A MODELLING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK SATISFACTION AND FACULTY PERFORMANCE IN THE NIGERIAN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

Adeniji, A. A., Dr.
Falola, H. O., Doctoral Student
Salau, O. P., Doctoral Student
Covenant University, Nigeria

Abstract
Given the pivotal role that academics play in determining the efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of educational sector of the economy, coupled with the constant mobility of these highly skilled persons from one University to another, it is important to understand what motivates them, and the extent to which the University environment and other contextual variables affect their performances. Thus, the paper utilizes survey data collected from 558 faculties of selected private Universities in the Southwest Nigeria to find out the factors that will determine the work satisfaction of faculties and their impact on academic excellence, whether faculties leave based on their dissatisfaction with these factors. Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to analyze the relationships between the dependent and the independent variables. The results showed close association between the tested variables. The study stood as an eye opener to the management to ensure that existing benefits for academic staff are fairly, justly and competitively allocated to them as this affect their level of commitment and overall performance. Thus, we concluded that salary, package, organizational policies, work condition, social context of the job, as it relates to academic autonomy, relationship with academic colleagues, participation in decision making, promotional opportunities, etc will have positive effects on faculty’s commitment to their academic activities and subsequently impact on their performances.

Keywords: Satisfaction, Faculty, Performance, Private Universities
Introduction

The Nigerian universities could be classified according to their years of establishment thus: first, second, third and fourth generation universities. The first generation universities are the universities established in the country before the 1970’s. The second-generation universities are those universities established in the 1970’s. The third generation universities are those universities established either by the federal or state governments in the 1980’s and 1990’s, while the fourth generation universities are those universities established in the late 1990’s and 2000’s mainly by private individuals or organizations (Gberebie, 2006). Universities whether private or public are training grounds for students doing the comprehensive courses in order to translate theory into practice. They conduct training in all kinds of programmes or disciplines. Both government and private sectors fund public and private universities respectively.

Given the pivotal role that academics play in determining the efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of educational sector of the economy, it is important to understand what motivates them and the extent to which the organization and other contextual variables affect their performances.

Background of the Study

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

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

Job dissatisfaction has frequently been cited as the primary reason for a high turnover of academics (Kestetner, 1994) as well as increased rates of strikes and absenteeism (Shawa, Deierby and Abdulla, 2003) both of which impede efficiency and effectiveness, which in turn pose a threat to Universities’ (both public and private) capacity to provide good training
grounds for students and young academics as well as meet the nationals need of providing manpower to advance national development in both the public and private sector.

Gunter and Furnham (1996) state that work satisfaction can directly cause work outcomes that are either positive or negative. Positive work outcomes lead to productivity, satisfaction and motivation while negative work negative work outcomes lead to increased absenteeism, turnover and accidents. Thus, to prevents these negative work, there is need to find out what factors can lead to work satisfaction among academics in both public and private universities so as to continually have productive, satisfied and contended academics (Graham and Messner, 1998).

In addition, work satisfaction was found to be an important predictor of where academics (lecturers) intended to work (Tasnim, 2006). Work satisfaction is also an essential part of ensuring high quality education while dissatisfaction not only give poor quality and performance, also negative work outcomes that influence the behavior of academics within the university. A number of factors had been identified in literature as responsible for the extent to which dissatisfaction is associated with faculty job structure and compensation. The impact of these factors varied and are quite associated with faculty beliefs, management of factors and tolerance levels (Delery and Doty, 2006; Doty, Glick and Huber, 2003).

The search for identifying the causes of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is an ongoing area of interest for social scientists and managers. The premise being that satisfied workers will be more productive and remain within the organization longer, whereas dissatisfied workers will be less productive and more inclined to quit (Sarker, Crossman and Chinmette, 2003). Job satisfaction is one criterion for establishing the health of organization; rendering effective services largely depends on the human resource, (Fitzgerald, 1994 & Low, Cravens, Moncref and William 2001) and job satisfaction experienced by employees will affect their commitment, the quality of service they render and ultimately their performances. The effect of other variables on efficiency such as working conditions and internal relationships cum clear lines of communication is also widely recognized.

Job satisfaction has been defined as a positive emotional state resulting from the pleasure a worker derives from the job (Locke, 1976; Chert, 2001) and as the affective and cognitive attitudes held by an employee about various aspects of their work (Kalleberg, 1977; Wright and Cropanzano, 1997; Wong, Hui and Law, 1998); the latter implying that satisfaction is related to the component facets rather than the whole job, which is consistent with Spector’s (1997) views. While researchers and practitioners often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in
measuring different dimensions of satisfaction. Examination of these facet conditions is useful for a more careful examination of employee satisfaction with critical job factors. Traditional job satisfaction facets include; co-workers, salary package, working conditions, management style and leadership, supervision, nature of the work and benefits, (Williams, 2004).

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

There is also compelling evidence of a positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee social context in terms of boredom and frustration resulting from lack of support from the senior colleagues, unchallenging jobs, inadequate fringe benefits as expected in the working conditions, (Lum,Kervin, Clark, Reid and Sirola, 1998). They demonstrated a strong negative association between work satisfaction and stress, while Locke, (1976) showed that dissatisfaction led to boredom and frustration which resulted in physical, emotional and behavioural problems. This had been found to be important contributor to suboptimal academic performances of lecturers as well as constant mobility known as faculty turnover, (Shawa, Delerb and Abdulla, 2003).

Job satisfaction has been defined by two approaches: a global approach that encompasses overall attitudes, feelings and emotions towards their work experience (Crossman and Zaki, 2003), and a faceted approach that emphasizes employees’ attitudes towards individual aspects of their job which is more useful at determining specific areas for improvement (Shawa, Delerb and Abdulla, 2003).

There had not been enough empirical investigation that measures the relationship between work satisfaction and faculty performance in Nigeria. Most of the materials used are foreign sources, though there are few local studies undertaken but did not focus on this current topic. Researchers have found a complex relation between job satisfaction and performance but had not found out whether job satisfaction contributed to performance or whether performance contributed to job satisfaction (Bagozzi, 1980; Linz, 2002). Yousaf (1998) found out that there is a significant positive correlation not only between job satisfaction and job performance but also among job satisfaction and organizational commitment, meaning that the employees are
satisfied with their job, the greater will be their job performance and more likely to be committed to achieving organizational goals.

The relationship between work satisfaction and faculty performance at work is a field of continuous contrast and conflicting conclusions. Logically, it may make sense that happy worker can work more effectively but most of the available survey researches are not consistent with these. The only safe conclusion is that the efficiency of faculty is affected by a variety of factors among which is satisfaction, (Applebaum & Kamal, 2000). The cause and effect determinants are still not clear and cannot be assumed that work satisfaction leads to faculty high performance or that high performers are necessarily satisfied with their jobs, hence why this study. Thus, the objective of this study was to model a relationship between work satisfaction and faculty performance among academics and to examine variables influencing different aspects of job satisfaction. Scales combining multiple items were used to measure satisfaction with (a) autonomy, (b) relationship with academic colleagues, (c) support from superiors, (d) participation in decision making, (e) promotional opportunities, (f) clear lines of communication, combining to together to form the social context of the job; management and leadership styles, salary package, organizational/ personnel policies, work load, working conditions and suitable career ladder, all of which affect faculty’s commitment to their job and ultimately their performances. Many of the items and scales were developed by the researcher, while others were adapted from the literature.

Therefore, the proposed theoretical framework is depicted in figure 1.

Figure 1: The Study Theoretical Framework

Although international research varies in its specific findings, the general conclusions seem to support a sentiment of growing dissatisfaction experienced by academics around the world (Tasnim, 2006). Key dissatisfactors were found to include non-supportive work environments (Yousaf, 1998), lack of staff development activities which prevent personnel
from being equipped with knowledge and skill that they need in order to provide quality service and increased workload where lecturers are supposed to perform responsibilities which were supposed to be performed by other employees especially the non-academics; while important predictors of academics work satisfaction include autonomy, feedback from superior about performance, work content, professional development and recognition and relationship with peers and co-workers (Rottenbery and Moberg 2007). The literature on the subject demonstrates areas of commonality; it again highlights significant differences between different labour markets (Crossman and Zaki, 2003).

In Nigeria, academics were also found to be generally dissatisfied with their salary package, personnel policies, poor working condition and organizational climate, management and leadership style, while the social context of the job was found to be a strong predictor of satisfaction (Rottenbery and Moberg 2007).

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

When the server sees that his expectations are not met in the job environment, the job dissatisfaction emerges. It leads to the decrease in the workforce productivity, organizational commitment and commitment to the job and increase in the rates of the optional discontinuation of the job (Santhapparaj, Srini and Ling, 2005; Payne and Morrison, 2002; Redfern, 2005 and Denizer, 2008; Gellatly, 2005; Sagie, 2002). Besides, the medical conditions of the employees might be affected negatively. Lower job satisfaction in the servers has been observed to bring about neurotic (insomnia and headache) and emotional negativeness (stress, disappointment) (Denizer, 2008).

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

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

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

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

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

Some researchers separate job satisfaction into intrinsic and extrinsic elements where pay and promotions are considered extrinsic factors and co-workers, supervision and the work itself are considered intrinsic factors. Such an organizational structure is somewhat arbitrary; other structures were offered by Locke (1976), such as events or conditions versus agents (where agents are supervisors, co-workers and company or management), or work versus rewards versus context. Also, Rose (2011) viewed job satisfaction as a bi-dimensional concept consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction dimensions. According to her, intrinsic sources of satisfaction depend on the individual characteristics of the person including the ability to use initiative, relationship with superiors or the work the person actually performs which are the symbolic or qualitative facets of the job. On the other hand, extrinsic sources of satisfaction are situational and depend on the environment among which are pay/ salary package, promotion/ suitable career ladder, professional development and recognition, leadership/ management style, and autonomy. These she regarded as financial and material advantages of a job. Thus, she recommended that both intrinsic and extrinsic job facets should be represented as equally as possible in a composite measure of overall job satisfaction.

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

Despite these scattered efforts on job satisfaction among academic staff in the UK and Malaysia, there is a dearth of research on the subject interest in Nigeria, importantly in relation to academic job satisfaction, hence, why this study is considered necessary at this time. Most of the previous studies have made attempts to explain a worker’s job satisfaction as
a function of the individual’s personal characteristics and the characteristics of the job itself. Variables such as age, gender, marital and parental status, educational status, hours of work and earning figures were identified as key factors that determine job satisfaction of university teachers. Gender level in the organization and educational status are often included as individual characteristics in studies of job satisfaction, but no conclusive findings with regard to the levels of satisfaction of these academics (Oshagbemi, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1999; Oshagbemi, 2000; Klecker and Loadman, 1999).

Riketta (2002) conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance and found out that pay is an important aspect of job satisfaction. He also went further to clarify the combined effects of job satisfaction on turnover. Not only that, Rotenberry and Moberg (2007) found that employees that were more involved in their job were good performers compared to employees whose attitudes towards work are not good. In other words, that better attitude towards work resulted in enhanced performance.

Again, since the majority of researches on job satisfaction of academics had been undertaken in the UK and Malaysia, the extent to which research findings in these countries can be applied to Nigerian Universities (particularly the private institutions) remained unestablished. Thus, this paper attempts to address this gap in the literature. Therefore, based on the above theoretical findings, we come up with the following research questions and hypotheses as stated below;

**Research Questions**

a) What is the performance rating of a faculty (academics) respondents based on the seven domains; productivity, organizational commitment, commitment to the job, discontinuation of the job, occupational accidents, emotional negativeness?

b) What is the work satisfaction rating of the faculty (academics) respondents on the following job facets; salary package, personnel policies, working conditions, management leadership style, social context of the job, professional development and recognition, relationship with peers and co-faculty, suitable career ladder and clear lines of communication?

c) What are the factors that would determine the work satisfaction of faculties and their impact on academic excellence?

d) Do faculty leave a University based on satisfaction with salary package, suitable career ladder, management and leadership style, autonomy, relationship with peers and co-faculties and professional development?
e) Will work satisfaction lead to improved productivity, organizational commitment and commitment to the job?

f) Will dissatisfaction with one’s work result in discontinuation of the job, emotional stress occupational accidents and complaints?

Research Hypotheses
From the above stated research questions, we come up with the hypotheses stated in null forms:

a) There will be no positive significant relationship between the performance rating of a faculty and the seven domains, i.e. productivity, commitment to the job, etc.

b) There will be no positive significant relationship between the work satisfaction rating of a faculty and the ten job facets, i.e. personnel policies, working conditions, etc.

c) Factors like autonomy, salary package, etc. would not contribute to job satisfaction or impact on academic excellence of faculty.

d) Faculty leaving a University cannot be significantly described by dissatisfaction.

e) Work satisfaction will not lead to improved productivity, etc.

f) Dissatisfaction with one’s work will not result in discontinuation of the job, emotional stress occupational accidents and complaints.

The relationship between work satisfaction and faculty performance is statistically insignificant.

Methods
Data for the study came from a survey of academics in private Universities from the South-west, Nigeria. Survey method was adopted to gather responses from the respondents from the selected private universities in the southwest Nigeria. Out of four hundred (400) copies of structured questionnaire administered to the faculty members of the chosen private universities, two hundred and ninety three (293) copies were valid and adjudged suitable for this study, which translates to 73% response rate. The survey was restricted to only the faculty members irrespective of their present academic status ranging from graduate assistant (GA) to the full professorial cadre (Prof.). The main criterion for the restriction is based on the scope of the study, which deals mainly with the academia in the Nigerian private universities situated in the southwest geopolitical zone.

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

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

a. A pilot study (of the questionnaire) was conducted to establish the adequacy and reliability of the instrument in wording, content, question sequencing and bias. It is a way of providing ideas and to test the relevance of the instrument to the environment in which the academics are employed.

b. The unstructured interviews were conducted with the academic staff after the pilot study to ascertain that all the questions in the study are simple and easy to comprehend.

c. The final stage was the administration of the adapted questionnaire to a sample from private universities within the Southwest part of Nigeria.

Five-point Likert scale was used in the design of the questionnaire. There was no established number of categories that deemed optional for research scaling. In practice, scales of five categories are typical (Reichheld, 2003; Grigoroudis and Sikos, 2002). Also, Lassitz and Greche(1975) in an investigation of the effects of scale points on reliability, conclude that scale reliability increases with the number of intervals, five points or more being more reliable than 4, 3 or 2 points. For purification of scale, we used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in which the Non-factor Index (NFI), Confirmatory Factor Index (CFI), Standardized Root Mean Square Error (SRME), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the degree of freedom (df) were determined. This purification exercise revealed the degree of internal consistency and overall homogeneity among the items comprising the scales. It also showed the extent the model fits the data which depended on the loading of the items on the hypothesized constructs. The reliability of the factors was estimated by assessing the internal consistency of the scales by means of Cronbach’s alpha. The ultimate score that each academic received for each factor was based on the simple summation of the item scores for that measure. Mean factor scores at the lower end of the score range denote lower satisfaction with a particular facet, while higher scores denote satisfaction.

**Results and Discussion**

Five Private Universities were visited and all of them co-operated. In all, 580 copies of questionnaires were administered to these private Universities, but a total of 558 questionnaires were returned fully and appropriately filled. From the studied faculty members’ of these private
Universities (i.e. Covenant University, Bowen University, Babcock University, Bells University and Crawford University in Southwest, Nigeria.

This represents a response rate of 96.21%. An analysis of the questionnaires by total responses showed that Covenant University has the response rate of 137 (24.55%); Bowen University has 165 (29.57%); Babcock University has 68 (12.19%); Bell University has 61 (10.93%) and Crawford has 127 22.76%). Therefore the whole 558 questionnaires retrieved were used in the analysis of this study.

As indicated in Table 1, 71.3% of the respondents are males and 28.7% were males. This gender composition aligns with other statistical records that Nigerian academia is dominated by males (Gberevbie, Osibanjo, Adeniji, and Oludayo, 2014). Age classification of the survey shows that majority of the respondents fall within the age bracket of 26 – 60 years with 76.8 cumulative percent. However, 14.7% of the respondents were within 19 – 25 years; 38.2% were within 26 – 40 years; 38.6% were with 41 – 60 years; and 8.5% were 60 years and above. With reference to this survey, rank/position distribution of studied respondents indicates that 15.4 cumulative percent of the respondents were with the professorial cadre care, 14.0% were at the senior lecturer category, which is a middle level between professorial and lower cadres, while 70.6 cumulative percent represents the respondents at the lower cadre. However, this gap could be as a result of the career ladder requirements, which expects faculty members to have met before moving to the next level. Criteria such as residency (at least three years on each level); number of published articles in high impact journal outlets; and also post-doctoral degree qualification, and other factors could be responsible for inability of the faculty at the lower cadre to move as at when due. In addition, Nigeria being a growing economy tends to experience migration amongst the academia within the educational industry and outside the nation. Essentially, the data retrieved and analyzed for this survey may be regarded as a rich and adequate data set.

Table 1: Demographic Features of the Respondents

<table>
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<th>Freq.</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19 – 25</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>26 – 40</td>
<td>213</td>
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<td>38.2%</td>
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<td>41 – 60</td>
<td>215</td>
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<td>38.6%</td>
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<td>61 and over</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Rank/Position</td>
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<td>Professor</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
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<td>Reader</td>
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<td>5.8%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
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<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
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<td>14.0%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Lecturer I</td>
<td>Lecturer II</td>
<td>Assistant Lecturer</td>
<td>Graduate Assistant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>74</td>
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<td>Social</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>13.3</td>
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<td>Competitive</td>
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<td>23.2</td>
<td>19.1</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</table>

Source: Survey, 2013

Model Testing

Structural equation model analysis (SEM) was adopted for testing hypothesized relationship between the dependent and independent constructs of this survey. Model fit indices like Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Normed Fit Index (NFI); Relative Fix Index (RFI); Incremental Fix Index (IFI); Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); and CMIN indicated acceptable fit. As proposed by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007); Hu and Bentler (1999), the minimum benchmark value for these indices is 0.9, however, results revealed that all the fit indices are above the minimum value (NFI = .960; CFI = .965; IFI = .968). Therefore, the model can be concluded to be a good fit.

As depicted in figure 1, the model results show the regression between salary packages (sal_pkg); organizational policies (org_poli); working condition (work_cond); social context (social_contx); career ladder (career_lad); and leadership style (Leader_sty) on faculty commitment and performance; further depicted in figure is the correlation between the independent studied variables. All the variables tested under independent construct except social context (social_contx) have positive path coefficients as factors that tend to increase faculty commitment and performance. Expectedly, the effect of salary packages (sal_pkg) on faculty commitment was positive (path coefficient: .28). The regression weight for sal_pkg in the prediction of commitment is significantly different from zero at the 0.001 level. Therefore, when sal_pkg goes up by 1, faculty commitment goes up by 0.283. Similarly, the effect of organizational policies (org_poli) on faculty commitment was positive with path coefficient of .20 (p<001). Thus, when org_poli goes up by 1, commitment of faculty goes up by 0.204. Further, the regression weight for working condition (work_cond) in the prediction of commitment is significantly different from zero at the 0.01 level, in other words, when work_cond goes up by 1, faculty commitment goes up by 0.148. The regression weight for career ladder (career_lad) in the prediction for faculty commitment is significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (two tailed). Thus, when career_lad goes up by 1, commitment goes up by 0.108. The regression weight for leadership style (Leader_sty) in the prediction of commitment is not significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). When Leader_sty goes up by 1, commitment goes up by 0.019. In opposite direction, the effect of social context (social_contx) on
commitment was negative with path coefficient of -.01 (p<0.05). The regression weight for social_contx in the prediction of commitment is not significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level. When social_contx goes up by 1, faculty commitment goes down by 0.013. One would have expected the social interaction among the faculty to be a contributory factor to their commitment and subsequently their performance. However, the result was contrary to expectation.

Figure 1: Results of the Structural Model of the Data Collected

Further results of the SEM analysis show the correlation between the independent variables (sal_pkg; org_poli; work_cond; social_contx; career_lad; and Leader_sty). The results showed close association exists between the tested independent variables. Further, the covariance between sal_pkg and org_poli is estimated to be .500 (p<0.001); social_contx and career_lad is estimated to be .627 (p<0.001); career_lad and leader_sty is estimated to be .478 (p<0.001); social_contx and leader_sty is estimated to be .565 (p<0.001); org_poli and social_contx = .478 (p<0.001); sal_pkg and social_contx = .716 (p<0.001); sal_pkg and leader_sty = .728 (p<0.001); org_poli and leader_sty = .761 (p<0.001). Therefore, it is observed that salary packages, organizational policies, working conditions, career ladder, and leadership style have positive effects on faculty commitment, which tends to increase their performance (0.90, p<0.001), when commitment goes up by 1, the performance of faculty goes up by 0.093.
Managerial Implications and Conclusion

This study tends to assist the policy makers and administrators in the educational sector to understand better the effects of the tested independent variables (sal_pkg; org_poli; work_cond; social_contx; career_lad; and Leader_sty) on faculty commitment and performance. Also, it provides an insight for increasing faculty commitment, which tends to increase their performance. In addition, it assists policy makers and administrators understand the close association that exists between salary packages, organizational policies, working condition, career ladder, leadership style, commitment, and performance.

Not only that, the study provided insight for the management team in the area of personal career advancement that plans should be put in place for all categories of academic staff to ensure that they are given a fair opportunity to develop and should not practice favouritism when selecting staff for career advancement.

Also, the study stood as an eye opener to the management to ensure that existing benefits for academic staff are fairly, justly and competitively allocated to them as this affect their level of commitment and overall performance. Thus, we can conclude that salary package, organizational policies, work condition, social context of the job as it relates to academic autonomy, relationship with academic colleagues, participation in decision making, promotional opportunities and clear lines of communication; suitable career ladder and leadership style will have positive effects on faculty’s commitment to their academic activities and subsequently impact on their performances. This is in line with the submission of Marriner-Tomey (1998) who stressed that dissatisfaction within an organization is as a result of unclear lines of communication, inappropriate career ladder cum lack of promotional opportunities, poor work environment and uncooperative heads of departments/ units.

References:


