades, from broadly defined social, cultural and political goals towards explicitly

contributing to national productivity and economic growth (Lafferty and Fleming 2000). However, the dramatic changes in funding and governance have also raised concerns from within the academy. Studies of job satisfaction in Australian universities have routinely offered a somewhat depressing image of life in the academy, calling into question the sustainability of an industry reliant upon autonomously motivated knowledge workers.

Concerns about job satisfaction in academia are nothing new. In their analysis of the 1991/1992 Carnegie survey, Lacy and Sheehan (1997, p. 306) found less than half (49%) of Australian academics were satisfied with their jobs. McInnis (1999, p. 8) found a similar level of job satisfaction (51%) in a 1999 survey, but this represented a decline from 67% satisfaction compared to another 1994 survey (McInnis and Anderson 2005). Across a range of work factors, McInnis and Anderson (2005) concluded that satisfaction had ‘plummeted’. Internationally, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) found academics in Australia were less satisfied than academics in most other countries, whilst more recent studies show an even bleaker international position (Coates et al. 2009). Poor job satisfaction in the 1990s was blamed on increasing accountability requirements, competition for diminishing resources, poor salaries and unmanageable workloads. Lacy and Sheehan (1997) believed it was commonplace to hear assertions that ‘morale has never been lower’ and ‘staffs are at breaking point’. To McInnis and Anderson, it became ‘obvious to the most casual observer that a crisis in the management of academic workloads and satisfaction had been met’ (2005, p. 133). Whilst other surveys in 2000 and 2003/2004 showed job satisfaction had stabilised, their authors believed the majority of academics were at risk of psychological illness due to stress (Winefield et al. 2003, 2008; Winefield and Jarrett 2001). They hypothesised that this stress was an outcome of reduced collegial control and autonomy over workloads (Winefield et al. 2003).

In a separate study in 2002, Anderson and colleagues (2002) concluded that the Australian academic profession had lost its attractiveness due to declines in status, control, prestige and salary. Salaries of the highest-ranking academics declined from greater than three times the average weekly earnings in 1979 to roughly two and a half times the average in 2002 (Horsley and Woodburne 2005). Salaries in the lowest ranks dropped below the average during the same period. Coates and Goedegebuure (2010) estimated that the relative salaries dropped further during the mid-2000s, with salaries at the bottom at around 80% of average weekly earnings in 2008. Whilst salaries at Australian universities are relatively high compared to other English-speaking countries (Coates et al. 2009), there are concerns that the academic career is unattractive to new entrants. With an ageing academic workforce, Australian universities face a ‘demographic time bomb’ and may struggle to recruit replacements following the retirement of the baby-boomers generation (Hugo 2008).

Despite the negativity from within the academy, there does not appear to be a lack of aspirants trying to navigate their way into an academic career. Edwards and colleagues (2011) report that the vast majority (83%) of Australian research higher degree students have seriously considered an academic career and more than half (54%) intend to pursue such work. Edwards and Smith (2010) argue that security of tenure and the lure of overseas positions are the most serious inhibitors for attracting or retaining midcareer staff within mathematics and science, threatening to the long-term sustainability of science faculties in Australian universities, but very little data is used to support these claims. The competitiveness and shortage of tenured positions relative to qualified applicants is hardly indicative of a problem attracting qualified staff. Both studies by Edwards (Edwards and Smith 2010; Edwards et al. 2011) note that early career researchers see an overseas career as inevitable due to the lack of opportunities in Australia.

However, there is no data to show that overseas positions are more attractive and the best candidates are pursuing careers outside Australia. McInnis and Anderson (2005, p.134) argue that academics are simply less motivated by 'extrinsic rewards' such as salary, compared with the satisfaction of the work itself. Academic work may also simply be a better option than the alternatives for those who value autonomy and challenge. Benchmarked against workers in other large public sector organisation and industries, Australian academics enjoy greater job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intentions to remain in their current positions and very positive experiences with their co-workers (Langford 2010). However, his results also show a sobering array of areas where academics are less satisfied than their industry colleagues, including almost all aspects of work-life balance, organisational participation and resources.

Perception of Job Satisfaction in Canada

Almost all Canadian universities have been created as private, not-for-profit corporations operating under unique legislative charters. While there is a very small private sector, the vast majority of universities are considered public in that they receive operating grants from the respective provincial governments and are considered part of a broader public sector of institutions. While they receive public funding, universities are legally autonomous, self-governing institutions with the right to independently own property, enter into contracts, and employ staff. Canadian university professors are employed by the university, not by government (Bentley et al, 2013).

In a study of sources of job satisfaction among academics in Canada, it was found that the powerful role of unionism in the Canadian higher education sector, academic staff unions play a key role in negotiating the conditions of employment of university professors, and they have generally been quite successful at securing reasonable levels of remuneration and benefits

(Jones and Weinrib 2010). He further mentioned that, many key academic policies are negotiated through collective bargaining, including, at many universities, tenure, promotion, and appointment procedures, and these policies prescribe academic participation in peer review and limit administrative discretion. The strength of academic unionism in the Canadian higher education environment may have protected academic staff from more dramatic changes in the working environment associated with continuing expansion and shifts in government funding.

A second and closely related reason is that, faced with strong unions representing academics, universities have essentially protected the working conditions of full-time academics by increasing the level of teaching assigned to non-full-time, non-tenure stream academics. There has clearly been an increase in the use of part-time, contingent instructors at many universities, often organised in bargaining units that are distinct from the unions representing full-time academics. As Dobbie and Robinson (2008) have hypothesised, it is this fragmentation of academic work and the shift towards contingent academics that may be creating the space to protect a highly privileged, tenure-stream professoriate.

While the overall picture emerging from the study is one of full-time academics who are satisfied with and enjoying academic work, the study also illuminates areas of concern. Despite generally positive reviews of institutional leaders and the support they offer for academic work and academic freedom, there is considerable dissatisfaction with the administrative and managerial processes and structures required to carry out academic work. Negative perceptions of top-down managerial processes and low levels of academic involvement and influence over institution level decision-making processes, particularly within the research-intensive institutions designated as medical-doctoral, are clearly an area of concern for full-time academic staff members. These findings support tentative conclusions in the broader literature suggesting that

governance and managerial processes within Canadian universities are increasingly aimed at strengthening managerial authority and circumventing the historically collegial nature of university decision-making (Metcalf et al. 2011; Boyko and Jones 2010). While academics may be concerned with shifts in institution-level authority and decision-making practices, they continue to perceive that academic professionals have considerable influence over key academic decisions, such as choosing new academics, promotion, and tenure processes, the evaluation of research, and approving of new academic programmes within Canadian universities (Metcalf et al, 2011).

There are differences in responses by demographic group that are important to note. The first and perhaps the most significant relates to the issue of gender. As detailed above, female respondents are less likely to report high levels of overall satisfaction with their current jobs, and they consider their jobs to be a greater source of personal and professional strain than their male counterparts. The fact that there are modest differences in satisfaction levels by gender is not surprising, as there is a body of literature dealing with historical and systemic inequities in Canadian higher education, including differences in remuneration by gender and differences in career patterns and promotion rates. While some elements of the gender gap may be closing, Acker and Armenti note ‘the underlying structures and ideologies that work to the disadvantage of women in academic continue to exert a strong, if increasingly unheralded, impact’ (Acker and Armenti, 2004). If it is acknowledged that the modest differences in levels of satisfaction by gender are partially explained by the way that broader societal norms play out within higher education institutions, remuneration patterns and promotional opportunities must be considered core components of the equation.

Closely tied to remuneration and rank are the issues of tenure, promotion, job security, and professional opportunities. Numerous studies have been conducted over the last 20 years that highlight the historical imbalance in employment and promotion opportunities within Canadian universities based on gender and note that the percentage of female academics participating in the academic profession decreases at the highest ranks (Acker 1994, 2003; Acker and Armenti 2004). Despite the increase in collective bargaining mechanisms and gender equity legislation, the legacies of discriminatory hiring and promotion policies continue to shape many aspects of the academic profession. For example, though women are earning a greater share of doctoral degrees than ever before, they continue to be less likely to be hired into tenure-track positions than men (Drakich and Stewart 2007), and ‘the gender earnings divide continues to rise with years of experience for each generation’ (Warman et al. 2010, 349). When all of these factors are considered, it is not surprising to learn that there are differences in satisfaction by gender and that female academics continue to find the profession more stressful than their male counterparts.

Nevertheless, academics were also said to be satisfied with the physical infrastructure associated with their working environment (with the exception of some research facilities) and with other types of institutional support. They indicated that they had influence over local academic decisions at the unit level but found central administrative processes cumbersome and frustrating. More so, there were modest differences in response by gender, with females reporting less job satisfaction and higher levels of personal strain than their male counterparts. There continues to be important gender differences within the academic profession, a fact that university administrators and union leaders should continue to consider in the development of academic policies.

Determinants of Academic Job Satisfaction in Malaysia

In higher education, job satisfaction is an important gauge. Consideration of the factors that affect job satisfaction of academics is critical to help retain quality faculty members. High job satisfaction levels can enhance growth and success. Huston et al. (2007) describe three potential negative impacts from having dissatisfied academic staff. First, these individuals often withdraw from the community and refrain from collaborating with colleagues. Second, they can disengage from the decision-making processes of the institution, making shared governance impossible.

The research on job satisfaction in the academic environment has shown gender to be an important variable in assessing the overall satisfaction of university employees (Owens 2008). An investigation into whether the academic profession is still considered attractive by looking at the satisfaction level of academics in Malaysian universities shows that the academics were satisfied with the infrastructure and teaching facilities but less satisfied with service and research facilities. The number of hours dedicated to teaching was more than double the time reported for doing research activities. It is clear that teaching is not only considered a central activity within the universities but much more effort appears to be directed to its support. Universities seem to invest their resources in upgrading technology-related facilities but less on human resources in the form of secretarial and teaching support staff.

With regard to academics' perceptions of managerial culture and climate and support, several findings stand out. The academics agreed that there was a strong performance orientation in their institutions. Male academics were more satisfied than their female counterparts with the communication and with the attitude of the administration towards teaching and research activities. This finding suggests that gender plays a part in evaluating persons in management positions. This negates Dennis and Kunkel's research (2004), which found that female

participants were less hostile and generally rated administrators as more competent and effective than their male counterparts. Among different orientations, those whose preference was in research seemed to be less satisfied with the state of collegiality in decision making and attitude towards research activities.

Thus, despite a heavy teaching load, lack of service and research resources and less influence in aspects related to the administration and management of the institution, the academics surveyed were still satisfied with their profession. The positive attitude is perhaps a reflection of their resilience and the belief that these are changing times. This supports Altbach's (1996: 48) claim that 'academe is facing the future with concern but with surprising optimism which is a motivation for job satisfaction.

The overall job satisfaction level of the Malaysian academics could mean that respondents are well suited for the relatively sheltered life of academia and that they are quite settled into the service. On the other hand, it could mean a system of complacency, which does not augur well for the transformation agenda of higher education. Job satisfaction is an important area that needs to be researched further in the Malaysian academic work life since it is related to performance and productivity (Nordin, 2009).

Dimensions of Academic Job Satisfaction in Portugal

The Portuguese higher education system has a very long and rich history. Portuguese higher education, like higher education systems elsewhere, continues to struggle with a desire for democratization and the challenge of dealing with its resultant massification. Academics are a crucial part in this equation, since the profession needs to adjust itself in order to both face and promote change (Taylor et al. 2007).

Portugal was one of the first countries to have higher education. The origin of Portuguese universities can be traced back to the middle of the thirteenth century, and the first Portuguese university was founded in 1290. However, until 1911, the country had only one university (in Coimbra), at which time the new Republican system created two other universities in Lisbon and Porto (Crespo 1993; Santos2002). After the April 1974 democratic revolution, Portuguese higher education underwent profound changes and has been continually evolving ever since, with a significant expansion in the number and type of institutions. The demand for higher education increased, which caused the expansion of the public higher education system and the emergence of the private sector.

Taylor et al. (2007) argue that there is an increasing feminisation of the academic career in Portuguese higher education. They further argued that there is a significant gender differences in academic career development in Portugal. However, another study presents a more positive view of the role of women in academia (European Commission 2008). In this study, it was pointed out that from a cultural perspective, women in leadership positions are generally well accepted in Portugal: data point to a high representation (21%) of women in the top jobs in academia. However, a vertical segregation, along with horizontal segregation, persists in female academics' access to the top academic rank careers (Carvalho and Santiago 2010).

The existence of a binary system of universities and polytechnics has shaped the Portuguese academic career, which does not have a unified structural composition, but is rather fragmented due to the diverse nature of each subsystem (Santiago and Carvalho 2008). Nevertheless, careers in both subsystems have a bureaucratic-driven logic and are highly segmented in a pyramidal way (Santiago and Carvalho 2008). Academic careers in polytechnics tend to be less stable and precarious than in those in universities.

When the two groups are compared, the proportion of tenured or in the tenure track in universities is higher than for academics in polytechnics where fixed-term employment without permanent/continuous employment prospects is prevalent. Regardless of the subsystem, academics perceived that they were spending more hours per week on teaching than research, but those in universities reported that they devoted more hours to research than those in polytechnics. In relation to their preference expressed with regard to focus of professional interest, there were differences between academics from universities and polytechnics. The former emphasized research in preference to teaching when they identified both teaching and research, while the latter preferred teaching to research. Moreover, there were considerable differences between academics from universities and polytechnics related to hours per week spent on research. The former spent more hours per week in research activities compared to the latter. The main objectives assigned to each subsystem research emphasis in universities and the more vocational characteristics of polytechnics can explain, at least partially, the difference in time devoted to research. Although there was a difference in academic job satisfaction from either side of the binary divide, academics from universities tended to consider that working conditions in higher education had improved, while academics from polytechnics tend to consider that they had deteriorated. Similarly, academics from universities were more satisfied with research equipment and instruments and telecommunications than academics from polytechnics. These results can be explained by the more vocational nature of the polytechnics, while universities emphasize research.

The findings of this research indicate the gendering of the Portuguese academic career. Women are still under represented in top academic rankings, while the representation is more balanced at lower levels (auxiliary professor in universities and adjunct professor in

polytechnics). Although there have been numerous studies on job satisfaction, relatively little empirical data have been gathered on job satisfaction of university teachers and very little still on gender differences (Okpara et al. 2005).

Academic Job Satisfaction among Academics in South Africa

In the competitive globalised world, and in the rising knowledge society and knowledge economy, higher education in South Africa is of pivotal importance just as it is elsewhere in the world.

Salient societal forces have been adduced to that have an international impact on the academic profession are globalisation; the information, communication and technological revolution; the neo-liberal economic revolution; and democratisation (Wolhuter et al. 2010). These factors are all active in South Africa. On top of these, South African higher education is also under the influence of the national context, where it is both the subject of fundamental reforms and has been selected (by government and by society) to be an agent for the accomplishment of the desired societal reconstruction. After 1994, the government took a decision to build an education system upon the principles of desegregation, equal opportunities, decentralisation, democratisation and multiculturalism (Wolhuter 1999). The education system was also regarded as being instrumental in realising a whole set of economic, social, political and cultural goals (Wolhuter et al. 2010). However, a summary of determinants of job satisfaction among south-african academics shows that support for research, influence and other motivational factors account for job satisfaction(Wolhuter et al. 2010). Thus, the overall job satisfaction of South African academics (aggregate) tends to be moderately high on average. Job satisfaction increases with rank, but at management level (director), it decreases again. Academics who are

more interested in teaching are more satisfied than those who are more inclined to research. Female academics are more content than male academics.

Demographic variables and their impact on gender and Job Satisfaction

Certain person variables of age, sex, status, tenure and so on are shown in various studies to have effect on job attitudes like gender differences and job satisfaction. These variables are now reviewed:

Age and Tenure: A review of the literature shows that studies are always establishing a relationship between gender differences and not only job satisfaction, but also with certain demographic variables. In view of the finding that gender differences exist in nearly every social phenomenon on the employee's perception of the ratio of inducements to contributions and the accumulation of side bets or investments in the employing system, years of organization service, seniority and age, have become important demographic determinants of organizational commitment/ development. The development of organizational commitment, according to them, appears to require the individual to think in global terms about his relationships to the organization during the initial employment period. We would expect that a relatively greater amount of time would be required for an employee to determine his level of work to the organization than would be the case with the level of job satisfaction.

On the other hand, the degree of one's job satisfaction appears to be largely associated with specific and tangible aspects to the work environment and many represent a mere rapidly termed affective response than does gender differences. Hence, job satisfaction is associated with the passage of time and therefore with demographic factors which involve the time elements; that is age, seniority, tenure, years of service and experience.

Sex: Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) analysis by sex resulted in differences in job satisfaction with females exhibiting less of a propensity to change employing institution than their male counterparts. Analysis by both sex and marital status further suggested that married or separate individuals, especially women see greater costs attached to inter-organizational mobility. Hence they are less likely than single or male subjects to consider employment alternatives, even given inducements to do so.

Conclusively, men need to cooperate with women who have been working on gender issues, sometimes in isolation and sometimes dealing with hostile men threatened by the prospect of change. For example, many times men in Anambra have stood in the way of women's access to information that is likely to increase their knowledge and status. Cooperation will allow men to help rather than block that access. To enjoy being truly human and to build a just society, men must recognize women as equal partners. Thus, this work is centred on Equity theory which is very relevant in understanding workers motivating job satisfaction in organizations.

2.13 Theoretical frame work

This study sets out to explore the gender difference and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary institution staff in Anambra State, Nigeria. It becomes necessary therefore to have a theoretical frame of reference for the investigation of this study.

2.13.1 Cognitive Theories

This is sometimes referred to as the 'concept of an effect-reward probability' indicating that there exists a subjective probability in every individual male and female, that directing a given amount of effort to-wards a goal will result in a given reward or valued outcome. Thus, this approach to the study of organization behavior assumes that individuals engage in some

form or conscious behavior on the job. People are seen as thinking individuals who often consider the consequence of their actions at work.

The genesis of this cognitive theory is the path-Goal theory of motivation by Georgopolous (1957), which states that if a worker sees high productivity as a path leading to the attainment of one or more of his personal goals, he will tend to be a high producer, conversely if he sees low productivity as a path to the achievement of his goal, he will tend to be a low producer. Georgopolous' theory was later elaborated upon by Vroom (1964) in his 'Expectation Theory,' Vroom says that people are motivated to do things which they feel have a high probability of leading to rewards which they value. Basically, the theory assumes that individuals ask themselves whether or not:

- (1) Their actions have a high probability of leading to an outcome i.e Expectancy.
- (2) That outcome will yield other outcomes i.e. Instrumentality.
- (3) That those other outcomes are valued i.e valence.

Thus, we have the theory sometimes referred to as V.I.E. (Valence, Instrumentality, Expectancy). Using this theory, Vroom distinguishes between different causes of job dissatisfaction and job performance. Job dissatisfaction according to him is closely affected by the amount of reward that people derive from their jobs. The level of performance is closely affected by the basis of attainment of rewards. Individuals are satisfied with their jobs to the extent that their jobs provide them with what they desire, and they perform effectively in them to the extent that effective performance leads to the attainment of what they desire.

Vroom's basic theory has been expanded several times, but the most comprehensive expansion is the 'Porter and Lauder Model'. This model logically predicts that satisfaction results from performance. i.e the reward for performance. Performance as 'Expectancy Theory'

states is a function of motivation and ability. If an individual is attracted by the value of the reward he envisions for a high level of performance and perceives as highly probable that increased effort will lead to that reward, he will increase his effort i.e motivation. Moreover, if the worker possesses the required ability and accurate role perceptions, the performance will improve. But then satisfaction will only result from performance if the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards received are deemed equitable. Satisfaction therefore is the difference between perceived equitable and actual rewards. The larger the difference between these two values, the greater the degree of dissatisfaction.

Cognitive theory is relevant to this study because it attempts to explain the lack of motivation in the Anambra State, Tertiary institutions of Academic staff. It is saying that motivation does not just depend on the desired outcome of a worker but also on the instrumentality of effort. That is the relationship perceived by the worker between his and others (other worker) previous effort – hardwork, honesty, loyalty; and the desired outcomes – promotions, salary increment, medals and recognition in the community. What motivates a worker to greater productivity is his experience or conviction that hardwork or increased performance will earn him promotion. If it will not, he will decline to low performance in accordance with Skinner's 'Operant Conditioning' where behavior that is rewarded tends to be repeated while that which is not, tends to be extinguished. From the recent economy and social trend of Nigeria's development especially before the launching of War Against Indiscipline (WAI), nepotism, corruption and greed had broken the link between reward and effort to the detriment of motivation and productivity. This could be the reason why we complain about unproductively and other vices among workers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the methodology of the study. It presents the research design, area of study, population of study and sampling method, methods of data collection and analysis.

3.2 Area of Study

The area of study is Anambra State which was created on 27th August, 1991. Anambra Stat is a state in South-Eastern Nigeria. Its name is an anglicized version of the original ‘Oma Mbala,’ the native name of the Anambra River.

The Capital and the Seat of Government is Awka. Onitsha and Nnewi are the biggest commercial and industrial cities, respectively. The state’s theme is “Light of The nation.” Boundaries are formed by Delta state to the west, Imo state and Rivers state to the south, Enugu state to the east and Kogi state to the north. The origin of the name is derived from the Anambra River (Omambala) which is a tributary of the famous River Niger.

The indigenous ethnic group in Anambra State are the Igbo (98% of population) and a small population of Igala (2% of the population) who live mainly in the north-western part of the state. English is commonly spoken by most people (including pidgin English).

Anambra is the eighth most populated state in the Federal Republic of Nigeria and the second most densely populated state in Nigeria after Lagos State. The stretch of more than 45km between Oba and Amorka contains a cluster of numerous thickly populated villages and small towns giving the area an estimated average density of 1,500-2,000 persons per square kilometer.

Natural Resources: Anambra is rich in natural gas, crude oil, bauxite, ceramic and has an almost 100 percent arable soil. In the year 2006, foundation laying ceremony for the first Nigerian private refinery Orient Petroleum Refinery (OPR) was made at Aguleri area. The Orient Petroleum Resource Ltd, (OPRL) owners of OPR, was licensed in June 2002, by the Federal Government to construct a private refinery with a capacity of 55,000 barrels per day (7,500 t/d). Furthermore, Anambra State is a state that has many other resources in terms of agro-based activities like fishery and farming, as well as land cultivated for pasturing and animal husbandry. Currently, Anambra State has the lowest Poverty rate in Nigeria.

History: Anambra possesses a history that stretches back to the 9th century AD, as revealed by archeological excavations at Igbo-Ukwu and Ezira; Great works of art in Iron, bronze, copper, and pottery works belonging to the ancient Kingdom of Nri revealed a sophisticated divine kingship administrative system which held sway in the area of Anambra from C. 948 AD to 1911.

During the Nigerian/Biafran war, a relief airstrip, was constructed by Biafran engineers in the town of Uli/Amorka (code named “Annabelle”). Uli/Amorka airstrip was the site where brave American Pilots like Alex Nicoll, and scores of others, made the supreme sacrifice in the service of humanity, delivering tons of relief supplies to the Biafran population. Carl Gustaf Von Rosen resigned as a Red Cross relief Pilot and helped Biafran to form an Airforce of five Minicoin planes Malmo MFI-9 stationed at the Uga airstrip. He named his tiny but effective Airforce “Babies of Biafran” in honour of the babies who died via starvation inside Biafran.

Old Anambra state was created 1976 from part of East Central State, and its capital was Enugu. A further re-organisation in 1991 divided Anambra, into two states, Anambra and Enugu. The capital city of Anambra State is Awka. Agulu Crocodile Lake is located along Awka road in Agulu, Aniocha Local Government Area of the State. A potential tourist site, it is home to an

estimated three hundred Crocodiles and water turtles. Fishing is not allowed on the lake and the crocodiles, being sacred animals to the people, cannot be killed. Legend says that these Crocodiles were instrumental in delivering the town from enemy. It is believed that these scared crocodiles and turtles transformed themselves into beautiful ladies and lured the enemies unawares into the lake where they disappeared without trace. At noon the crocodiles and the turtles appear at the banks of the lake and take in sunlight. Ogbunike Caves, listed by UNESCO as a world Heritage Site is one of the most visited tourist sites in Anambra State. It is classified as a Sandstone cave (Lateritic Sandstones of camponian-Miocene age). It has very scenic vegetation with attractive waterfall. It is situated in the Ogba hills Ogbunike, across the Ugwu-Aga Escarpment Umunya by the Enugu/Onitsha Express way and lies in the coordinates of No.6 11 11 and E 06 54 21.

Igbo Ukwu Museum: is an ancient town known for astonishing metal crafts and has remained as attraction to tourists because of its bronze artifacts. The bronzes which were first noticed in 1938 and later excavated by Thurstan Shaw (an English archaeologist) date back to about the 9th century, are of high value and historic relevance.

Uzu-Oka: Awka is historically known for the great metal foundry, Uzu Craftsmanship. Imo-Awka is an annual festival celebrated by the natives. Other Anambra tourism potentials and cultural festivals include:

Ijele Masquerade – listed in UNESCO Arhieves as intangible cultural element ijele dance festival is home to the ‘Olus’ of the Omambala area: Comparing Anaku, Omor, Nsugbe, Agbuleri, Umuleri, Awkuzu, Nteje, Ogunike, Nkwelle-Ezunaka, Umunya etc.

Education: Awka, the state capital, is also the centre of Nigeria’s metal work and carving industries. Educationally, Anambra is a centre of excellence. There are the Nnamdi Azikiwe

University (UNIZIK), Awka a federal university with its college of medicine situated at Nnewi. The UNIZIK Nnewi runs a modern Teaching hospital with facilities also Umunya and Ukpoko. UNIZIK in has faculty of pharmaceutical sciences at Agulu, school of preliminary studies at Mbaukwu and college of Agriculture in.

The Anambra State University, formerly known as Anambra State University of science and technology (ASUTTECH), with two campuses, one in Uli, and another at Igbariam; the Federal Polytechnic, Oko, Nwafor Orizu University of Education (formerly known as the Nwafor Orizu College of Education), Nsugbe. Private Universities include the Tansian University, Umunya and Madonna University, Okija. Literacy rate in the State is comparatively high. Primary and secondary school enrolment in the state is one of the highest in the country. Consequently, Anambra State has the highest number of JAMB candidates going after the limited number of spaces in Nigeria's tertiary colleges, and since 2011/2012 till date (2014) has made the best results in both WAEC and NECO conducted senior secondary school examinations. Thus, majority of population are urbane and cosmopolitan. A great number of the people in the state are traders who move a lot in their businesses.

Politics: Anambra's political history can be described as awesome, weird and unique depending on the aspect one turns to. It is a state with a long list of "Firsts" in Nigeria history that is dubbed the sobriquet "The Light of The Nation." On May 29, 1999, Chinwoke Mbadinuju was sworn in as civilian governor of Anambra State, after many years of military rule. His administration was marred by heavy problems. The most notable is the teachers' salary which was withheld for a long time. This led to a ten-months strike in all the government secondary schools in the state. Also, before his rule, secondary education had been free of charge. But his administration prescribed a tuition fee of N3000 per term for all secondary schools, which led to an

unprecedented massive demonstration by the secondary school students from all over the state. Many people attribute Mbadinuyu's failure to political godfathers a debate that also trailed his successor. On May 26, 2003 Chris Ngige was sworn in as the new governor of the state, but he was removed in March 2006 when Peter Obi of APGA dragged him to court on charges of electoral malpractice. The court of Appeal in Enugu asserted that his election victory in 2003 was fraudulent and ordered him to leave the seat. Peter Obi was in turn ousted by a faction of the Anambra State House of Assembly on November 2, 2006 and replaced by Virginia Etiaba, his deputy. On February 9th 2007 Mrs. Etiaba handed power back to Obi after the court of Appeal had nullified Obi's removal. On April 14th, 2007, Andy Uba of PDP was "elected" the new governor of the state and on May 29th, was sworn in as the new governor. The election was reported to be massively rigged and was disapproved all over the country. On June 14, 2007 the Supreme court of Nigeria removed Andy Uba from office and replaced him with his predecessor Peter Obi, on the ground that Peter Obi's tenure had not ended, therefore there was no vacancy in the governorship.

On Saturday, 6 February 2010, Peter Obi was re-elected governor for a second term of four years, after a hot contest with Chris Ngige, a former governor of the state; Prof. Charles Soludo, a former governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria and Andy Uba who was a strong voice in the state's politics. Other contenders included Mrs. Uche Ekwunife, Prince Nicholas Ukachukwu and many others. Altogether, there were twenty-five contestants for the office. Peter Obi was named the winner of the election, with more than 30% votes above the immediate runner up. Presently, Chief Willie Maduabuchukwu Obiano was sworn in on the 17th of March, 2014 as the new governor after the expiration of the Peter Obi second term, having won the November 16th, 2013 election.

Cities and administrative divisions

With an annual population growth rate 2.21 percent per annum, Anambra State has over 60% of its people living in Urban Areas making it one of the most urbanized places in Nigeria. The major urban centres of Anambra State are Onitsha including Okpoko, Nnwi, and Awka. Awka and Onitsha developed as pre-colonial urban centres with Awka as the craft industrial centre of the Nri hegemony; and Onitsha the city State on the Niger and a river port and commercial centre. Onitsha is a fast – growing commercial city, and has developed to become a huge conurbation extending to Idemili, Oyi and Anambra East LGAs with one of the largest markets in West Africa.

Nnewi (the Taiwan of Nigeria) is a rapidly developing industrial and commercial centre; and Awka, by becoming the state capital is, as it were, regaining its precolonial administrative eminence. Other main towns of Anambra State are: Abagana, Abba, Abacha, Abatete, Achalla, Achina, Adazi Ani, Adaze-Enu, Adazi-Nnukwu, Agukwu, Aguleri, Agulu, Aguluezechukwu, Aguluzigbo, Ajalli, Akpo, Akpu, Akwaeze, Akwaukwu, Alor, Amaetiti, Amansea, Amanuke, Ama Okpala, Amaubia, Amesi, Amichi, Amorka, Anaku, Atani, Awa, Awba-ofemili, Awgbu, Awka-Etiti, Awkuzu, Azia, Azigbo, Ebenator, Ebenebe, Ekwulobia, Ekwulumili, Enugwu-Agidi, Enugwu, Aguleri, Enugwu Ukwu, Ezinifite, Ezinihite, Ezialuelle, Ezira, Ichi, Khida, Ideani, Ifitedunu, Ifite-Ogwari, Igbakwu, Igbariam, Igbo-Ukwu, Ihembosi, Ikenga, Iseke, Isuaniocha, Isulo, isuofia, Lilu, Mbosi, Mgbakwu, Mmiata Anam, Nando, Nanka, Nawfia, Nawfija, Nawpu, Ndikelionwu, Ndiokpaleke, Ndilikwuenu, Nibo, Nimo Nise, Nkpologwu, Nkpor, Nkwelle Ezunaka, Nneni, Nnobi, Nnakwa, Nneokwa, Nsugbe, Nteje, Oba, Obeledu, Obosi, Ogbunike, Ogbunka, Ogidi, Ojoto, Okija, Oko, Okpeze, Omasi, Omagho, Omor, Oro-Eri, Oraifite, Oraukwu, Orsumoghu, Osumenyi, Owellezokala, Ozubulu, Ubuhi Isiuzor, Ufuma, Uga,

Ugbenne, Ugbenu, Uke, Ukpo, Ukpor, Uli, Umuanaga, Umuawulu, Umuchu, Umudioka, Umueje, Umuerum, Umueze-anam, Umeleri, Umumbo, Umunachi, Umunya, Umunze, Umuoji, Umuomaku, Unubi, Utuh and so on.

Local government areas: Anambra State consists of twenty-one (21) Local Government Areas:

- ☐ Aguata
- ☐ Awka North
- ☐ Awka South
- ☐ Anambra East
- ☐ Anambra West
- ☐ Anaocha
- ☐ Ayamelum
- ☐ Dunukofia
- ☐ Ekwusigo
- ☐ Idemili North
- ☐ Idemili South
- ☐ Ihiala
- ☐ Njikoka
- ☐ Nnewi North
- ☐ Nnewi South
- ☐ Ogbaru
- ☐ Onitsha North
- ☐ Onitsha South

- Orumba North
- Orumba South
- Oyi

Urbanization and structural planning: Over the last two decades the rural/urban exodus has caused a shift making Anambra a highly urbanized state with 62% of its population living in Urban areas. Faced with decades of neglect and bad governance, the shift in human migration has posed problems to available infrastructural provision, environmental sanitation, erosion control and other social services. As a result, major cities have become characterized by inadequate and deteriorated road networks, walkways, unregulated building patterns, sanitation, uncontrolled street trading, mountains of garbage, and chaotic transport systems, creating congestion, noise pollution and overcrowding.

To address this situation, the government of Peter Obi with the assistance of the UN-HABITAT produced 20 year structural plans (2009-2028) for three major cities in the state, Onitsha, Nnewi and Awka capital Territory to restore urban planning and guide their growth into the future. The plans contain policies and proposals for land use, city beautification, road infrastructure, industrial development, housing, waste disposal, water supply and health and educational facilities to turn the cities into Anambra into successful urban areas to generate employment, wealth and provide high living standards for its residents.

Anambra became the first state in Nigeria to adopt Structural Plans for its cities and with effective implementation should systematically grow as a major economic center in Nigeria and West Africa.

The process of Urbanization is fairly confluenced by population growth, immigration, migration, and infrastructure initiatives like good road, water, power, and gardens, resulting in

the growth of villages into towns, town into cities and cities into metros. However, in such a phenomenon for ecological feasible development, planning requires an understanding of the growth dynamics, if not people will continue moving from our villages in search of greener pasture living only the aged men and women to farm, this is noticeable in Amesi, Akpo, and Achina towns in Awuata Local Government Area. They major in the production of Yam, cocoyam and cassava through consistent agriculture. These agricultural activities have in recent time suffered a setback due to massive out-migration of their youths to the urban centres, thereby resulting in food scarcity and over population in urban environment. Thus, majority of population are urban and cosmopolitan. A great number of the people in the state are traders who move a lot in their businesses.

The institutions under study include: Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka. Anambra State University of Science and Technology, Iki, Madonna University Okijia, Nwafor Orizu College of Education, Nsugbe, Federal Polytechnic Okoh and Federal College of Education Technical Umuze. There is not much on the socio-economic situation in the state.

3.3 Research Design:

Descriptive survey research design was adopted for this study. Three major procedural steps were taken in this study viz:

- (1) Sampling selection
- (2) Preparation and administration of the instruments and
- (3) Analysis of Data

3.4 The Study Population

The population of the study comprises of all the academic staff (both males and females) of the six tertiary institutions in Anambra State. The six tertiary institutions used for the study are

shown in table 3.1. The total population of the academic staff of the institutions was four thousand three hundred and sixty-five (4,365) academic staff in the six institutions and the number for each institution is provided in the table below and respondents were drawn in proportion to the population size of the institutions as shown in the table 3.2 below:

The sample for this study was drawn from the six tertiary institutions. The total sample for the study was three hundred and fifty-nine (359) of the academic staff and was divided proportionately according to the size of the selected institutions. Thus, the sample size used is 359. i.e Krejcie, R, and Morgan C (1976) was used. The sampling system used is random sampling where respondents are obtained using systematic sampling procedure.

Table 3.1 Distribution of tertiary institutions selected and sampled population

SN	INSTITUTIONS	POPULATION	SAMPLE
1.	Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka	1,052	87
2.	Anambra State University, Uli	905	74
3.	Madona University Okijia	454	37
4.	Nwafar Orizu College of Education Nsugbe	679	56
5	Federal Polytechnic Okoh	973	80
6.	Federal college of Education & Technical Umunze	302	25
	Total	4,365	359

The researcher first of all went to the office of HODs in each of the institutions for permission to administer the questionnaires to the staff in their departments. Then when the researcher was given the permission to do so, she used the staffs that were available. The researcher approached the respondents. Some of whom were harsh and not easy going at all.

The questionnaire was administered in English. However, it was impossible to increase the sample because of the difficulty encountered in obtaining appropriate responses from all anticipated sources. The respondents were picked on the basis of their availability. The researcher passed through their offices with the letter attached to the questionnaire distributed by the researcher. The questionnaire were dropped and picked up later. Also, research assistants were used for the distribution and retrieval from the questionnaires from the academic staff.

Table 3.2.: Distribution of Respondents by their institutions.

Institutions	Frequency	Percentage (%)
UNIZIK	89	24.8
NSUGBE	56	15.6
OKOH	65	18.1
Anambra State University	87	24.3
OKIJA	35	9.7
UMUNZE	27	7.5
Total	359	100.0

Table 3.2 above shows that the majority of the respondents are found in Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka (UNIZIK) and Anambra State University by virtue of their being the largest tertiary institutions in the state and are governmental institutions. All are governmental institution except Okija which is a private institution.

Table 3.3: Distribution of Respondents by Faculties/Schools

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Faculty of Agriculture	23	6.4
Faculty of Science	45	12.6
Faculty of Technology	50	13.9
Faculty of Vocation	75	20.9
Faculty of Arts	76	21.2
Faculty of Business Administration	54	15.0
CEREC	36	10.0
Total	359	100.0

Table 3.3 presents distribution of respondents by their faculty. The result of the survey showed 6.4% of the lecturers were from faculty of Agriculture. Lecturers from faculty of Social Sciences were 12.0%. Those who were surveyed from faculty of Technology were 13.9%, lecturers from faculty of Vocation were 20.9%. Respondents from the faculty of Arts were 21.2%. Lecturers who were surveyed from faculty of Business Administration were 15.0%. Lecturers who were studied from CEREC were 10.0% and those who were studied from faculty of Sciences were only 6.4%. The survey showed the respondents came from faculty and school of Arts in University and Colleges of Education respectively with lowest number of lecturer who forms the sample of the study from faculty of science in universities and school of sciences in colleges of education respectively.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedure

The data collected were analysed using a computer statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) version 13.0. Descriptive statistics and analysis were used to examine the data.

T-test was used to compare the level of job satisfaction among male and female academic staff of the tertiary institutions. Anova was used to test difference in job satisfaction among lecturers' social status. The data obtained from the instruments were analysed using the independent t-test to test the research hypothesis and results were tested for significance at .05 level.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

A total of three hundred and fifty-nine (359) questionnaires were retrieved and it is this number that form the research sample and for which analysis is carried out on. As mentioned in the previous chapter the samples from the institutions were proportionately drawn based on the size of the institutions. The first section of this chapter deals with socio-demographic variables and section two treats the issues covered in the questionnaire.

4.2 Socio-Demographic variables

Table 4.2.1: Distribution of Respondents by Sex

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	192	53.5
Female	167	46.5
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.1 presents distribution of respondents by their sex in which the male lecturers are slightly higher than the female with one hundred and ninety two 53.5% while the female lecturers are 46.5%. It shows that in the higher institution of Anambra State female lecturers are high and almost at par with their male counter parts.

Table 4.2.2: Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
25 – 35 years	80	22.3
36 – 45 years	41	11.5
46 – 55 years	147	40.9
56 and above	91	25.3
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.2 shows that the age group 46-55 years has the highest percentage with 40.9%, followed by those in the 56 and above age group with 25.3%, this is followed by respondents in the 28-35 years age group with 22.3%, while respondents in the 36-45 years age group has 11.5%. The table shows that a significant proportion of the respondents are young while many of them are in their middle ages. Equally, out of a few of the respondents are advanced in age.

Table 4.2.3: Distribution of Respondents by Religion

Religion	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Christianity	298	83.0
Islam	61	17.0
Traditional Religion	0	0.0
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.3 clearly shows that the majority of the respondents 83% are Christians while respondents whose religion is Islam are 17% and none of the respondents in the sample are of traditional religion. This shows that the area of study is dominated by Christians.

Table 4.2.4: Marital Status of Respondents.

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Married and living with spouse	228	63.5
Married but not living with spouse	88	24.5
Single	23	6.4
Divorce	20	5.6
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.4 shows that 63.5% of respondents are married and living with their spouse, 24.5% were married but not living with their spouse, 6.4% of the respondents were single, while 5.6% are divorced. It can be deduced that 88% of the sample are married and have responsibilities to handle. The fact that they are married may improve their motivation to work hard to achieve more so that they can handle their family responsibilities adequately.

Table 4.2.5: Distribution of Respondents Years of service

Years of Service	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1-10 years	80	22.3
11-20 years	91	25.3
21 and above	147	40.9
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.5 presents distribution of the respondents by number of years in service. The table shows that majority of the staff had been working between 21 years and above in their respective institutions with 40.9.3%. This indicates that the institutions have highly qualified and

experienced staff. The table shows that 66.2% of the respondents have been working between 11 to 30 years and majority of them with 40.9% have worked for over 21 years.

Table 4.2.6: Distribution of the ranks of respondents from the Institutions

Rank	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Lecturers I – III	107	29.8
Senior Lecturers	101	28.1
Chief Lecturers/Associate Professors	79	22.0
Professors	72	20.1
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.6 shows the distribution of respondents covered in the research by rank. From the table, lecturers in rank category of Lecturer I – III constitute 29.8% of the total sample, Senior Lecturers 28.1%, respondents in the rank of chief lecturers/Associate Professors are 20.1%, while Professors have the lowest with 20.1%. It can therefore be deduced that majority of the respondents both male and female covered in the research are of a lower ranking and this seeming gap is due to the requirements and difficulty attached to the academic profession.

Table 4.2.7: Distribution of Staff by Educational Qualification

Qualification of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1 st Degree Bachelor Bsc, BA,B.Ed	107	29.8
2 nd Degree Master	180	50.1
Doctorate (Ph.D)	72	20.1
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.7 shows the distribution of staff by educational qualification from the table, 50.1% staff have their 2nd degree/masters, 107 are having only their first degree/equivalent, and only

20.1% of the staff covered have a Ph.D. It can be deduced that majority of the staff covered in this study are of a middle level educational qualification, which shows that either staff are not motivated enough to pursue higher qualifications due to inadequate staff development support in the higher educational institutions or due to lack of personal efforts from the part of the staff to pursue more qualification.

Table 4.2.8: Distribution of Respondents by Nature of Employment

Nature of Employment Tenure	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Fulltime	303	84.4
Part-time	56	15.6
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.8 shows that, 84.4% of the lecturers are on “Full Time” employment while lecturers who are on “Part Time” employment make up of 15.6%. Indicating that the institutions rely more on tenure staff, only a small per cent of their staff are contract staff or part time staff.

Section II

Table 4.2.9: Response on Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Determinants of Job Satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Nature of Work	153	42.6
Present Pay	129	35.9
Opportunities for Promotion	17	4.7
Supervision	29	9.2
Relationship with co-workers	31	7.6
Total	359	100.0

It is evident from table 4.2.9 that the major determining factors for job satisfaction are the nature of work and pay (i.e salary) which together constitute 78.5%. The respondents also indicate they value their relationship with their co-workers and welcome supervision. Similarly, it can be surmised that the respondents do not think much of promotion as a factor of job satisfaction due, presumably, to the fact that the promotion exercise in the institutions are run smoothly.

Table 4.2.10: Whether there is cordial gender relationship with their Boss

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	215	59.9
No	144	40.1
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.10 presents distribution of respondents' relationship with their boss. Respondents who indicated "No cordial" they don't have relationship with their boss were one hundred and forty four 40.1%. While respondents who indicated "Yes" they have relationship with their boss were 59.9%. This concludes respondents have relationship with their bosses.

Table 4.2.11: Response on whether there is Salary Difference due to Gender Difference.

Whether there is Salary diff.	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes there is	34	9.4
No there is not	325	90.6
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.11 presents respondents opinion on the issue of salary as to whether there is difference due to gender. This shows that 90.6 % of lecturers said "No" there is no salary difference base on

gender. The table shows that salary payment is not made based on gender and as such pay is not determined by the sex of the worker.

Table 4.2.12: Distribution of Respondents on whether they received good attention from Heads.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Good Attention	227	63.2
No Good Attention	132	36.8
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.12 presents distribution of respondents on whether they receive attention from their heads, 36.8% of the lecturers indicated “No” that they do not receive attention from their superior officers, 63.2% of the lecturers indicated “Yes” that they get attention from their head or superior officers. It can thus be concluded that lecturers get attention from their superior officers although a significant number of them feel different.

Table 4.2.13: Distribution of Respondents on whether Gender influence Rank Attainment

Gender Influence Promotion	Frequency	Percentage (%)
There is influence	59	33.1
No influence	300	66.9
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.13 present distribution of response on whether gender influence rank attainment, 66.9% of the lecturers indicated “No” meaning that gender difference does not influence promotion of staff in promotion. However, 66.9% of the lecturers indicated “Yes” suggesting that to some extent promotion is influenced by the gender difference of the staff.

Table 4.2.14: Response of Respondents whether they take their Work seriously

Whether work is taken Seriously	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	201	56.0
No	158	44.0
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.14 present distribution of respondents in terms of taking their work seriously, 44% of the lecturers indicated “No” they do not take their work seriously, 56% of the lecturers indicated “Yes” they take their work seriously. It is indeed curious that close to half of the respondents indicated that they do not take their work seriously.

Table 4.2.15: Is there Gender Difference in relation to Access to Resources

Gender	Access to Resources		F. Total
	Yes	No	
Male	90(25.1%)	102 (28.4%)	19 253.5%
Female	69 (19.2%)	19 (253.5%)	16746.5%

Table 4.2.15 is about Gender difference in relation to access to resources in the higher institutions covered in this research. From the table, 90 25.1% male staff claimed that there is gender difference, while 102 of male said there is no gender difference in the access to resources. 69 19.2% female said there is gender difference, while 98 27.3% said there is no gender difference in accessing resources by the staff in the institutions covered. It can be deduced that majority of the staff, both male and female said there is no gender differences in accessing resources meaning that both male and female staff have equal chances in accessing resources for their work and for the development.

Table 4.2.16: Response on whether there are complaints by Female Respondents on Differential Treatment

Whether there are complaining based on gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	198	55.2
No	161	44.8
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.16 present lecturers' complaint on deferential treatment among the staff and it shows that 44.8% indicated "No" and that there is no differential treatment among lecturers. However, 55.2% of the staff said "Yes" there are complaints by females on differential treatment among staff suggesting that there is differential treatment in favour of male staff based on their responses.

Table 4.2.17: Response on whether there is Gender Disparity within the Institutions

Whether there is gender Disparity	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	137	38.2
No	222	61.8
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.17 presents respondents' opinion on whether there is gender disparity within the institutions, 61.8% respondents indicated "No" that there was no disparity while 38.2%. Lecturers indicated that there is gender disparity among the lecturers in the Institutions.

Table 4.2.18: Responses on whether Respondents are satisfied with their job

Gender	Satisfaction		F Total
	Satisfied	Not-satisfied	
Male	102 (28.4%)	90 (25.1%)	192 53.5%
Female	108 (30.1%)	59 (16.4%)	167 46.5%

Table 4.2.18 is on the respondents' opinion on whether they are satisfied with their job. 108 30.1% of the female respondents said they are satisfied with their job, while 59 16.4% of the said they are not satisfied. From the table also 102 28.4% of the male respondents showed their satisfaction, while 90 25.1% said they were not satisfied. This shows that the majority of the respondents covered in the sample were satisfied with their job and female lecturers appear from the response to be more satisfied with the work than male lecturers.

Table 4.2.19: Response on whether Condition of service has effect on Job Satisfaction

Condition of	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Service has relationship to job		
Satisfaction		
Yes	289	80.5
No	70	19.5
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.19 presents respondents' opinion on the issue of job satisfaction as to whether it is influenced by condition of service. Seventy lecturers 19.5% said "No" while 80.5% of the respondents said satisfaction is influenced by condition of service.

Table 4.2.20: Distribution of Respondent's view by Gender on level of Job satisfaction

Whether satisfied or not	Gender Frequency			Percentage
	Male	Female		
Very Satisfied	24 (6.7%)	79 (22%)	103	28.7%
Fairly Satisfied	90 (25.1%)	75 (20.9%)	165	46.0%
Not very Satisfied	39(10.1%)	70 (11.1%)	73	20.3%
Not satisfied	2(.6%)	15 (4.2%)	7	4.7%
Don't Know	1(.3%)	0 (0%)	1	.3%
Total	156	209	359	100.0%

Table 4.2.20 is on distribution of respondents' level of job satisfaction by gender. 79 22% of female said they are very satisfied while 24 6.7% of males said they are very satisfied constituting 28.7% 103 of the respondents. A total of 165 46% of all respondents said they are fairly satisfied out of which males are 90 25.1% while females respondents 75 20.9% 39 10.9% males and 40 11.1% females claimed to be not very satisfied with the job 'constituting a total of 75 20.3% of the respondents. For not satisfied there are 7 respondents out of which 15 4.2% are females and only 2 .6% are males, while only 1 .3% respondents claimed not to know whether he is satisfied or not.

Table 4.2.21: Response on whether the Respondents perform their work in the Best Way

Do You Consider it Important to Perform Your Work in the Best Way	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes perform well	288	80.3
No don't perform well	71	19.7
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.21 presents respondents' view on work performance in the best way. Seventy one 19.7% of the respondents indicated "No" they didn't consider it important to perform their work in the best way. Two hundred and eighty eight 80.3% of the lecturers indicated "Yes" they consider it very important to do their work in the best way. Thus, sex has little to do with work performance.

Table 4.2.22: Response or Work Satisfaction due to Recognition

Do You Feel Satisfied with Your Work Because of Recognition?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	262	72.9
No	97	27.1
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.22 presents respondents opinion on the issue of work and recognition. Ninety seven 27.1% of the lecturers indicated that they do not work because of recognition while two hundred and sixty two 72.9% feel and have a sense of satisfaction with their work because of recognition.

Table 4.2.23: Distribution of Respondents opinion view by Gender on sense of Accomplishment

Have a sense of Accomplishment	Gender		Frequency	Percentage (%)
	Male	Female		
Always	28(7.8%)	73(20.3%)	101	28.1
Often	40(11.1%)	41(11.4%)	81	22.5
Occasionally	94(26.2%)	20(5.6%)	114	31.8
Seldom	30(8.4%)	28(7.8%)	58	16.2
Never	3(.8%)	1(.3%)	4	1.1
Total			359	100.0

Table 4.2.23 shows that 28.1% of the respondents out of which 28 7.8% are male and 73 20.3% female said they always have a sense of accomplishment. 22.5% said they often have sense of accomplishment on their job, among them 40 11.1% are male and 41 11.4% are female. 31.8% mentioned that they occasionally have a sense of accomplishment in their job among which 94 26.2% are male, while 20 5.6% are female, while 16.2% claimed to be seldomly have a sense of accomplishment among which 30 8.4% are male respondents and 28 7.8% are female respondents. Only 3 .8% males and 1 .3% females said they never have sense of accomplishment in their job.

Table 4.2.24: Whether workers do their best in the Job

Whether job is carried out in the best way	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Always	87	24.2
Often	116	32.3
Occasionally	96	26.7
Never	54	15.0
Don't Know	4	1.1
No response	2	.6
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.24 presents respondents opinion on the issue of whether they have a chance to do their work without much interference. Thus there is much independence for the workers to do their work as best as possible.

Table 4.2.25: Job Satisfaction due to Opportunity staff development by the Institution

Staff Development opportunity	Gender Frequency		Percentage (%)
	Male	Female	
Always	49 (13.6%)	68 (18.9%)	32.6
Often	27 (7.5%)	51 (14.2%)	21.7
Occasionally	40 (11.16)	45 (12.5%)	23.7
Seldom	54 (15%)	16 (4.5%)	19.5
Never	5 (1.4%)	0 (0%)	1.4
Don't Know	2 (.6%)	0 (0%)	.6
No response	0 (0)	2 (0.6%)	.6
Total			100.0

Table 4.2.25 presents distribution of respondents' opinion on staff development opportunities given by the institutions they are working. From the tables majority 32.6% of the staff said they are satisfied due to staff developments opportunities in their institutions, among these 49 were males and 68 18.9% females. 21.7% said they often get satisfied with the staff development opportunity, out of which 7.5% 27 are males and 51 14.2% are females. Among the 23.7% of respondents who said they occasionally get satisfied with the opportunities given, 40 11.1% are males and 45 12.5% females. 54 15% males and 4.5% 16 females said they seldom get development opportunities making aggregate of 19.5% respondents. 1.4% of respondents said they are never satisfied, .6% don't know and .6% gave no response. This shows that majority of the female staff are satisfied with the staff development opportunities in their institution.

Table 4.2.26: Response by Gender on whether Job gives happiness?

Whether job gives happiness	Gender Frequency		Percentage (%)
	Male	Female	
Always	(7.8%)28	49 (13.6%)	21.4
Often	(8.1%)29	81 (22.6%)	30.6
Occasionally	(25.6%)92	20 (5.6%)	31.2
Seldom	(12.8%)46	09 (2.5%)	15.3
Never	(0.3%)1	1 (0.3%)	.6
Don't Know	(0%) 0	3 (0.8%)	.9
Total			100.0

Table 4.2.26 shows that 21.4% of respondents among which 28 7.8% are male and 49 13.6% females said their job give them happiness. 30.6% in which 29 8.1% are male 81 22.6% females said they often have satisfaction with their job. 31.2% said they occasionally get satisfaction from time to time among which 92 25.6% are male and 20 5.6% female respondents. In the same

vein, 15.3% of respondents among which 46 males and 2 females said they seldom get job satisfaction, while .6% said never, .9% don't know whether they get job satisfaction or not.

Table 4.2.27: Response on whether Institution is fair on staff matters?

Response on whether Institution is fair on staff matters	Gender		Percentage (%)
	Male	Female	
Always	30 (8.3%)	41 (11.4%)	19.8
Often	31 (8.6%)	56 (15.6%)	24.2
Occasionally	103 (28.7%)	11 (3.06%)	31.8
Seldom	86 (18.9%)	6 (1.7%)	20.6
Never	6 (1.7%)	1 (.3%)	1.9
Don't Know	5 (1.4%)	1 (.3%)	.16
Total			100.0

Table 4.2.27 shows that the institutions are able to attend to matters of the staff in terms of their occupational needs and the resources available. There is therefore some high degree of fairness by the institutions to provide for the staff on matters regarding the performance of their jobs. The shows that among those who said the institution is always fair, 30 8.3% are males and 41 11.4% females, among those who feel the institution is often fair to staff. 31 8.6% are males and 56 15.6% are females (24.2%). 31.8% said the institution are occasionally fair to staff, (103 28.7% males, 11 3.6% females staff). 20.6% said institutions are seldomly fair to staff, among which 68 18.1% males and 6 1.7% females. Institution is never fair to staff has 1.9% and don't know .16%.

Table 4.2.28: Responses by Gender on whether the respondent would Advise Friends to Work in the Institutions or not

Response	Gender		Percentage (%)
	Male	Female	
Yes	50 (13.9%)	55 (15.3%)	29.2
No	1(.3%)	0 (0%)	.3
Doubtable	130 (36.2)	20 (5.6%)	41.8
No response	61 (19.2%)	34 (9.5%)	28.7
Total			100.0

Table 4.2.28 present respondents' opinion on whether they will advise their friends to work in the institutions they are working. It can be discerned from the table that 29.2% said yes they will, out of which 50 13.9% are male and 55 15.3% females. .3% i.e only 1 male said no. 41.8% doubted being able to do that among which 130 36.2% are male 20 5.6% females, 69 19.2% males and 34 9.5% females did not respond to the question making a total of 28.7% of the respondents covered in the research.

Table 4.2.29: Respondents view on level of Satisfaction with Job

Response	Gender		Percentage (%)
	Male	Female	
Very Satisfied	15 (4.2%)	30 (8.4%)	12.5
Satisfied	21 (5.8%)	101 (28.1%)	34.0
Fairly Satisfied	21 (5.8%)	31 (8.6%)	14.5
Not very Satisfied	40 (11.1%)	10 (2.8%)	13.9
Unsatisfied	36 (10%)	04 (1.1%)	11.1

Don't Know	16 (4.5%)	14 (3.9%)	8.4
No response	11(3.1%)	09(2.5%)	5.6
Total			100.0

Table 4.2.29 presents respondents' distribution by their job satisfaction, 12.5% of the respondents showed they are very satisfied out of which 15 4.2% are males and 30 8.4% females. Satisfied respondents were found to be 34% of the total among which 21 5.8% are males and 101 28.1% females. Fairly satisfied respondents constitute 14.5% with males 21 5.8% and females 31 8.6%. Those who said they are not very satisfied with the job are 13.9% with 40 11.1% males and 10 females' respondents. Respondents who are unsatisfied with their work are 11.1% (36 male 4 female). Don't know 8.4%, 16 male and 14 females and no response with 5.6% out of which 11 are males and 9 females. This shows that majority of the respondents were found to be in the category of either very satisfied or fairly satisfied, out of which the female respondents are higher in number than males, which shows that female respondents appear to be more satisfied with the work than their male counterparts.

Table 4.2.30: Whether Supervision Encourages Job satisfaction on workers.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	120	33.4
No	77	21.4
Doubtable	80	22.3
Don't Know	40	11.1
No Response	42	11.7
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.30 presents distribution of respondents by encouragement from supervisors for job satisfaction. It is evident from the responses that supervision is not a significant factor for job satisfaction in the institutions. The workers are thus able to work with as little interference as possible as they have some high degree of freedom to carry out their duties and responsibilities. Given the significant response on doubttable don't know and no response it can be surmised that much of the activities of academics do not entail any serious supervision or that it is not being paid attention to.

Table 4.2.31: Responses on whether management on working condition enhances Job Satisfaction

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Always	49	13.6
Often	93	25.9
Occasionally	150	41.8
Seldom	67	18.7
Total	359	100.0

Table 4.2.31 presents respondents opinion on the issue of meeting with management on working conditions. Lecturers who showed they always have meeting with the management were 13.6%. Those who showed they often meet with employees on working conditions were 25.9%. Lecturers who showed they occasionally have meeting with their employees on working conditions were 41.8%. While those who showed they seldom have meeting with their employees on working conditions were 18.7%. Those who form the majority were lecturers who indicated occasionally having higher frequency and percentage conclude majority of lecturers occasionally held meeting with their employees. The table shows that the management does race

in a while meet their employees on condition and this does seem to enhance job satisfaction. A feature of academic work is that to do independence. Most academic staff has high level of independence requiring little supervision when supervision is found if is usually in depth, other levels meetings. This is itself can be regarded as a source of motivation.

4.3 Hypotheses Testing

4.3.1: Hypothesis 1. There is no significant gender difference between male and female in job satisfaction. t-test was used to test this hypotheses.

Table 4.3.1: Gender Difference and Job Satisfaction

Gender	Mean	std div	N	df	tcal	terc	sig	Decision
Male	48.8516	9.31315	182					
				357	2.991	1.960	0.05	R
Female	49.8305	9.40651	177					

Table 4.3.1 present t-test of gender difference between the sample on job satisfaction. The test showed t calculated 2.991 is greater than t critical value 1.960 (tcal 2.9915 terc 1.960) at df 357. Since the calculated t value is greater than critical value we therefore reject the null hypothesis and conclude there is significant gender difference in job satisfaction in favour of female lecturers. The rejection was due to difference found at 0.05 level of significant two tailed test.

4.3.2 Hypothesis 2: There is no significant gender difference between male and female in intrinsic job satisfaction among academic staff in Anambra State Tertiary Institution.

t-test was used to test this hypotheses

Table 4.3.2: Gender and Intrinsic job satisfaction

Gender	Mean	std div	N	df	tcal	tcri	Sig	Decision
Male	40.1868	9.07113	182	2				
				357	.784	1.960	NS	A
Female	39.7006	9.93934	177					

Table 4.3.2 present t test of gender difference between the sample on intrinsic job satisfaction. The test showed t calculated. .784 is less than t-critical 1.960 ($t_{cal}.784 < t_{cri} 1.960$) at df 1.960. Since the calculated t value is less than critical t-value. We therefore accept the null hypothesis and conclude there is no significant gender different between the samples on intrinsic job satisfaction.

4.3.3: Hypothesis 3. There is no significant gender difference between male and female extrinsic job satisfaction.

t-test was used to test this hypotheses.

Table 4.3.3 Gender and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Gender	Mean	Std div	N	df	tcal	tcri	sig	Decision
Male	43.4066	10.53170	182					
				357	.516	1.960	NS	A
Female	43.9831	10.62719	177					

Table 4.3.3 present t test of gender and extrinsic job satisfaction among lecturers who form the sample of the study. The test showed t calculated value. .516 is less than t critical value

1.960 ($t_{cal} .516 < t_{cri} 1.960$) at df 357. Since the calculated t-value is less than critical t value we therefore accept the null hypothesis and conclude there is no significant gender difference between the lecturers in extrinsic job satisfaction.

4.3.4 Hypothesis 4. There is no significant difference in Job Satisfaction between staff from different social status.

Anova was used to test this hypothesis

Table 4.3.4 Job Satisfaction and Lecturers' Social Status

Source of Variations	Sum of Squares	Mean square	df	fcal	fcrit	sig	Decision
Between Groups	203.202	101.602	2	1.161	3.84	NS	A
Within Groups	31154.684	87.573	357				
Total	31357.886		359				

Table 4.3.4 present analysis of variance (ANOVA) test of differences in Job satisfaction among the lecturers from different social status, the test showed F calculated value 1.161 is less than calculated value 3.84 ($f_{cal} 1.161 < f_{cri} 3.84$) at df. Since the calculated F value is less than critical F value we therefore accept the null hypothesis and conclude there is no significant difference between the lecturers from different social status in their Job Satisfaction.

4.4 Discussion of Research Findings

The study found significant gender difference between the respondents on the issue of general job satisfaction. This difference was found in favour of female lecturers. In other words, these findings showed that female staffs are more contented with their job than males. The

reasons behind this may be evident from general conduct of women where they rush back home to look at the young children. The finding showed tcal 2.991 with a mean difference of 49.8305 for female against 48.8516 for male lecturers.

Malik (2011) who revealed that overall gender differences can be seen as women do not have high expectations on pay, fringe, benefits, nature of job, etc. In contrast, Sabharwal and Corley (2009) asserted that there was a significant difference between male and female lecturers as per their disciplines in the school /faculty. They also found that female faculty members of satisfaction when compared with male faculty, members and female members tended to be more satisfied compared to men in health, Social Sciences and engineering field. While most researchers carried out in the European countries reported that women had more personal satisfaction than men despite a clear disadvantage in terms of earnings, promotions and career prospects, Aydin et al (2012) found that the men in Turkey had more job satisfaction.

Okpara et.al. (2005) revealed that gender differences exist in the levels of job satisfaction of tertiary institution teachers. It showed that female teachers hold negative perceptions about their pay, supervision and promotion, thus producing a low level of overall job satisfaction, while their male counter parts hold favorable opinions about pay, promotion policies and supervision and thus indicating high level of job satisfaction. In contrast, the analysis on gender differences in job satisfaction among full time workers in various fields by Hodson (1989) revealed that there are a number of differences between men and women in determining job satisfaction based on factors such as job characteristics, family responsibilities and personal expectations.

No significant difference was found between genders on intrinsic job satisfaction. This findings showed all the staff have their own personal feelings and they were contented with both

nature of service which include; facilities, equipment general environment and payment as such no difference was found between the staff in job satisfaction. This finding is contrary to the finding of Onabanjo (2009) who found no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction at $t\text{-cal} .115$. The difference between the two studies may be due to time taken between the two studies, or interventions of salary by Federal government or TET FUND that establish a lot of structures.

The findings of this research showed no significant gender difference between the samples in extrinsic job satisfaction. Mcinnis and Anderson (2005, P.134) argue that academics are simply less motivated by 'extrinsic rewards' such as salary, compared with the satisfaction of the work itself. This may be due to conditions of service attached to all the academic staff. The nature of promotion criteria; which include conferences, seminars, workshops and publications are condition binding on all academic staff irrespective of gender. The lecturers have to fulfil these conditions before they derive any benefit from colleges and university management. Some findings made by Sadegh and Azadeh (2012) showed there is no significant gender difference in extrinsic job satisfaction among academic staff of Giothine industry in Iran at $t\text{-cal}.708$. The studies were similar due to nature of extrinsic motivation in which social atmosphere, administrative atmosphere, salary and other benefits are inclusive.

No significant difference was found between the sample on job satisfaction and social status of the lecturers' at $t\text{-cal} 1.161$. This findings is similar to the findings of David (2001), who studied job satisfaction among Benue State Primary school teachers at $t\text{-cal} .782$

According to Al- Zubi (2010), job satisfaction is critical to retaining and attracting well - qualified workers, and more satisfied employees have more innovative activities in continuous quality improvement. It is obvious that organizations loses productivity, social capital and suffer

customer deflection when a productive worker quits. To this extent therefore, the academic environment and the sensitive nature of its service (knowledge dissemination), requires competent and highly motivated faculties as a basis for promoting job satisfaction. Based on the findings made the survey showed there is significant gender difference in Job satisfaction among the lecturers at $t_{cal} 2.991$ (0.05) level of significance. The work of Ismail, Yao and Yunus (2009) was in accord with this study where they found significant difference between gender and job satisfaction among secondary school teachers at $t_{cal} 14.944$.

Many research about that proved that increase in job satisfaction among female academic staff in higher institutions and this decline is across all countries in the world, and this occur despite the identification of the academics profession by Perkin (1969) as the Profession providing the knowledge base and certification for all other professions. No significant gender difference was found in intrinsic job satisfaction among the lecturers at $t_{cal} .780$

Levine (1997) has attributed the general decline in job satisfaction among academics to the growth and diversification experienced in the academia – which lead to mystification. With the mystification of student enrolments, higher institution no longer enjoys the privileges of their former elite status and neither do academics (Levine 1997). Under what Teacher (2003) terms post-mystification, for instances, academics nearly everywhere are asked to work longer hours for less money relative to salary scales of a couple of decades ago and to that earned by other professional groups (Welch 1998; Ward and Sloane 2000). In many countries, it is not the question of gender differences as earnings and other chances are universally accorded and may be subjected to hard work. A study undertaken by Harmian – (2003) found that in many countries, the academic profession is increasingly insecure, more accountable, more differentiated, more internationalized and less likely to be organized along disciplinary lines. No

significant gender difference was found in extrinsic job satisfaction among the lecturers tcal .516

No significant gender difference was found between the lecturers' demographic factors and job satisfaction t-cal 1.161

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter deals with summary, conclusion and recommendations, for the study which are described below based on the findings of the study. In this chapter, the writer attempts to summarize all the procedures followed to meet the ends, through summary, conclusion and recommendations offered for the study conducted based on the Gender Differences and Job Satisfaction among academic Staff of Tertiary Institutions in Anambra State, Nigeria.

5.2 Summary

The researcher investigated whether there is significant difference between Gender and Job Satisfaction, intrinsic Job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and demographic factors. The researcher formulated four research hypotheses to guide the study. The answer to the hypotheses test will bring in the light to especially academic lecturers and other stakeholders in the field of education, the impact of academic staff on the institutional achievement. The investigation is aimed at examining job satisfaction among male and female academic staff in tertiary institutions in Anambra State, Nigeria. Numerous literatures were reviewed in both conceptual clarification and theoretical background. The equity theory developed by (Jorman 1974, Locke 1976, Nguri et al, 2006, in Xnong and Duong, 2013), emphasises job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences and as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values. Whenever workers perceive inequity in their social exchange with the organisation, studies show that absence and turnover increase.

Descriptive survey research design was adopted which allowed the distribution gender differences and job satisfaction questionnaires to generate data. All lecturers of the tertiary institutions selected for this study form the population of the study, the sample was deduced from Kerejcie and Morgan (1976) table of sample size. The sample was proportionately distributed according to the size of school population. Also, their responses were subjected to t-test, analysis of variance, and Chi-square makes the research analysis. All the findings of the research were summarised in descriptive, simple percentage and inferential statistics with a view to give summary of the results of the survey. In conclusion the result of the findings were presented alongside with recommendations for practice and for further studies.

5.3 Conclusion

Job satisfaction of academic members is important for improvement, efficiency and effectiveness of the higher education sector. It is clear that very little research on job satisfaction of academic has come from developing countries like Nigeria. Therefore, there is a need for more from developing countries, and for theories to be tested in different cultural contexts, professional, social, and economic environments.

The study showed that most academic members of Anambra state Tertiary institutions were satisfied with their jobs. Female academic were more satisfied than their counterparts. Academic members were generally satisfied with teaching support equipment, working insurance, teacher promotion, gender equality, in-service teaching training, in-service research training, work autonomy, colleague academic interaction, colleague social relationship, teaching load, research pressure, development aim of school, leadership style, campus landscape, and administration efficiency. Moreover, institutions were dissatisfied or neutral with the job dimensions namely salary, bonus and welfare, research room space and equipment, internet and

computer, library (e-journals), recreation and sports equipment. Hence, one way of addressing this could be by refresher courses and training workshops must be arranged tertiary institution academic staff to keep them abreast with the contemporary skills and techniques as well as teaching and research; to provide adequate protective equipment. Tertiary institution management should provide abundant research space and facilitate supportive. Provision of sufficient funds to tertiary institutions for the availability of modern tools, scholarly publications, properly equipped libraries and laboratories.

Moreover, higher education management clearly need to reexamine their current institutional policies on institution work in order to keep highly productive faculty workers who are more satisfied with their job and to make the necessary changes in the policies and practices to enhance job satisfaction.

- a. Gender significantly varies based on job satisfaction among lecturers who formed the sample of the study.
- b. Lecturers do not significantly differ in intrinsic job satisfaction.
- c. Lecturers do not significantly vary in extrinsic job satisfaction.
- d. Lecturers are invariant across social status and job satisfaction.
- e. Gender and job satisfaction do not vary with age, tenure and rank.

5.4 Recommendations for Practice

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made for ensuring improvement in gender relationship among academic staff and job satisfaction:

- i. All lecturers should receive a fair treatment from their employees to enable them work efficiently toward organizational goals.

- ii. Lecturers professional development should be encouraged by means of in service and on the job training sponsorship to give the staff confidence in their job,
- iii. There is need by both government and institutions to always motivate their staff by making prompt payment of salaries, wages, renovation and provision of working facilities to avoid unnecessary industrial actions.
- iv. Employment of lecturers should be made on merit instead of gender or other social status.
- v. It is recommended that in the process of recruiting academic staff, the work itself or beliefs of individual applicant should be taken into consideration. Preference should be given to those who have internal work beliefs not those who think they can manage it than none.
- vi. Similarly, it is recommended that in the process of promoting academic members should be on merit and those who are already on the job and qualified should be taken into consideration because they have positive outlook towards their jobs and institutions.
- vii. It is recommended that academic staff should be encouraged to cultivate internal work values of control beliefs so that their institutions commitment could be enhanced.
- viii. Also, it is recommended that the management of tertiary institutions should make policies that would enhance the job satisfaction level of academic staff. For instance, provision of regular on the job or in-service training for academic staff from time to time will not only make them more competent but will also enhance their job satisfaction. This could further led to an increase in their institutional commitment.
- ix. There should be an improvement in the general conditions of service for lecturers with regards to the various motivational factors such as appropriate and regular salaries,

allowance, adequate professional development, promotions and recognition of serving lecturers.

- x. There should be adequate care for retired lecturers to service as a motivation for serving lecturers to remain on the job till retirement instead of using the teaching profession as a stepping stone to more lucrative jobs in other sectors of the economy.
- xi. Moreover, higher education management clearly need to reexamine their current institutional policies on academic work in order to keep highly productive academic members more satisfied with their job and to make the necessary changes in the policies and practices to enhance job satisfaction for both males and females.
- xii. It is hoped that the barrier to the job satisfaction of male and female academic members are found in this study may be useful for management institutes to develop work environment and culture that would allow higher levels of academic job satisfaction and can contribute to a great extent to improve the level of academic members in developing counties in general and Anambra State Tertiary Institution in particular.

5.3.2 Recommendations for further studies

- i. The scope of the study should be extended to cover the entire south eastern Nigeria to make a comparative.
- ii. There is need to study on gender difference and job satisfaction among universities, polytechnics and colleges of education in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Sociology,

Bayero University, Kano

July, 2014/06/30

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a Ph.D student in the department of sociology, Bayero University, Kano undertaking a research on Gender difference and Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff of Tertiary Institution in Anambra State, Nigeria.

This questionnaire is therefore designed to gather the information needed for the study. Kindly go through the questionnaire objectively and indicate your views. I guarantee that all information supplied will be treated in strict confidentiality.

Thank you for the kind gesture.

Okonkwo Mary Ekwy (Mrs)

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Sociology

Bayero University, Kano

July, 2014/06/30

Dear Sir/Madam,

This instrument is aimed at finding out how much of job satisfaction you experience in the course of your work. Here job satisfaction is considered to mean individual's general attitude

towards the job in terms of employees' effective response to various aspects of the job or situations.

Please do not leave any item unanswered. Your response is for research purpose only and would be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you for the kind gesture.

Okonkwo Mary Ekwy (Mrs)

APPENDIX II

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

Instruction: Please place a tick (√) in the box that best describes you.

1. Sex

(a) Male ☐ (b) Female ☐

2. Age:

(a) 18 – 25 years ☐ (b) 26 – 35 years ☐ (c) 36 – 45 years ☐
(d) 46 – 55 years ☐ (e) 56 – 60 years ☐

3. What is your marital status?

(a) Married (living with spouse) ☐

(b) Married (but not living with spouse) ☐

(c) Single ☐

(d) Divorced ☐

(e) Widowed ☐

4. Rank:

(a) Lecturer ☐

(b) Senior Lecturer ☐

(c) Principal Lecturer ☐

(d) Professor ☐ (e) Others, please specify _____

5. For how long have you been with the college?

(a) 1 – 10 years ☐ (b) 11 – 20 years ☐ (c) 21 – 30 year ☐

(d) 31 years and above ☐

6. What is your highest educational qualification?

(a) 1st degree ☐

(b) 2nd degree ☐

(c) Ph.D ☐

(d) Professor ☐

(e) Others, please specify: _____

7. Nature of employment:

(a) Fulltime ☐

(b) Part-time ☐

8. Terms of payment:

(a) Salaried ☐ (b) Daily ☐

SECTION B: GENDER DIFFERENCES

1. Do male and female take their work at heart?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

2. Is there any gender difference in access to obtaining resources, office space, or staff support in the institution?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

3. Do women report or complain differential treatment on the basis of gender in their institution?

Yes ☐

No ☐

4. Between male and female who do you think are more motivated with monetary reward?

(a) Male ☐

(b) Female ☐

5. Give your reason for your response in 4 above _____

6. Do you think women derive more job satisfaction than their male counterpart?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

7. Why? _____

8. Is there any difference in the role of male and female in this institution?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

9. Please explain your response in 8 above _____

10. What keeps you going as an academic staff? _____

11. Is there any difference in the relationship with boss between male and female staff?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

How? Please explain: _____

12. Is there any difference in terms of salary between male and female?

Yes ☐

No ☐

How Please explain: _____

13. Do men pay more attention to students than women?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Please give your reason: _____

14. Please comment generally on how gender difference exist in the society.

15. Is there any significant difference in the rank between male and female members in this institution?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

Please explain: _____

16. What is your opinion regarding these differences in gender?

17. How do you think these differences can be bridged? _____

SECTION C: JOB SATISFACTION (INTRINSIC FACTORS)

1. What role does job satisfaction play in your institution?

2. What is the role of co-workers in this process?

3. Is there any differences in the level of job satisfaction between male and female staff in your institution?

4. Is there any relationship between the level of intrinsic job satisfaction of males and females?
(e.g. achievement, recognition, advancement)

5. What gives you satisfaction as an academic staff?

6. Between male and female who do you think experience more job satisfaction?

7. What do you think are the reasons for the differences in job satisfaction for male and female?

8. Does gender play a role in job satisfaction?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

How? Please explain

(a) Yes ☐

(b) No ☐

Please explain

9. Is job satisfaction largely obtained through the constitution or other means?

(a) High ☐

(b) Low ☐

10. What is the level of job satisfaction of the staff in your institution?

11. What do you think account for that?

12. Comment generally on job

satisfaction. _____

13. What in your opinion can help the academic staff to have job satisfaction?

14. Do you consider it important to perform your work in the best way in the institutions' work?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

How? Please explain _____

15. Do you feel satisfied with your work because your recognition is okay for you and your

family? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

Please explain _____

16. How willing are you to put in a great deal of effort to help you institution succeed?

17. Do you feel a sense of pride in working for this institution?

18. Would you encourage your friends and relations to come to study in this institution?

19. Do you take personal joy and pride in the achievement and scholarly reputation of this institution?

20. Are you willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this institution be successful.

SECTION D: JOB SATISFACTION (EXTRINSIC FACTORS)

1. How satisfied are you with your salary?

(a) Vary satisfied ☐ (a) Fairly satisfied ☐ (c) Not particularly satisfied ☐
(a) Unsatisfied ☐ (b) Very unsatisfied ☐ (c) Don't know ☐
(d) No response ☐

2. Do you get any feeling of accomplishment from the work you are doing?

(a) Yes, always ☐ (b) yes often ☐ (c) Yes occasionally ☐
(d) Yes, seldom ☐ (e) Never ☐ (f) Don't know ☐ (g) no response ☐

3. Does your job give you the chance to do the things you fell you can do best?

- (a) Yes, always ☐ (b) Often ☐ (c) Occasionally seldom ☐
(d) Never ☐ (e) Don't know ☐ (f) No response ☐

4. How often does your job give you an opportunity to be of real help to the institution?

- (a) Always ☐ (b) Often ☐ (c) Occasionally ☐ (d) Seldom ☐
(e) Never ☐ (f) Don't know ☐ (g) No response ☐

If it does not why is that?

Please explain _____

5. If your job gives you an opportunity to be of real help to the public, please specify the kinds of opportunity. _____

6. Do you feel unhappy with your job?

- (a) Always ☐ (b) Often ☐ (c) Occasionally ☐ (d) Seldom ☐
(e) Never ☐ (f) Don't know ☐ (g) no response ☐

7. Do you think the institution is fair and honest in dealing with your matters?

- (a) Always ☐ (b) Often ☐ (c) Occasionally ☐ (d) Seldom ☐
(e) Never ☐ (f) Don't know ☐ (g) No response ☐

8. Would you advice your friends or relatives to come and work here?

- (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐ (c) Doubtful ☐ (d) No response ☐

If no, why is that? _____

9. How many of your working colleagues have left this place of work since you joined the institution?

- (a) 0 ☐ (b) 1 ☐ (c) 2-3 ☐ (d) 4-5 ☐ (e) 6-7 ☐ (f) 8-9 ☐
(g) 10 and above ☐ (h) Don't know ☐ (i) no response ☐

10. If any has left, please state why that worker left? _____

11. Do you have meeting with other employees on matters affecting your working condition?

(a) Always ☐ (b) Often ☐ (c) Occasionally ☐ (d) Seldom

(e) Never Don't know ☐ (f) No response ☐

12. Generally, how satisfied are you with your job?

(a) Very satisfied ☐ (b) Fairly satisfied ☐ (c) Not particularly ☐

(d) Satisfied ☐ (e) Unsatisfied ☐ (f) Very unsatisfied ☐

(g) Don't know ☐ (h) No response ☐

13. Please comment generally on the management in its effort to motivate workers.

14. What in your opinion? _____

15. Does the management offer fringe benefits such as housing, vehicle loan, maternity and leave grants?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐ (c) Don't know ☐ No response ☐

16. do you think the supervisors are fully aware of how much or how little each worker is doing on his job?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐ (c) Doubtful ☐ (d) Don't know ☐

(e) No response ☐

17. Would you receive encouragement from your supervisor if you put in more effort in your job?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐ (c) Doubtful ☐ (d) Don't know ☐ (e) No response ☐

18. Does your job give you the chance to do the things you feel you can do best?

(a) Yes ☐ (b) Often ☐ (c) Occasionally ☐ (d) Seldom ☐

(e) Never ☐ (f) Don't know ☐ (g) No response ☐

19. Generally, how satisfied are you with your job?

(a) Very satisfied ☐

(b) Satisfied ☐

(c) Fairly satisfied ☐

(d) Not particularly satisfied ☐

(e) Unsatisfied ☐

(f) Very unsatisfied ☐

(g) Don't know ☐

(h) No response ☐

21. Do you have confidence in the fairness and honesty of management in dealing with your matters? ☐

(a) Always

(b) Often ☐

(c) Occasionally ☐

(d) Seldom ☐

(e) Never ☐

(f) Don't know ☐

(g) No response ☐

**AN APPRAISAL OF THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR FUNDING EDUCATION
THROUGH WAQF IN NORTHERN NIGERIA: A PROPOSAL FOR REFORM**

BY

**JUWAYRIYA BADAMASIUY,
MUHAMMAD BELLO &
ZAKARIA MUSTAPHA**

Abstract

Nigeria as a developing country requires sustained economic growth and this calls for adequate funding of the education sector to harness the great potentials of the country to generate employment and address the menace of low-level literacy. Charitable enterprises serve as catalysts in the educational growth of the developed and developing countries. In Nigeria, charities, more often than not, have religious undertone. Thus, the large Muslim population of Northern Nigeria can find alternative to funding and financing education through the waqf (the charitable Islamic Trust). Unfortunately, the charitable trusts in Nigeria have generally underperformed despite their contribution to the nation's GDP. This low performance has been attributed to unfriendly legal environment among other factors. This paper examines the legal framework for the operation of waqf within the provisions meant for the conventional common law trust vis-

a-vis the Islamic law principles. It also examines practices of financing education in Northern Nigeria. This involves review of the practices, along extant rules, and the role waqf plays in that regard. Finding that waqf can play an important role in financing education in Northern Nigeria towards the growth and development of the nation's economy, but constrained by inadequacies in legal framework that limit the operations and proliferation of the institutions and its products, the paper recommends that reform should be undertaken by the stakeholder towards providing a robust legal framework that would provide for the Islamic principles that facilitate funding and financing education through waqf in Nigeria.

APPENDIX III

Crosstabs

[DataSet1]C:\Documents and Settings\USER.USER-8D994E82B2\My Documents\YOKONKWO MARYE..sav

DO MALE AND FEMALE TAKE THIER WORK AT HEART? * RESPONDENTS GENDER

Crosstab

			RESPONDENTS GENDER		Total
			MALE	FEMALE	
DO MALE AND FEMALE TAKE THIER WORK AT HEART?	NO	Count	83	75	158
		Expected Count	84.5	73.5	158
		% within DO MALE AND FEMALE TAKE THIER WORK AT HEART?	52.50%	47.50%	100.00%
		% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	43.20%	44.90%	44.00%
		% of Total	23.10%	20.90%	44.00%
	YES	Count	109	92	201
		Expected Count	107.5	93.5	201
		% within DO MALE AND FEMALE TAKE THIER WORK AT HEART?	54.20%	45.80%	100.00%
		% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	56.80%	55.10%	56.00%
		% of Total	30.40%	25.60%	56.00%
Total	Count	192	167	359	
	Expected Count	192	167	359	
	% within DO MALE AND FEMALE TAKE THIER WORK AT HEART?	53.50%	46.50%	100.00%	
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	
	% of Total	53.50%	46.50%	100.00%	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
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Pearson Chi-Square	.102 ^a	1	0.749		
Continuity					
Correction ^b	0.046	1	0.831		
Likelihood Ratio	0.102	1	0.749		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.751	0.415
Linear-by-Linear					
Association	0.102	1	0.749		
N of Valid Cases ^b	359				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 73.50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

DO MEN PAY MORE ATTENTION TO STUDENTS THAN WOMEN? * RESPONDENTS GENDER

Crosstab

		RESPONDENTS GENDER		Total
		MALE	FEMALE	
DO MEN PAY MORE NO ATTENTION TO STUDENTS THAN	Count	65	67	132
	Expected Count	70.6	61.4	132

STUDENTS THAN WOMEN?	% within DO MEN PAY MORE ATTENTION TO STUDENTS THAN WOMEN?	49.20%	50.80%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	33.90%	40.10%	36.80%
	% of Total	18.10%	18.70%	36.80%
	YES	Count	127	100
		Expected Count	121.4	105.6
		% within DO MEN PAY MORE ATTENTION TO STUDENTS THAN WOMEN?	55.90%	44.10%
		% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	66.10%	59.90%
		% of Total	35.40%	27.90%
	Total	Count	192	167
		Expected Count	192	167
		% within DO MEN PAY MORE ATTENTION TO STUDENTS THAN WOMEN?	53.50%	46.50%
		% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	100.00%	100.00%
		% of Total	53.50%	46.50%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.508 ^a	1	0.219		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.251	1	0.263		
Likelihood Ratio	1.507	1	0.22		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.229	0.132
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.504	1	0.22		
N of Valid Cases ^b	359				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 61.40.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION * RESPONDENTS GENDER

Crosstab

		RESPONDENTS GENDER		Total
		MALE	FEMALE	
DETERMINANTS OF NATURE OF WORK JOB SATISFACTION	Count	74	79	153
	Expected Count	81.8	71.2	153
	% within DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	48.40%	51.60%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	38.50%	47.30%	42.60%
	% of Total	20.60%	22.00%	42.60%
PRESENT PAY	Count	75	54	129

	Expected Count	69	60	129
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	58.10%	41.90%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	39.10%	32.30%	35.90%
	% of Total	20.90%	15.00%	35.90%
OPPOTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION	Count	9	8	17
	Expected Count	9.1	7.9	17
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	52.90%	47.10%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	4.70%	4.80%	4.70%
	% of Total	2.50%	2.20%	4.70%
SUPERVISION	Count	18	11	29
	Expected Count	15.5	13.5	29
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	62.10%	37.90%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	9.40%	6.60%	8.10%
	% of Total	5.00%	3.10%	8.10%
RELATIONSHIP WITH CO WORKERS	Count	16	15	31
	Expected Count	16.6	14.4	31
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	51.60%	48.40%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	8.30%	9.00%	8.60%
	% of Total	4.50%	4.20%	8.60%
Total	Count	192	167	359
	Expected Count	192	167	359
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	53.50%	46.50%	100.00%
	% within RESPONDENTS GENDER	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	% of Total	53.50%	46.50%	100.00%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.639 ^a	4	0.457
Likelihood Ratio	3.653	4	0.455
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.856	1	0.355
N of Valid Cases	359		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.91.

Crosstabs

DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION * EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Crosstabulation

		EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS		
		1ST DEGREE	2ND DEGREE	THIRD OR EQUIVALENTS
DETERMINANTS OF NATURE OF WORK JOB SATISFACTION	Count	79	49	25
	Expected Count	72.9	55	25.1
	% within DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	51.60%	32.00%	16.30%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	46.20%	38.00%	42.40%
	% of Total	22.00%	13.60%	7.00%
PRESENT PAY	Count	62	51	16
	Expected Count	61.4	46.4	21.2
	% within DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	48.10%	39.50%	12.40%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	36.30%	39.50%	27.10%
	% of Total	17.30%	14.20%	4.50%
OPPOTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION	Count	6	7	4
	Expected Count	8.1	6.1	2.8

	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	35.30%	41.20%	23.50%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	3.50%	5.40%	6.80%
	% of Total	1.70%	1.90%	1.10%
SUPERVISION	Count	12	8	9
	Expected Count	13.8	10.4	4.8
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	41.40%	27.60%	31.00%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	7.00%	6.20%	15.30%
	% of Total	3.30%	2.20%	2.50%
RELATIONSHIP WITH CO WORKERS	Count	12	14	5
	Expected Count	14.8	11.1	5.1
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	38.70%	45.20%	16.10%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	7.00%	10.90%	8.50%
	% of Total	3.30%	3.90%	1.40%
Total	Count	171	129	59
	Expected Count	171	129	59
	% within DETARMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION	47.60%	35.90%	16.40%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	% of Total	47.60%	35.90%	16.40%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.922 ^a	8	0.271
Likelihood Ratio	9.278	8	0.319
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.865	1	0.091
N of Valid Cases	359		

a. 2 cells (13.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.79.

Crosstabs

STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION * EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS Cros

			EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS		
			1ST DEGREE	2ND DEGREE	PHD OR EQUIVALENTS
STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	LECTURER	Count	86	61	25
		Expected Count	81.9	61.8	28.3
		% within STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	50.00%	35.50%	14.50%
		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	50.30%	47.30%	42.40%
		% of Total	24.00%	17.00%	7.00%
	SNR LECTURER	Count	22	13	9
		Expected Count	21	15.8	7.2
		% within STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	50.00%	29.50%	20.50%
		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	12.90%	10.10%	15.30%
		% of Total	6.10%	3.60%	2.50%
	PRINCIPAL LECTURER	Count	26	25	16
		Expected Count	31.9	24.1	11
		% within STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	38.80%	37.30%	23.90%

	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS			
	% of Total	15.20%	19.40%	27.10%
		7.20%	7.00%	4.50%
OTHERS	Count	37	30	9
	Expected Count	36.2	27.3	12.5
	% within STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	48.70%	39.50%	11.80%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	21.60%	23.30%	15.30%
	% of Total	10.30%	8.40%	2.50%
Total	Count	171	129	59
	Expected Count	171	129	59
	% within STAFF RANKS AT COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	47.60%	35.90%	16.40%
	% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	% of Total	47.60%	35.90%	16.40%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.224 ^a	6	0.399
Likelihood Ratio	6.129	6	0.409
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.319	1	0.572
N of Valid Cases	359		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.23.

Crosstabs

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY * EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RES
Crosstabulation

			EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS		
			1ST DEGREE	2ND DEGREE	PHD OR EQUIVALENTS
HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY	1-10 YEARS OLD	Count	69	56	22
		Expected Count	70	52.8	24.2
		% within HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY	46.90%	38.10%	15.00%
		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS			
			40.40%	43.40%	37.30%
		% of Total	19.20%	15.60%	6.10%
	11-20 YEARS OLD	Count	47	29	15
		Expected Count	43.3	32.7	15
		% within HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY	51.60%	31.90%	16.50%
		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	27.50%	22.50%	25.40%
		% of Total	13.10%	8.10%	4.20%
	21-30 YEARS OLD	Count	35	32	13
		Expected Count	38.1	28.7	13.1
		% within HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY			
			43.80%	40.00%	16.20%

		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS			
		% of Total	20.50%	24.80%	22.00%
31 AND ABOVE YEARS			9.70%	8.90%	3.60%
		Count	20	12	9
		Expected Count	19.5	14.7	6.7
		% within HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY			
			48.80%	29.30%	22.00%
		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	11.70%	9.30%	15.30%
Total		% of Total	5.60%	3.30%	2.50%
		Count	171	129	59
		Expected Count	171	129	59
		% within HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY			
			47.60%	35.90%	16.40%
		% within EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
		% of Total	47.60%	35.90%	16.40%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.026 ^a	6	0.806
Likelihood Ratio	2.992	6	0.81
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.277	1	0.598
N of Valid Cases	359		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.74.

Total
153
153
100.00%
42.60%
42.60%
129
129
100.00%
35.90%
35.90%
17
17

100.00%
4.70%
4.70%
29
29
100.00%
8.10%
8.10%
31
31
100.00%
8.60%
8.60%
359
359
100.00%
100.00%
100.00%

stabulation

Total
172
172
100.00%
47.90%
47.90%
44
44
100.00%
12.30%
12.30%
67
67
100.00%

18.70%
18.70%
76
76
100.00%
21.20%
21.20%
359
359
100.00%
100.00%
100.00%

SPONDENTS

Total
147
147
100.00%
40.90%
40.90%
91
91
100.00%
25.30%
25.30%
80
80
100.00%

22.30%
22.30%
41
41
100.00%
11.40%
11.40%
359
359
100.00%
100.00%
100.00%