ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CEI: Centre for Emotional Intelligence

EC: Emotional competence

EI: Emotional intelligence

FGN: Federal Government of Nigeria

NPE: National Policy on Education

NUC: National University Commission

NCMoEI: Non-Cognitive Model of Emotional Intelligence

MMOEI: Mixed model of emotional intelligence

PAIC: Professional, Academic and Institutional Challenges

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

UNICEF: The United Nations Children's Emergency fund

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CHAPTER ONE
ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) face "fiercely competitive and ever-changing environments" with the challenge to "innovate or die" (Obendhain & Johnson, 2004:92). The increasing demands on HEIs can in part be attributed to what Omerzel, Biloslavo and Trnavcevic (2011:111) explain as a "radical shift from an industrial to a knowledge society, government's demand for usable knowledge and cost efficiency, demographic changes, market pressures from industry, internationalization of higher education, lifelong learning, the paradigm shift from teaching to learning, new technologies, and globalization." Similarly, the influx of students in tertiary education, as well as the escalating diversity of the student population in terms of academic preparedness (Smith, 2011) presents mounting pressure to a system which is supposed to "provide high quality programs and a high level of rigor in the process to produce a sufficient number of high quality graduates to meet the needs of the private and public sector jobs of the society" (Bandyopadhyay & Lichtman, 2007:803).

As universities reflect the societies that develop them (Smith, 2008) and faculties are often restructured and curricula adapted to reflect ensuing changes. Subsequently, university lecturers are subjected to professional, academic and institutional challenges (Ogu, 2008). Lecturers, who are the transmitters of knowledge and who act as the connection between the student and the institution (Steyn & Hartell, 2011), need to broaden and adapt their academic responsibilities to be in line with institutional expectations and challenges (Fredrickson, 2001). Executing these responsibilities often means prolonged working hours as well as additional duties which may not always correspond with their traditional job description. Lecturers often feel pressured to conform to specific requirements and expectations of their institutions in order to meet increasing demands. These added responsibilities could influence their stress levels, job satisfaction and their quality of life as academics therefore impacting negatively on the emotional intelligence of lecturers (Steyn & Hartell, 2011). Goleman (in Pfeiffer 2001) posits that a large number of human abilities fall within the emotional intelligence construct, including: frustration, tolerance, delay of gratification, motivation, zeal, persistence, impulse control, regulation of mood, ability to empathise, being attuned to others, hopefulness, and optimism. Omerzel *et al.* (2011:112) aptly argue that the greatest challenge to modern higher education institutions is to meet the needs of the academic staff who are not only developers,

users, and bearers of a high level of knowledge but also generators and learners of new knowledge.

In this study, the researcher examined the way Nigerian university lecturers cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges. She selected three universities using the category, Federal, state and private-based, with the major aim to examine the lived experiences of the lecturers so as to meet their present needs with regard to emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges. The investigation attempted to understand lecturers' abilities to recognise their own feelings and those of others and to explore how they manage their emotions and relationships with others (Goleman, 1999). Lecturers' abilities to master the skills of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management were explored extensively in this study. Furthermore, this study qualitatively sought to analyse the key factors (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management) that impact on the ways in which lecturers' emotional intelligence is adapted, changed or sustained in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

1.2   RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The underlying principle for engaging in this study was to examine, analyse and make known the way university lecturers adapt, change or sustain their emotional intelligence in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges. According to Barkhuizen and Rothman (2006:38) the roles of academia are changing from teaching and research, to include "acting as entrepreneurs, facilitators, marketers and managers." They further quote Fisher (1994) who remarks that such a "plethora of roles" may result in role overload – which is a "salient stressor for the modern academic" (Barkhuizen & Rothman 2006:38). Bandyopadhyay and Lichtman (2007:802) point out the importance of the academics in tertiary education when they call them "the most valuable resources" of a university, but on the contrary note that lecturers are "gradually losing their confidence, self-esteem and identity" (Bandyopadhyay & Lichtman, 2007:802). Unfortunately the literature does not provide evidence that the emotional intelligence of lecturers receives attention. Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1990) first coined the term "emotional intelligence" and view it as a "set of skills hypothesised to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and others, the effective regulation of emotion in oneself and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one's life" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:185). Their current writing on emotional intelligence emphasises four cognitive components: The capacity to perceive emotion, to integrate it in thought, to understand emotion, and to manage emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In this study, the researcher viewed emotional intelligence as a set of important skills that lecturers need to acquire in order to meet the demands and expectations of a system where the "core business is the development of human potential" (Bandyopadhyay & Lichtman 2007:803). In the light of the fact that the quality of teaching and learning is dependent on the outcome of lecturers' social interactions (Keltner & Haidt, 2001), intelligent processing and effective management of emotional information are necessary to navigate the social world, in this case being the university's environment (Keltner & Kring, 1998).

In Nigeria, universities are characterised by a lack of necessary facilities and resources in order to meet international standards (Ogu, 2008). Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) further maintain that the challenges faced by university lecturers in Nigeria include a lack of instructional resources, poor interpersonal relationships among staff (academic and non-academic) and also among students and the administration. The universities are also characterised by students' militancy on campus and an increase in student numbers that are deemed unmanageable. For example during the 1995/1996, 2000/2001 and 2002/2003 academic sessions, the student population in the University of Benin was 16281, 20364, and 24914 respectively (University of Benin, 2003). Consequently lecturers in contemporary Nigeria are constantly faced with a complex array of stressors while meeting the daily learning and behavioural needs of students (Ofoegbu & Nwadiani, 2006). These realities already caused Nwabueze (1995:8); 16 years ago to describe universities in Nigeria as "a cauldron, which continually emits vapours of social unrest and instability."

Based on the aforementioned, I decided to make a personal contribution through the investigation of emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges to gain knowledge to design an emotional intelligence model to promote lecturers' emotional intelligence competence. I, therefore, made a decision to qualitatively enter the world of academic lecturers to gain insight into their perception of professional, academic and institutional challenges. The quest to gain insight is related to the way emotional intelligence has helped in adapting, adjusting and sustaining the individual in the experience of these challenges. It is to give the lecturers the opportunity to narrate their experiences and to voice their opinions through their struggles to cope and adapt.

Ultimately, the aim is to develop an emotional intelligence model to promote and advance the emotional intelligence of lecturers. It is also to use the emotional intelligence model content to promote and motivate pragmatic readiness to act towards managing the challenges on the part of the lecturers and the government. The final idea is to create a teaching and learning environment that is emotionally literate and lecturer friendly. Hence, the main aim of this study

was therefore to investigate the ways in which lecturers' emotional intelligence was adapted, changed or sustained in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

In many countries of the world, there is an unusual similarity in challenges facing higher education institutions (HEIs) (Briggs, 2005; Machado, 2006; D'Ambrosio & Ehrenberg, 2007; Mohamedbhai, 2011; Glass, 2014), however, specific institutional challenges (Alabi, 2002; Alimba, 2009; Awuzie, 2012 Omoniyi, 2013) coupled with common challenges, influence lecturers' emotional intelligence. In this study, common and specific challenges have been grouped under professional, academic and institutional challenges. In Nigeria, these challenges include fluctuating budgetary allocation to education, inadequate working resources, perceptual differences, individual ambitions, role conflict, work overload, and partisan and nation-wide problems as well as massive decay of infrastructures due to overuse (Ogu, 2008; National University Commission, 2013). CIN (World Fact book, 2013) holds that poor budgetary allocation and exhaustion of facilities area a direct consequence of an increasing population of students enrolled in universities, doubling each year, putting incredible demands on available funds and existing structures. For instance, in 2012, the number of enrolled students was 1,700,000 compared to 15,000 in 1970. This situation causes the case of Nigerian tertiary education to be unique, when compared with other countries with smaller populations of enrolled students (Ajayi & Ekundayo, 2007; World Education News & Reviews (WENR), 2013).

A large body of evidence exists on the chronology of trade union strikes to compel the government to act and reduce the impact of these challenges on education and the lecturers (Onyeonoru and Bankole, 2001). In 2013, the National University Commission requested the consistency of trade union to call for warning of indefinite strikes (National University Commission, 2013). This made Nwabueze (1995:8) to assert that "our universities have become perhaps the most fertile ground for social unrest and indiscipline, resulting in their being closed down for long periods of time each year. Such periods witness unfortunate inevitable disruption of academic programmes and fall in the quality of education provided." The consequences of the challenges on lecturers were identified as putting untold pressure on academic staff, not only on lecturers but also their families (Ofoegbu & Nwadiani, 2006). Professional academic and institutional challenges have health consequences for lecturers; the unpublished record of many health centres and hospitals affirm there is an increase in the number of lecturers visiting (Durosaro, 2002). Zaidi (2014) maintains that a lack in working resources makes these lecturers rather vulnerable.

Apart from health consequence, studies have found that pressure is linked to open display of aggression amongst academic staff, depression and emotional disconnection (Cloud, 2005, Egbochuku, 2012). These emotions have severe damaging consequences on lecturers' health, because university management and stakeholders often undermine the implication of lecturers' well-being to the functioning of the institution (Olorode, 2000; Kinman, 2013). The emotional states of some lecturers are best described by Hudu (2015) as disheartened, disordered and confused. Hudu (2015) continues and describes the lecturers as individuals who cannot rely on the institutions to provide them with appropriate working resources to function, nor pay reasonable salaries to deal with their workload to enable them to afford basic necessities of life.

Consequently, the Nigerian university lecturers are being pressurised and become vulnerable due to professional, academic and institutional challenges. The consistency and continuity of the pressure has permeated almost the entire higher education institutions in Nigerian lowering quality of services offered, poor quality of educational products and frequent strikes actions as well as poor rating of Nigerian universities (Ogu, 2008). The pressure has conquered some lecturers and, as a matter of fact, made them helpless (Omoniyi, 2013). Strike actions have failed to motivate the government to find lasting solutions to higher education challenges and some universities' managements have failed to establish lecturer-friendly care and support centers. At present, emotional intelligence seems to be the most important option to avoid professional, academic and institutional challenges to escalate from an epidemic to become excessively pervasive. However, the major problem is that emotional intelligence and lecturers' coping strategies at Nigerian universities have been understudied; barely any study focuses on hearing their voice. The lecturer's voice relates to what coping strategies they apply to manage the challenges, why they apply the strategies and how they have helped. This is to determine if lecturers need to strengthen, enhance or develop emotional intelligence.

Lecturers need to be emotional intelligent to work successfully in an environment characterised with professional, academic and institutional challenges (Shahid, Jani, Thomas & Francis, 2015). Emotional instability in lecturers could lead to psychological and physical implications for well-being. This could further impact on the system effectiveness and productivity and reduce the application of high quality professional standard and expertise they were trained to offer. Increasing the emotional intelligence of lecturers is to protect and advance quality well-being to ensure that high-quality services are offered the students, the university and the nation, while waiting for the government to increase funding and provide important working resources. Developing, strengthening and improving the emotional competences of lecturers are to bring quality thinking style, behavioural style and proper emotional expression and display in the institutional environment. This is because lecturers interact and relate daily with students, colleagues and other university members in the course of their duty, very often more than other

units. Promoting and advancing emotional intelligence of lecturers should increase high-quality care and support to students and other university members. It will expand and prevent consistent violent behaviour that characterised most higher education institutions furthering improvement on the integrity of academic institutions marred by violence. It therefore means that emotional intelligence of lecturers is important for personal and social effectiveness of higher education institutions for high quality services and productivity in education.

Hence, this study intends to investigate the way lecturers apply emotional intelligence to manage professional, academic and institutional challenges. The primary aim of this study is to explore to understand the way emotional intelligence has helped lecturers to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves. To address professional, academic and institutional challenges demands collecting rich data for understanding and meaning-making from the perceived situation. Since Nigeria has three categories of universities namely federal, state and private-based, it is important to examine these three categories of universities, because they have different ownership structures and years of existence and experience. It is assumed that these diversities could provide rich deeper insight and information on the challenges and the lecturers' coping strategies. In this regard, I will present the research questions to guide and focus this study in the next section.

1.4   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question to guide this study is:

How do Nigerian university lecturers cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges posed to their emotional intelligence?

The following served as secondary research questions:

- How do Nigerian university lecturers perceive professional, academic and institutional challenges?

- What coping strategies do Nigerian university lecturers apply in managing professional, academic and institutional challenges?

- What impact do these professional, academic and institutional challenges have on lecturers' emotions?

- What will the key elements of an emotional intelligence model be for Nigerian University lecturers?

1.5   AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aims and objectives of this study are:

- To investigate the perception of lecturers in professional, academic and institutional challenges;

- To investigate the coping strategies lecturers use in managing professional, academic and institutional challenges;

- To investigate the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on lecturers' emotions;

- To identify the key elements of emotional intelligence from the findings of the study for designing an emotional intelligence model for Nigerian universities; and

- To make recommendations from the findings on meeting the emotional intelligence needs of the lecturers within the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

1.6   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The basic assumptions of the study are:

- University lecturers experience professional, academic and institutional challenges;

- University lecturers have diverse perceptions of professional, academic and institutional challenges;

- University lecturers apply coping strategies to manage the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges;

- University lecturers still experience impacts on emotions despite the coping strategies; and

- There is a need for key elements for emotional intelligence education and training for university lecturers.

1.7   CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.7.1   EMOTIONS

Salovey and Mayer (1990:2) assert that emotions can be viewed as organised responses, which typically arise in response to an event, either internally or externally, that have a positive or negative valence for an individual and they were of the first researchers to link emotions to intelligence because of its cognitive attributes. Goleman (1995:34) refers to emotion as "feeling and its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and range of propensities to act" While Bar-On (1995) explains this concept as: "An array of non-cognitive abilities, capabilities and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". Feldman (2000) refers to the fact that emotions have both physiological and cognitive elements, which in turn may influence behaviour. Different kinds of emotions have been identified by Zembylas (in Roux, 2011), namely negative emotions such as anger, frustration, confusion, boredom, isolation, and positive emotions such as engagement and excitement. These definitions imply that emotions are feelings that people experience, interpret and reflect on, and are actively involved in (Delport, 2009).

In this study, the researcher viewed emotions as data provided to the human brain from events occurring in a personal and social environment to motivate pragmatic action, either positive or negative, to cause an end to the assumed impact from the events leading to the creation of data.

1.7.2   INTELLIGENCE

Although many theories regarding intelligence exist, Shepard Fasko and Osborne (2002:119) note that scholars in general agree that the basic conceptual definition of intelligence entails the overall capacity for learning and problem solving, as well as the ability to adapt to and reshape one's environment. Wechsler defined intelligence already in 1958 as the ability of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment. Pfeiffer (2001) complements this viewpoint by explaining that individuals act intelligently, not only when they successfully adapt or react to the environment, but also when they shape and change their existing environment to meet their needs. Wakeman (2006:71) argues that traditional views of intelligence neglect important mental abilities, such as the ability to read social cues or to make accurate social inferences. The publication of Daniel Goleman's bestselling book, *Emotional intelligence*, popularised the notion that emotions are a valid domain of intelligence (Pfeiffer, 2001). For the purpose of this study, intelligence is the ability to handle challenges in the personal and professional environment as well as the impact on individuals within the environment.

1.7.3   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Salovey and Mayer (1990:2) define this construct as "the ability to monitor individual and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions." Goleman (1995:34) explains emotional intelligence as abilities such as "being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's mood and keep distress from swamping the ability to think, to empathize and to hope". Moore (2009:20) considers emotional intelligence (EI) as "a valuable predictor of job performance" and asserts that people who are skilful in dealing with emotions have a high level of emotional intelligence. According to Nelson and Low (2003) EI is the single most important influencing variable in personal achievement, career success, and leadership as well as life satisfaction. They feel that an emotionally fit person would be able to identify, understand, experience, and express human emotions in a healthy and productive way (Justice & Espinoza, 2007:456). For the purpose of this study, EI is defined in terms of the presence of the following factors: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman, 1995).

1.8   LITERATURE REVIEW

Higher education institutions contribute to national and international development through teaching, research and engaging in community activities by the lecturers. Most institutions work with limited resources because of unavailability of required resources resulting in lecturers to experience many challenges (Ogu, 2008; Omerzel, Biloslavo & Trnavcevic, 2011). The challenges that lecturers experience can be grouped into three domains, namely professional, institutional and academic. To contextualise this study, the challenges that lecturers were confronted with, will be introduced as well as the domains of emotional intelligence.

1.8.1   THE PROFESSIONAL CHALLENGES OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

When exploring professional challenges, it is important to first define a profession. The Oxford English Dictionary (1989) states that a profession is "the occupation which one professes to be skilled in and to follow (a) a vocation in which a professed knowledge of some department of learning or science is used in its application to the affairs of others, or in the practice of an art founded upon it and (b) in a wider sense: any calling or occupation by which a person habitually earns his living." The word "professes" is important, because in this way a professional becomes dedicated to service. Similarly Wise (2005: 320) defines a profession as "an occupation that regulates itself through systematic, required training and collegial discipline, that has a base in technical, specialized knowledge; and that has a service rather than profit orientation". This author further argues that the foundation of a strong profession is a shared

body of knowledge, based on research, and public confidence that professionals are fit to practise.

Boles and Troen (2005:18) highlight the following characteristics of a profession: rigorous educational standards and required skills, and professional development integral to the career. It requires the command of a body of knowledge or skills, which in the academic domain constitutes skills relating to research, teaching and community service. Professional challenges subsequently are mainly seated within these three domains of the academic profession. In this regard, Levine (1997:2) notes that the academic profession has changed considerably in the past few years and attributes these changes to:

- the changing attitudes and demands of higher education's patrons;

- the changing characteristics of tertiary students;

- the changing conditions of employment in higher education;

- the rise of new technologies; and

- the growth of private-sector competitors.

Most of the impetus for change is coming from sources outside the academy, over which higher education has little control. It is viable to borrow from studies on changes from outside the academy on institutional challenges such as the United Kingdom, USA and Australia. Authors such as Sharrock (2000); Winter and Sarros (2002); Chandler, Barry and Clark (2002); Brown and Humphreys (2006); Churchman (2006) and Szekeres (2006) as well as Deem, Hillyard and Reed, (2008) also Staley and Trinkle (2011) identify the growing diversity of higher education in relations to meet the competitive educational programmes offered to the public by organisations for personal profit. Staley and Trinkle (2011) further identify the growing need to transform the education curriculum to adapt to life skills as the ability to write in communicative language using verbal expressions, social skills and the ability to accommodate individual and cultural diversities. There is a renewed focus on societal pressure underscoring the responsibility for education to meet the human capacity needs of private and public sectors of the economy. Another study identified the societal call for free higher education as change that could further destroy the quality, equity and accessibilty to higher education and increase the debt of institutions if the policy is passed (Cloete, 2016). Apart from policy issues, Stauffer and Oliff (2015) argue that inability of the federal and state government to adequately fund higher education is an outside source which the academy has little control over.UNESCO (2009), in a conference on Higher Education, has pointed out that "higher education is entering a period of crisis unprecedented since World War II" (Smith, 2011:51).

For the purpose of this study professional challenges in the areas of teaching, research and community service, which are the main tasks of the academic profession (Davidovich & Sharloin, 2008), are focused on.

1.8.2 THE ACADEMIC CHALLENGES OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

According to Oxforddictionaries.com, the concept 'academic' relates to education and scholarship, or an educational or scholarly institution, but it specifically refers to a person interested in or excelling at scholarly pursuits and activities. Challenges in this regard are therefore experienced within the scholarly realm of the university which may impact research, teaching and learning. In this regard money plays a major role. Taylor and Stanton (2009:93) and also Bland (2008:232) refer to the decline in state funding of public institutions and on the other hand the "enormous growth in for-profit institutions" (Bland, 2008:232) which indirectly exerts more pressure on academics to publish and to become financially self-sufficient in their academic endeavours. Taylor and Stanton (2009) assert that public institutions are re-examining the roles of academics and work conditions to find ways both to decrease the costs of faculties and to enable them to generate more money, thus replacing decreased public funding.

Another challenge relating to the academic domain resides in the "massification" of universities, where more and more students are being accepted and enter higher institutions with a focus on "convenience, quality, service, and cost" (Levine, 1997:2). The author continues to say that the current student population is much more aware of their rights and belief that "since they are paying for their education, faculty should give them the education they want, and they make larger demands on faculty than students in the past ever have" (Levine, 1997:2).

Another academic challenge facing lecturers refers to the diversity of the student population in terms of their academic preparedness for higher education. There are increasing expectations that lecturers should become more relevant in their teaching as to accommodate this diversity. Cultural relevant teaching has received a lot of attention in academic research. Grant and Gillette (2006:262) identify these as:

- Believing that all students can achieve and hold high expectations for all students;

- Knowing that students have a wealth of skills and knowledge and using these in teaching; and

- Being willing to be introspective about themselves and their teaching, monitoring their beliefs and actions for bias and prejudice, and being unafraid to teach about the "-isms."

Wise (2005) argues that the focus in tertiary education is moving from teaching (what the lecturer does in the lecture hall) to learning (what students get out of their classes). The emphasis is moving from courses and credits (process) to what students achieve as a result of tertiary education (outcomes). Levine (1997) maintains that the state is demanding greater accountability from higher education, and that the burden is resting increasingly on the shoulders of the lecturer. This author also mentions additional academic challenges such as the cutting of costs around the edges, making across-the-board budget cuts, imposing hiring freezes and deferring maintenance. Levine (1997:3) concludes that: "the stated goal is to preserve institutional quality, staff morale, and student access".

1.8.3 THE INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Herbst (2007) maintains that in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) the current emphasis is on institutional effectiveness, efficiency and responsiveness, factors that subsequently drive the expectations of university management with regard to its academic staff members. Ladebo and Oloruntoba (2005) assert that occupational stressors that academics face include physical attributes of the job, including noise, temperature and lighting in the workplace; relationships at work; one's role in the organisation, including role conflict, ambiguity and insufficiency; organisational structure and climate; homework interface; career development; and factors intrinsic to the individual, including personality type, age, gender and disability. They identify the following:

- Philosophical rules of the institutions: The role of the institutions is to apply the ethical guidelines of the tertiary education and specific institutions to handle challenges as they emerge (UNESCO, 1998: Article 2:59 a & b on Ethical role). This means there are greater challenges as institutions enrol students and employ lecturers from the diverse socio-cultural environment;

- Pragmatic-readiness: This refers to practical readiness to take action to handle challenges as they emerge within the system. In the case of institutions, there is low application of the experience of lecturers to solve problems after mapping out the consequences (Stone, 2011), leading to consistence in repeat of experience such as strike actions by academic trade union; and

- Life skills or emotional intelligence awareness: The role of institution is to create an enabling environment for academe to function productively (Aluede, 2007). Most academics express dissatisfaction with the increasing pressure to produce quality with limited resources (ThisDay, 2012). However, there is evidence of low life skills such as emotional intelligence amongst lecturers result in experience intense emotions (Egbochuku, 2012).

On the other hand, Robbins and Coulter (2015) identify a number of sources of workplace-based stresses that could be experienced by lecturers, such as:

- Role overload: this refers to having to do too many things and having too many roles to play in the work situation. In the case of academics, the pressure to publish in accredited publications, is added to a teaching workload and in some cases managerial/administrative work places greater demands on academics; and

- Working conditions: For academics this could mean larger classes, a greater administration load and the integration of different learning approaches due to the diversity of students' learning styles.

Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008) identify several key stressors commonly associated with stress among academic staff. These include work overload, time constraints, lack of promotion opportunities, inadequate recognition, inadequate salaries, changing job roles, inadequate management and/or participation in management, inadequate resources and funding, and student interaction. For the purpose of the study, the above challenges were taken into consideration in the literature review, data collection and analysis.

1.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research study adopted Bronfenbrenner's system of ecological systems (1979) and Goleman's Emotional Intelligence-based theory of Performance (1998).

1.9.1 BRONFENBRENNER'S ECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS THEORY

Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory looks at the interaction of an individual within systems named the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, chronosystem (Paquette & Ryan 2001). Bronfenbrenner's theory states that the interaction between factors within an individual, the environment and the societal landscape fuels and steers individual development. Changes or conflict in any one layer will ripple throughout other layers. A key feature of ecological models is that they incorporate two or more analytical levels, e.g. personal, organisational and societal and permit researchers to examine both individual and aggregate manifestations of health problems and impacts of community interventions (Stokols, 1995:287).
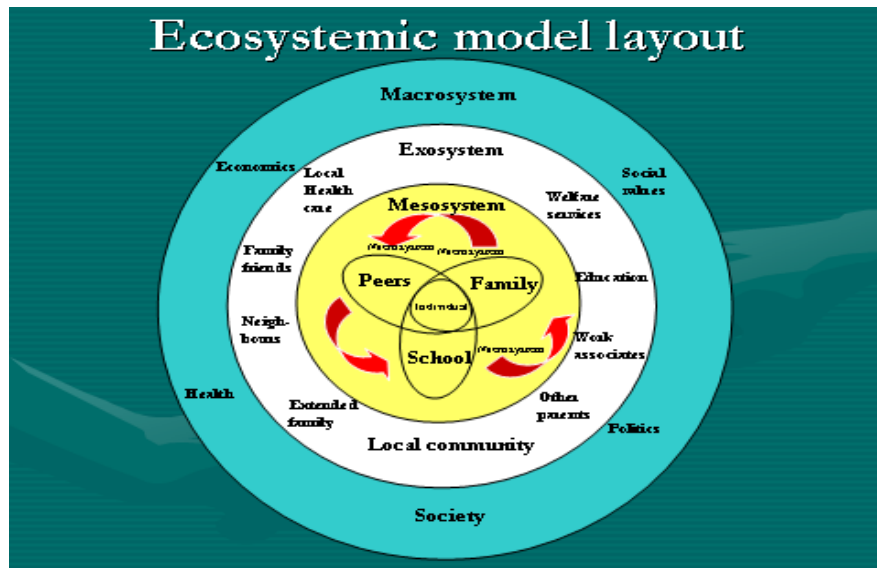
Figure 1.1: Ecosystemic model layout (Swart & Pettipher, 2005:11)

1.9.1.1 The microsystem

The microsystem encompasses the relationships and interactions individuals have with their immediate surroundings (Berk, 2000). Bronfenbrenner's micro-system is the first domain of emotions and it is believed that it is where an individual spends a good deal of time engaging in activities and interactions (Paquette & Ryan, 2001). Since, the lecturers spend most of their time in the microsystem, it implies the microsystem denotes a system of experience of pressure. In this study, the microsystem focuses on experiences of professional, academic and institutional challenges that impact on emotional intelligence in their immediate environment, which includes: the university, faculty and departments.

1.9.1.2 The mesosystem

The mesosystem comprises the connections and processes that take place between two or more settings containing the developing person, such as the relations between the home and the university (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). For the purpose of this study the mesosystem (which is a set of microsystems associated with one another) includes factors such as the relations between the lecturer and the institution, the institution and the home, the lecturer and students and the lecturer and colleagues.

1.9.1.3 The exosystem

Bronfenbrenner (1979) defines this system as the larger social system in which the lecturer does not function directly. The structures in this layer impact the lecturer's development by interacting with some structures within the microsystem (Berk, 2000). For the purpose of this

study, the exosystem places emphasis on the context in which lecturers do not participate directly but that have an impact on the functioning of lecturers, such as the university policy, rules and regulations and student numbers.

1.9.1.4   The macrosystem

Bronfenbrenner (1993:39) defines the macrosystem as an overarching pattern of microsystem, mesosystem, and exosystems characteristic of a given culture or subculture, with particular reference to belief systems, bodies of knowledge, material resources, customs, lifestyles, opportunity structures, hazards, and life course options that are embedded in each of these broader systems. This implies that the macrosystem is a blueprint for a particular societal culture or subculture (Bronfenbrenner, 1993:40). This layer may be considered the outermost layer in the lecturer's environment. This layer comprises cultural values, customs, and laws (Berk 2000). In this study, the macrosystem also represents the institutions' culture, customs and policies.

1.9.1.5   The chronosystem

According to Bronfenbrenner (1993:40) the chronosystem "encompasses change or consistency over time not only in the characteristics of the person but also of the environment in which that person lives (e.g. changes over the life course in family structure, socioeconomic status, employment, place of residence, or the degree of hecticness and ability in everyday life." For the purpose of this study, the chronosystem will refer to the historical development of professional, academic and institutional challenges and the impact of the experiences on the lecturers.

1.10   CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

The theoretical framework for this study was adapted from Goleman's emotional intelligence theory of performance (2011). In his work *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998), Goleman developed a framework of Emotional Intelligence (EI) that reflects how an individual's potential for mastering the skills of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management translates into on-the-job success. This model is based on EI competencies that have been tested in internal research at hundreds of corporations and organisations to distinguish outstanding performers. The emotional intelligence theory of performance posits that each of the four domains of emotional intelligence self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management derives from distinct neurological mechanisms that distinguish each domain from the other and all four from purely cognitive domains of ability. Emotional intelligence, at the most general level, refers to the ability to

recognise and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others (Primal Leadership, 2002). These four domains of emotional intelligence are the major focus of this study and will be discussed next.

1.10.1   SELF-AWARENESS

According to Goleman (1995), self-awareness includes awareness of emotions, accurate self-assessment and confidence and maintains that self-awareness is the foundation of personal growth and success. Daniel Goleman (1995:42) calls it the 'keystone' of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998) defines self-awareness as the ability to recognise emotions and to know one's strengths and limits as well as becoming self-aware in terms of understanding oneself. Goleman (1998) furthermore explains emotional awareness as being able to recognise emotions that you experience, understand the feelings associated with the emotion, and understand what you think and do as a result. Lama (2011) expands this definition by stating to have greater self-awareness or understanding means to have a better grasp of reality (Lama, 2011).

Lecturers with self- and emotional awareness are equipped to raise their level of performance, both at work and in their personal lives (Nelson & Low, 2011). Self-awareness enables reduction of levels of stress and increase levels of self-confidence (Goleman, 2004). Moreover, the study of Jordan and Troth (2004) reports that teams that comprise of members possessing high emotional intelligence, tend to display superior task performance skills when they are compared to teams made up of emotionally less intelligent members. Self-awareness as part of emotional intelligence, therefore, makes lecturers better team members and increases their level of impact on the university.

1.10.2   SELF-MANAGEMENT

Self-management entails realising what is behind an emotion and what triggers this emotion and thereby learning ways to handle the accompanying feeling (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002). Self-management includes emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement orientation, initiative and optimism (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002). In this regard Dattner (2011) asserts that emotional self-control entails keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check and explains transparency as maintaining integrity and acting congruently with one's values. Adaptability entails handling flexibility in change (Dattner, 2011). Achievement orientation involves striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence. Initiative involves readiness to act on opportunities; lecturers with initiative competence seek out fresh ideas from a wide variety of sources, entertain original solutions to problems, generate new ideas and take fresh perspectives and risks in their thinking. Optimism entails persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks (Dattner, 2011). Heskett (2006:1) goes further

saying that self-management is "a leadership decision that invites initiative and not followership", implying that self-management encourages mentoring, coaching and learning conversation to create a clear picture of actions characterised with optimism and possible results.

1.10.3 SOCIAL AWARENESS

Social awareness refers to how well or inadequately people express personal feelings (Goleman, 1995). Dattner (2011) explains it as the ability to take another person's viewpoint into consideration, to show empathy and compassion to others' feelings and to listen to others, and link this concept to empathy, which he explains as the sensing of others' feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns. Developing awareness of others entails sensing what others need in order to develop, and bolstering their abilities. Organisational awareness involves reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships (Dattner, 2011).

1.10.4 RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

According to Nelson and Low (2011), relationship management includes aspects of developing others, influential power, negotiation, conflict management, farsighted leadership, catalytic change and linking the building of teamwork. Successful relationship management translates into success in the workplace. Goleman (2001) maintains that this skill increases the ability to analyse and understand relationships, resolve conflicts and negotiate disagreements, and solve problems in relationships. Good relationship management involves being assertive and skilled at communication, concerned and considerate, pro-social and harmonious in groups, sharing, cooperating and helping, and being more democratic in dealing with others (Goleman, 2001).

Goleman (2001) further asserts that these emotional competencies themselves represent the degree to which individuals have mastered specific skills and abilities that build on emotional intelligence and allow them greater effectiveness in the workplace. This involves the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships and relate well to others. In this regard, Miranda (2011) postulates that mutual satisfaction describes significant social interactions that are potentially satisfying and pleasant for those concerned, and furthermore states that relationship management is associated with the desire of improving friendly reactions with others, feeling at ease and contented in such relationships and possessing positive expectations concerning such relationships. Bar-On (1997) is of the view that it is based on sensitivity towards others, a desire to establish relations as well as feeling satisfied with relationships.

In this study, these domains of emotional intelligence will be explored extensively since modern organisations, which includes Higher Educational Institutions constantly strive towards improving performance; thereby recognising that objective and measurable benefits can be derived from higher emotional intelligence (Serrat 2009). Evidently, the criteria for success at work are changing too. Staff members are now judged by new yardsticks: not just by how smart they are, or by their training and expertise, but also by how well they handle themselves and one another (Goleman, 2004). These interpersonal and intrapersonal skills are strongly influenced by personal qualities such as perseverance, self-control, and skill in getting along with others. Increasingly, these new yardsticks are being applied when a choice has to be made about who will be hired and who will not, who will be retrenched and who will be retained, and who will be passed over or promoted. Emotional intelligence may be the (long-sought) missing link that unites conventional "can do" ability determinants of job performance with "will do" dispositional determinants. Modern universities are searching for means to create and manage a working environment of flexibility, responsibility, standards, rewards, clarity, and commitment (Goleman in Serrat, 2009). Emotional intelligence generally could impact on ways of dealing with challenges, especially now that there is an increased call for team-based collaboration, participatory research and networking across universities, countries and cultures (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2009).

1.11   THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology is a fixed plan for handling problems. Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2013) define a research methodology as "… a science of studying how research is to be carried out." The procedures that researchers use to go about their work to describe, explain and predict phenomena, all form an integrative part of the research methodology. In this study, the researcher considered the following aspects pertaining to research methodology viz.: research design, research paradigm and research methods,

1.11.1   RESEARCH PARADIGM

According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:47) a paradigm defines the belief or assumptions on the way the world view a circumstance or a situation. A paradigm determines the process of research, the research questions and the structure of the questions and the procedure for data analysis as well as interpretation (Kuhn, 1997). There are many types of paradigms, namely interpretivism, positivism, and critical theory. An epistemology based on the interpretative paradigm was adopted to help "understand the subjective world of human experience" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005:23) implying that this study adopted an interpretivist paradigm.

1.11.2   RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

According to Creswell (2012:20) research design refers to "the specific procedures involved in the research process: data collection, data analysis and report writing." Merriam (2002:3-4) points out that a qualitative research design involves interviewing individuals in the natural environment to gather information about lived experience to promote accurate interpretation to resolve the problem under study. The researcher therefore utilised the qualitative research design to explore and understand the societal model of constructing reality (Butler, 2010) to get a true reflection of the state of affairs by utilising an approach that is effective and revelatory.

Creswell (2012:20) defines research design as "the specific procedures involved in the research process: data collection, data analysis and report writing". The research design is the plan through which I will address the research questions and generate data. This involves the research process, approach, procedures and sampling methods (McMillian & Schumacher 2001:74). The researcher considered qualitative research, because it has the capacity to generate data that have richness and depth to clear the complexity associated with the phenomenon under study (Denzin & Lincoln 2000:10; Flick *et al.,* 2004:3; Mason 2002:1). In this regard, I used a qualitative case design to enable me to understand and answer the questions of what, why and how emotional intelligence is vital in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities. The use of a case study is also motivated by its suitability to the study; according to Punch (2009:123) a case study is appropriate in a study with low, fragmented, inadequate or non-existent phenomenon.

1.11.3   RESEARCH TYPE: MULTIPLE CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

The multiple case study analysis refers to an approach that scrutinises the intensive data collected for the study in qualitative research through matching similar words, building explanations, time-series analysis, reasoning models and combining these with the aim to enrich the corpus of knowledge incorporating larger sets of cases (Gerring, 2004; Perry, 2004, Yin 2003; Stake, 2005). The idea is to add value through reassurance and confirmation that the key concepts are included (Burns, 2012:1). The justification for using this research type is to understand the nature of professional, academic and institutional challenges. Further, it is to ensure that the knowledge of reality is conceptualised in familiar ways and that trustworthiness in relationship to coping with emotional intelligence is attained.

Another reason for using the multiple case study analysis is to ensure that the way the challenges impact on lecturers across the university types are not misinterpreted, overemphasised or trivialised through triangulation and member-checking.

I made sure that I asked similar questions to elicit information on their experiences with differences in probing questions based on each participants' answers. I did this to add value to

the study findings through insider (participants that experience the challenges) and outsider (the researcher that intends to construct meaning out of the experience) routined and natural interaction (Stake, 2005; Burns, 2012). In sum the multiple case study analysis facilitates obtaining in-depth information on emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

1.11.4 SAMPLING

Since this study followed a qualitative method. I decided to utilise the phenomenological approach as the most suitable for exploring to understand the professional, academic and institutional challenges which lecturers experience to impact their emotional intelligence. According to Gubrium and Holstein (2000) applying the phenomenological approach will help to improve the understanding of the way in which lecturers perceive and experience professional, academic and institutional challenges at the universities in Nigeria.

1.11.5 RESEARCH SITES AND PARTICIPANTS

I used sampling procedures involving a selection of universities. The research sample for this study was twofold. The first sample involved the selection of the research site. The second sample involved the selection of the participants to the study from the research site. I commence this subsection with a discussion on the aspect of the research site. In this study, research sample and sampling are of vital importance, because they are a tool for the selection of information and involve participants that enable valid and reliable results. In Chapter 4, I present and discuss the sample and sampling approach which I utilised to select the research site and research participants. The aim of sampling is to facilitate the selection of participants that provides rich relevant information required to answer the research questions.

1.11.5.1 Research sites

The research sites for the study were purposively selected from the three types of universities in Nigeria namely federally-owned universities, state-owned universities and privately-owned universities. From the federal category, the researcher selected university A because it is one of the oldest universities in Nigeria and it is located in a safe environment and the location is easily accessible by road. In the state-owned category, I selected university B because it is a young state university but has achieved tremendous success within a short time. In the private category, I selected university C because it is also a young private university and it is growing fast. I considered these three universities with the assumption that the combination would provide good insight for this study. Hence, I considered these three participant universities coded as: University A for the federal university; University B for the state university and

University C for the private university as capable of providing relevant information within Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory. I also considered them capable to contribute to knowledge construction and to enable me to establish constructively how lecturers perceived professional, academic and institutional challenges, the impact and coping strategies. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:172) assert that:

"To address a research question or hypothesis, the researcher engages in a sampling procedure that involves determining the location or site for the research, the participants who will provide data in the study and how they will be sampled, the number of participants needed to answer the research questions, and the recruitment procedures for participants."

1.11.5.2 Participants

Concerning the research sample, permission was obtained to extend an open invitation via the faculty's intranet to all lecturers within the universities to participate in the study. I purposively selected twelve participants from the three chosen universities, four from each university comprising of equal numbers of male and female participants. The logic and power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases (Patton, 1990) to increase the quality of the data collected.

1.11.5.4 Role of the researcher

My role included the following: being both an interviewer and tape recorder (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:310; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:435). I was aware that my role dictated the progress of the study and that the success of the study depended on the level of trust and acceptance that I achieved with the participants (Chabilall, 2004:21). It was important that I should keep in mind that the qualitative research of participants' emotional intelligence involved sensitive experiences of the participants.

1.12   DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

This study followed a qualitative approach and the data collection strategies that were used also involved the principles of a qualitative study. The human experience is vital and using various ethical approaches to gain information concerning the experiences, helps to solve the problems under study (Polkinghorne, 2005). Polkinghorne (2005) posits that qualitative research aims at describing and clarifying human experiences as perceived and narrated by the people. Creswell (2012) explains that qualitative research uses many approaches to ask questions to get information on human experiences. According to Snape and Spencer (2012:45) qualitative data collection entails generation of data through the narrative accounts, interviews and focus groups

on the phenomena under study. The aim of the data collection strategies is to generate fundamental information on the problem focused on that help to draw conclusions (Monette, Sullivan & De Jong, 2005:9). According to Sarakikaya (2014) the data collection strategy must align with research purpose and must be suitable to assist in answering research questions of the study. This idea is supported by Seidman (2006:110) that the data collection strategy must be related to the purpose of the study, research questions and researcher's competence. In this study, semi-structured interviews were used as data collection strategy instruments and they are discussed in the next section.

1.12.1 INTERVIEWS

Interviews provided the conversation for detailed understanding of the emotional experience resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges. An interview is the art of asking questions and listening to get answers (Denzin & Lincoln 2000:633). A qualitative interview, according to Creswell (2012:217), occurs when a researcher asks one or more participants general open-ended questions. These are then recorded as their answers. Qualitative interviews provide deeper insight into the participants' experience of the social world (Bryman, 2012: 471). As a qualitative researcher, I engaged in conducting interviews as method of inquiry. I limited my data collection strategy to semi-structured interviews for deeper search into the lecturers' experiences.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:649) in semi-structured interviews, the interviewer asks all respondents the same series of pre-established questions. Goleman's emotional competences were adapted as pre-established questions to and participants were asked probing questions to understand the deeper meaning the participants were trying to communicate. The questions were asked in similar style to all the participants with differences in probing questions, because of the answers given by each participant (De Vos, 1998: 299). The researcher used an audio tape recorder and took notes during the interview process with the permission of the participants.

1.12.2 FIELD NOTES

According to Creswell (2012:141) there is need to obtain permission from individuals and institutions before engaging in data collection, implying that the researcher must establish connection at research sites before selecting research participants. Backed by Creswell's (2012) suggestion, I was connected to the research site with the help of personal contacts, implying that the method of entry into the research site and connection with the research participants were very easy, because I knew individuals from previous encounters. As a result of this connection to research participants, I was able to navigate through dialogue and persuasions using the objectives of the study.

The concept of existing network defines personal contacts that provided supportive entry into the research site resulting to the building of strong relationship at the research site and with the research participants without resistance. The involvement of existing networks in the study is to use strong personal contacts to connect to participants with needed valued information for deeper understanding of emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in tertiary education (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007). In this study, the existing network refers to individuals known to me but who had personal contacts that helped in creating connections and relationships to direct and advance the fieldwork in the study. This implies that I was able to communicate and connect with the help of previous known contacts. I managed to obtain collaboration of research participants so as to generate data with the use of semi-structured interviews and field notes.

1.13   DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Data collection and analysis are firmly interwoven processes and must occur alternately, because analysis directs the sampling of data (De Vos, 1998:271). The process of data analysis involves classification, organisation, recording and interpretation of data. The cross-checking of interviews inevitably implies content analysis and to evaluate key words, meanings, symbols, themes or messages which were communicated during the interviews (Low, 2009:18). The procedure for data interpretation was guided by Goleman's emotional competence (Goleman, 2004). I ensured that the data analysis and interpretation followed strategies that could enhance the trustworthiness of the findings. Trustworthiness is discussed in the next section.

1.14   TRUSTWORTHINESS

According to Bryman (2012) trustworthiness is a major yardstick for ensuring that the researcher understands the social world of the participants as perceived and narrated by them. Trustworthiness may be described as a measure of honesty and quality applied in the

development and application of a research tool (Silverman, 2004). Trochim, (2001) explains that the production of any ethically approved research entails obtaining trustworthy information with the use of diverse instruments in any meaningful research. According to Cohen et al. (2005:105) trustworthiness is attained by "honesty, depth, richness, scope of data achieved, participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterest or objectivity of the researcher." According to Guba and Lincoln (1994:114) honesty in a qualitative study is determined by four pointers such as credibility, transferability dependability and confirmability. I tried to achieve trustworthiness by applying the principles of credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability.

1.14.1 CREDIBILITY

Credibility refers to the extent to which the quality of the research is valid and reliable by investigating what it set out to investigate (Silverman, 2000). According to Merriam (2002:6) "credibility deals with the question: How congruent are the findings with reality." The question of harmonisation of the research outcome with the real world is identified as a significant way for establishing credibility, because it is a process that starts with the research design, research methods, selection of participants from a wider population or from different sampling cohorts such as different categories of the university to enable triangulation of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The use of different categories of universities in Nigeria such as federal, state and private, was to compensate for weaknesses and make full use of the considered advantages (Guber, 1998; Brewer & Hunter, 1989). Van Maanen (983) goes further saying that it will help to "check out bits of information across" participants to compare and contrast perceptions and experiences where necessary. I also used iterative questions to ensure credibility. I asked probing questions consistently to elicit clear complex answers and to increase the understanding of the answers provided by the participants to each question. According to Merriam (2002), iterative questions help to clarify lies from the truth. I also ensured that the research findings were dependable.

Bryman (2012) goes on to say that credible research ensures transferability by producing a rich deep account of the participants' narratives, which enhances validity and reliability. Merriam (1998:6) goes further saying that establishing the credibility of research ensures that the research instruments examine what they are supposed to examine and that the findings are in harmony with the state of things as they actually exist.

Guided by the suggestions of Bryman (2012), the following process was adopted to ensure trustworthiness in this study:

- I ensured that the semi-structured interviews were carried out in the natural environment without harm;

- I engaged probing questions to verify and authenticate the participants' unclear answers;

- I recorded the semi-structured interviews and went through them listening actively to ensure that they were transcribed accurately without omission and minimal error; and

- I described and interpreted the narratives of the participants with thoroughness to ensure it is a true reflection of what in fact occurred during the actual study (Chabilall, 2004:30).

On the other hand, to achieve credibility, I studied the participants in their natural setting (the university) and used multiple strategies for data collection such as interviews. The data were analysed inductively with the focus on learning the meaning that the participants held about the topic under study (Creswell, 2009).

1.14.2 DEPENDABILITY

Dependability refers to the ability of the text to measure what it claims to measure (McMillian & Wergin, 2002). The authors explain that failure of an instrument to measure might result from the researchers' capabilities, behaviour and motivational level as it relates to the use of the instrument. Ritchie and Lewis (2003) assert that reliability must be achieved for research to be trustworthy. Nieuwenhuis (2012) suggests that checking consistently the data under analysis, ensures that they belong to the right category and code is vital to attain reliability. To ensure that I achieved reliable results, I stuck to my role as a researcher and consistently checked the data analysis to ensure synergy.

1.14.3 CONFIRMABILITY

According to Janesick (2000) and Creswell (2002) conformability helps to confirm the trustworthiness of research. Creswell (2012) explains that this could be achieved with "respondent validation" and "member checking". In respondent validation, this could be achieved by e-mailing the transcribed interview to the participants. In member checking the participants were asked to confirm the accuracy of the transcribed word. To build the "degree to which the outcomes could be confirmed or corroborated by others (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007:149), I followed the same process in data collection, analysis and interpretation to ensure the consistency of the findings when applied repetitively (Kumar, 2011). Apart from generalisation, I involved three different types of universities in Nigeria as research sites to increase the chances of transferability.

1.14.4 TRANSFERABILITY

According to Lincoln and Guba, (1985) and also Rolfe, (2006) transferability defines the extent to which the research findings can be transferred to circumstances outside the scope of the study. Ryan *et al.,* (2002:123) describe it as the most important aspect of research and identify key challenges that may limit transferability of research findings to include "population, time and environmental validity". Likewise, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003, 38) affirm that the following specific types of transferability: "…population transferability (to other individuals, groups or entities), ecological transferability (to other contexts and settings), temporal transferability (to other time periods), and operational transferability (to other modes/methods of measuring/observing the variables/behaviour)" might challenge the extent to which the research findings could be transferred. They explain that since the population might not be a true representation of the population, the time of study and the setting might differ. In other words to achieve transferability, I followed the guidelines of Kumar (2011) that extensive and thorough description of procedures implemented, which are easy for others to follow and repeat, increase transferability. I made sure that the process adopted in this study is easy to understand and follow.

1.15   DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted at three Nigerian universities in south-south geo-political zones in Nigeria. They study focused on 12 participants selected from three categories of universities in Nigeria namely a federal, a state and a privately based university. The educational background and gender were the major criteria for the selection.

1.16   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study dealt with sensitive emotional issues which prompted the need for ethical considerations, because protection of participants' emotions and rights is one the most valued principles of social research (Robinson, 2002:67). The researcher also ensured that this study followed the ethical rules of the University of Pretoria, by reducing plagiarism to the lowest level, defending the research proposal and submitting the research questions to the ethical committee before going to the field to collect the data. In the field, the researcher obtained official consent from the participant institutions and individual lecturers before conducting the interview. This is because Jones et al. (2006:170) and Punch (2009:50) pinpoint that the ethical consideration must begin from the topic of the research and filter down to the protection of the emotions and rights of the participants during the interviews until the end of the study.

1.17   STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This study consists of six chapters and these are presented in the next subsection:

CHAPTER 1: Orientation and background to the study

Chapter 1 is the orientation and background to the study and this component includes: the general overview of the research, the rationale for the study, a well-stated problem statement, the research questions to guide the study, the clarification of the key concepts, the theoretical framework, the methodology, the delimitations and a summary of the outline for the thesis.

CHAPTER 2: Literature review and theoretical framework

Chapter 2 contains the review of related literature to professional, academic and institutional challenges, the review of literature on Bronfenbrenner's theoretical framework and concluding remarks for the chapter.

CHAPTER 3: Literature review on emotional intelligence

Chapter 3 contains relevant literature on emotional intelligence and the popular emotional intelligence types namely cognitive and non-cognitive intelligence. Mixed models of emotional intelligence are also included, followed by concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 4: Research methodology

This chapter comprises the procedures which were engaged in this study and it contains a brief explanation of the qualitative research methodology, research design and research sample (research sites and participants). The method of data collection and analysis are also explained. Concluding remarks are provided.

CHAPTER 5: Data analysis

Chapter 5 contains research findings and interpretation of the findings**.**

CHAPTER 6: Summary, conclusion and recommendations

This chapter contains discussion, reflections and recommendations for future study. An overview of the entire study is given and the research questions are also answered. A final conclusive remark is provided.

1.18   CONCLUDING REMARKS

The introductory chapter provides a general overview of the study and forms the backdrop against which the rest of the thesis can be read. The rationale explores the challenges confronting university lecturers. The aim of the study, assumptions and an overview of the selected methodology used in this study were indicated and the data analysis and interpretation thereof were outlined. These aspects are extensively explained in the chapters to follow.

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CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter commences with the review of the relevant literature on professional, academic and institutional challenges to ascertain that the extent of the challenges has been covered and existing literature consulted to understand the impact of the lecturers. The chapter therefore begins with an overview of tertiary education in Nigeria to provide information on the contextual background in which university lecturers function; the geopolitical zoning of the country in which the universities exist and the main objectives of tertiary education in Nigeria. The chapter further reviews literature on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory linking the five systems namely microsystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem, specifically, to understand the core principles of the theory and the relevance to professional, academic and institutional challenges facing lecturers. Finally, this chapter discusses the concluding remarks.

2.2   OVERVIEW OF TERTIARY EDUCATION PROVISION IN NIGERIA

According to UNICEF (2014), Nigeria has an estimated population of about 171 million people. This growth occurs at the rate of 3.2% and is estimated to increase by 2035. According to the Federal Ministry of Education (2013), over 30 million of Nigeria's population are students who attend higher education institutions, in different geopolitical zones in Nigeria. Nigeria, a country made up of with 36 states and a Federal capital, is grouped into six geopolitical zones for easier administration (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2014), as presented in Figure 2.1 below.

The map below illustrates the six geopolitical zones that comprise of the federal, state and privately based universities that participated in this study. The universities are situated in the south and south east. The two geopolitical zones were selected based on the present unrest in some parts of Nigeria.
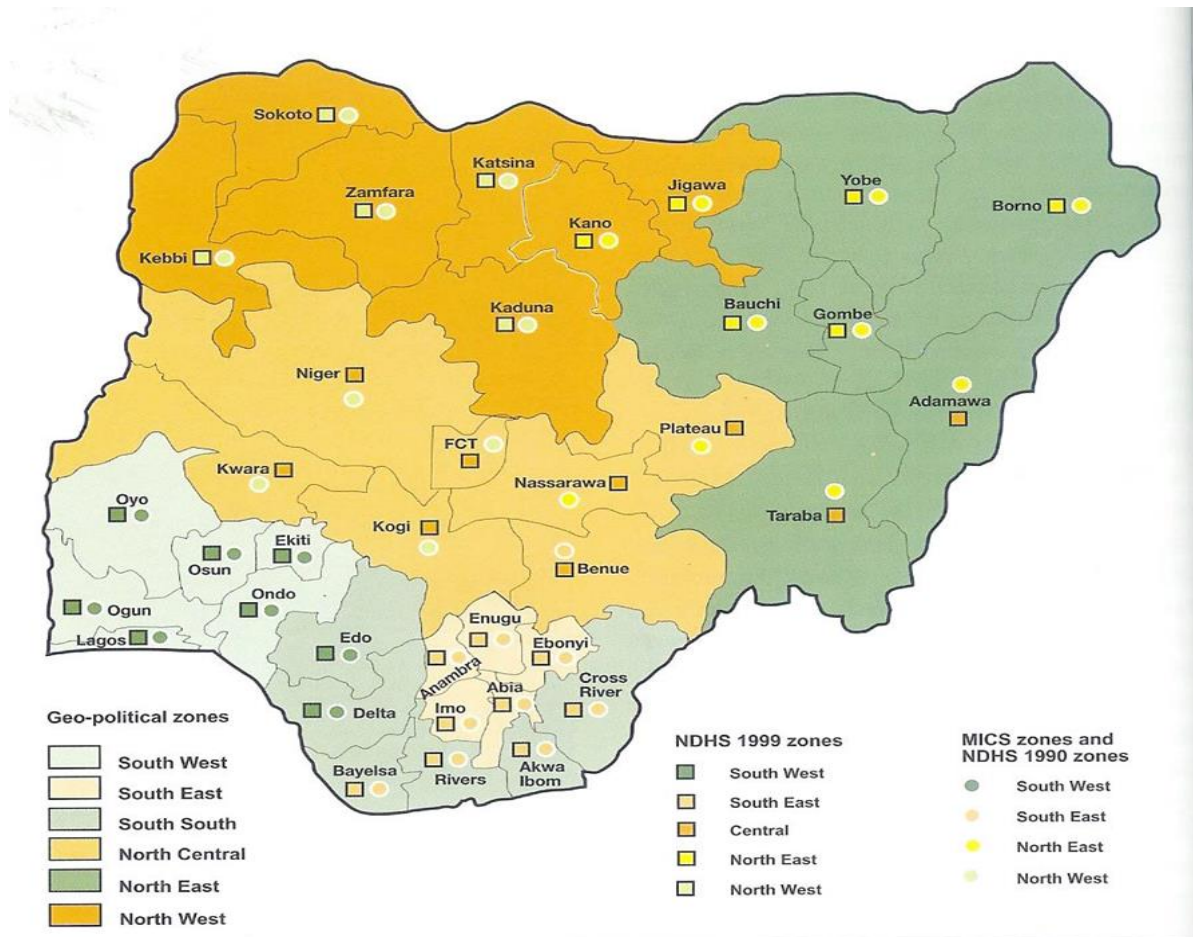
Figure 2.1: Geographical overview of Nigeria adapted from the Nigerian education sector diagnosis (2005)

The major goal of tertiary education guiding the provision of university education, according to federal government of Nigeria (2004 section 45) are as follows:

- To contribute to national development through high-level relevant manpower training;

- Develop and work out proper values for the survival of the individual and society;

- Develop the intellectual capability of individuals to understand and appreciate their local and external environments;

- Acquire both physical and intellectual skills, which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society;

- Promote and encourage scholarship and community service; and

- Forge and cement national unity, understanding and integration.

Ajayi and Ekundayo (2006) as well as Ojedele and Ilusanya (2006) maintain that university education is highly valued as a tool to increase social, emotional and economic growth. Ajayi

and Haastrup (2011) go further, saying that university education in Nigeria is regarded as a veritable tool for fostering societal transformation for sustainable development of the nation. Ibukun (1997) explains that this central goal of universities places lecturers at the centre of quality in service delivery and productivity in education. Odekunle (2001) maintains lecturers are to achieve quality in education through teaching, research and engaging in community activities. Omolewa (2001) argues that achieving quality in tertiary education is overwhelmed by a lack of human and material resources. A study by Shu'ara (2010) indicates that there is a shortfall in the number of academic staff and the ratio of senior lecturers is low. Shu'ara (2010) expresses fears that having over 60% of academic staff as junior lecturers may have increased the workload and experience of challenges for lecturers irrespective of the educational background. Odia and Omofonmwan (2007) suggest additional investment in both human and material resources to reduce the challenges facing lecturers. Thus, the study grouped these challenges under professional, academic and institutional challenges linking it to Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory for more favourable understanding of the ways the challenges are distributed within the system.

2.3   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study was conducted implementing the theoretical lens of the ecological theory, which was developed by Urie Bronfenbrenner, a Russian American psychologist born on April 29, 1917 and died on September 25, 2005 (MERN, 2011). The central theme of the ecological systems theory is that, individual progress exists in layered systems and the pattern of interaction, as well as relationships within these systems determines the progress the individual makes. On the other hand, Allen (2010:3) pinpoints that in ecological systems theory "…all individuals are part of interrelated systems that locate the individual at the centre and move out from the centre to include all systems that affect the individual." This implies that individual interaction and relationships within the systems position them to perceive and experience challenges that impact on professional and personal development. This further implies that individual success is enhanced and strengthened by the individual's ability to evolve and adjust to the challenges within the systems while relating and interacting during performing of daily roles with other people in the system.

In this regard, a number of key elements characterised the application of the Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory namely, reciprocal relationships and interactions, two way impact such as lecturers impacting the system and the system impacting on the lecturers' development. There are researchers on Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory that report, that unfolding the key elements surrounding the complexities in relationships and interactions within the systems provides insight into challenges and the way emotional intelligence has helped the lecturers to

cope (Paquette & Ryan 2001; Abrams, Karen, Theberge & Karan 2005; Ron, 2005; Nelson & Low, 2011). This implies that Bronfenbrenner's system is effective in that it supports with the understanding of the experiences, perception, coping and impact of challenges. This is possible because according to Bronfenbrenner (1979:27) "…human development is the process through which the growing person acquires a more extended, differentiated and valid conception of the ecological environment, and becomes motivated and able to engage in activities that reveal the properties of, sustain, or restructure that environment at levels of similar or greater complexity in form and content."

Bronfenbrenner sees progress within the systems as a "lasting change in the way an individual perceives and deals with the environment" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:3). As of further interest, Leonard (2011:991) posits that "Bronfenbrenner's theory is an attractive one because it is expansive, yet focused; one eye is trained on the complex layers of university …and… relationships, and the other eye is sharply focused on the individual." I therefore, focused on Bronfenbrenner's five systems in this study namely: the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem to fully understand the relevance of the core assumption as it relates to perception, coping and the impact of challenges on lecturers. Furthermore I examined emotional intelligence in handling the challenges and lastly the way it translates to success or professional development. Based on the aforementioned, Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory proffers an appropriate framework for recognising the key elements in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges that impact on lecturers' perception and emotional intelligence (see detailed discussion on chapter four of data analysis). Furthermore, in the study, the researcher followed the following order in the discourse of Bronfenbrenner's systems: the chronosystem, macrosystem, exosystem, mesosystem and microsystem. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory as applied in this study is illustrated in Figure 2.2.
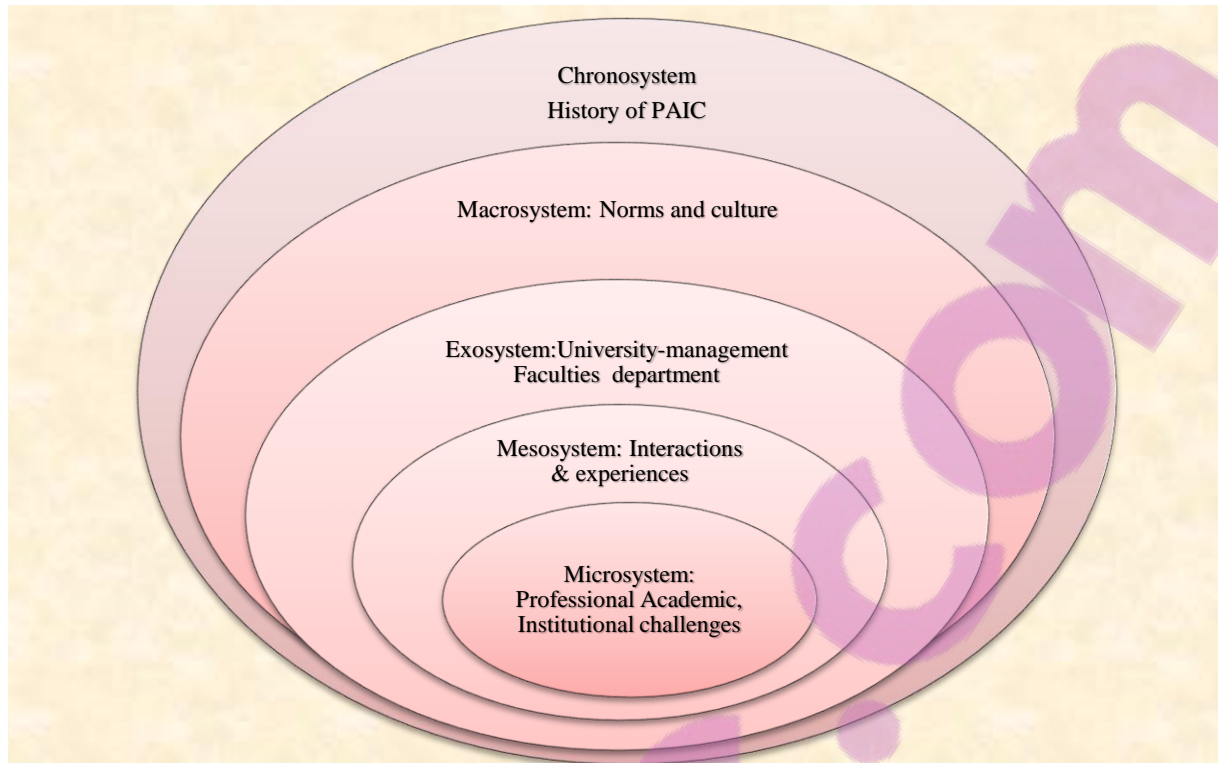
Figure 2.2: Graphic representation of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (Adapted from Bronfenbrenner, 1979)

2.4   LITERATURE ON BRONFENBRENNER'S ECOLOGICAL THEORY IN THE CONTEXT OF NIGERIA

According to Weiten (2014) individual perception determines the interpretation and translation of the attached meaning and the purposeful action. Chun and Wolfe (2001) add that perception permits individuals to interpret events and make decisions about feasible ways to approach them. Swart and Pettipher (2011) elaborate further saying that individual's manner of perceiving events within his physical environment determine the way they handle the situation. This implies that the knowledge of lecturers' experiences and perceptions, within the systems is vital in understanding emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges. The focal point of this study centres on the examination of the five systems as it relates to the aims of this study. In this regard, the researcher reviewed related literature and linked it with each system. The researcher began the literature review with examination of the microsystem which is the system of the lecturers' daily roles.

2.5   THE CHRONOSYSTEM

The chronosystem is the fifth system and according to Bronfenbrenner (1993:40) the chronosystem: "Encompasses change or consistency over time not only in the characteristics of the person but also of the environment in which that person lives (e.g. changes over the life

course in the family structure, socio-economic status, employment, place of residence, or the degree of hectiness and ability in everyday life)." According to Bronfenbrenner (1993:40), the chronosystem comprises development over time within the family structure, socio-economic status, employment, place of residence, or in the individual's personal and professional life. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010) state that the chronosystem is historically oriented, because it incorporates the trend of interaction of all the systems across time and it includes the experiences emanating from the interaction. In this study, the chronosystem provides the analytical tool for examining, diagnosing and clarifying the historical trend of challenges in tertiary education in Nigeria. Crabtree (2015) elaborates by saying that historical knowledge helps to understand the present through the lens of the past. Ravitch (2000) goes further stating that the past is expected to provide in-depth information on lived experiences resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges.

2.5.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND, PROFESSIONAL, ACADEMIC AND INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES IN NIGERIA

The historical perspective of challenges in tertiary education in Nigeria could be traced to the coming of the missionaries and their involvement in recruiting and training of teachers to ensure Christian religion is spread around the nation (Adeyinka & Adetoro, 1992). The colonial government opened schools but was more interested in the establishment of educational ordinances, regulations and codes for the management of the schools (Okoh, 1989) and was also more concerned with the training of people as clerks to enhance communication and administration processes (Omolewa, 2001). However, the rapidity in societal changes moved education from the phase of religion and administrative training to a means of development through creativity empowering people to facilitate innovative ideas (Aghenta, 1987; Sibal, 2011), which demand high-level educators and teaching. To ensure quality in service delivery and quality of education products, Miller (1947:43) examined the educational system of Nigeria, and found that the conditions predicted danger for the whole system of education in future if something radical was not done to curtail the perceived challenges. Nevertheless, this report was ignored and in 1948, the first university in Nigeria was officially established at Ibadan (Ike, 1976). The university experienced challenges such as strict legal requirements, a lack of staff, and a lack of application from individuals as well as high withdrawal of enrolled students (Ibukun, 1997). The search for solutions caused the federal government of Nigeria to take over the administration of tertiary education, under the auspices of national university commission, however, this governmental move created more problems, because of the government's consistent failure to establish generation of funds and maintain standards (Babalola *et al.,* 2007).

The federal government of Nigeria on recognising that the takeover of tertiary education has failed to solve the identified problems in teaching, research and community development, turned to ownership structures and characterisation of tertiary education as federal, state and private universities (Anyamele, 2004; Babalola *et al.,* 2007; Okojie, 2007; NUC, 2013) as a possible solution. Omolewa (2001) also Osewa (2012) argue that the characterisation and ownership structure of tertiary education in Nigeria did not solve the identified challenges, but instead created new problems. It further exposed the inefficiencies of the government in managing tertiary education as most private-based universities were doing far better than government-owned institutions. Omolewa (2001:57) and Onyeonoru (2001) argue that the federal government's attitude towards tertiary education in Nigeria has resulted in a consistent call for strike by the academic staff trade unions notably, the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASSU).

Historically, the trade union came into existence in 1978 to promote, protect and advance the interest of lecturers and standards of tertiary education. There are different types of trade unions in tertiary education in Nigeria and the trade union is compulsory for every lecturer in federal and state universities; depending on the work position or academic qualification. They are namely: Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), Academic Staff Union of Nigerian Universities (ASUNU), Academic Staff of Nigerian Universities (ASNU) and Association of University Teachers (AUT). However, the Association of University Staff Union (ASUU) has remained the most daring to the government and university management, because the trade unions determine whether the academy will offer or withdraw their services to tertiary education, particularly the university (Onyeonoru, 2001).

In contemporary time, the need to handle the challenges facing lecturers in federal and state universities is increasing the activities of the union (Onyeonoru, 2001). The trade unions engage the federal government in series of dialogue and strikes to demand for a better quality of life for academic staff and quality tertiary education. Babasola (2002) and Fatunde (2008) insist that the trade unions call for strikes when the federal government fails to keep the promises of improving tertiary education. Table 2.1 below shows the chronology of strikes by Nigerian universities, the reason for the strikes and repeated failures of the government to keep to agreement.

Table 2.1:   The chronology of the ASSU strikes 1981-2013 (NUC, 2013)

YEAR	DURATION	REASONS FOR THE STRIKES
1981	6 months	• The ASUU strike led to the setting up of the Cookey Commission (universities closed for 6months)
1992	3 months	• The gross underfunding of Nigerian universities' conditions of service of academic staff • Strikers complained about salaries and non-salary conditions of service, university autonomy and academic freedom, the resumption of negotiation • The agreement was signed on September 3, 1992
1993	3 months	• A strike lasting for three months by non-teaching staff demanding for parity in salary
1994	3 months	• The ASUU strike occurred for an increase in salary
1995	3 months	• The ASUU strike occurred for the review of the 1992 agreement
1996	7 months	• The ASUU president Dr. Assisi Asobie was dismissed • Universities closed for seven months for his recall and the need to review the 1992 agreement
1999	5 months	• The ASUU strike lasted for five months which led to the constitution of a federal government • A negotiating team to negotiate with ASUU on 'Salaries, Wages and Other Conditions of Service in the University System' • An agreement was signed on May 25, 1999
2000		• The ASUU strike occurred for the resumption on negotiation of basic salaries, university funding, and autonomy
2001	3 months	• The ASUU strike lasted for 3 months over stalemate in the negotiation • An agreement was signed on June 30, 2001
2002	2 weeks	• The ASUU strike lasted for 2 weeks over perceived non-implementation of the 2001 agreements
2003	6 months	• Inadequate funding: non-implementation of agreement; disparity in salary; retirement age; non-implementation of allowances
2005	2 months and 1 week warning strike	• A strike occurred because of the autonomy bill, funding, governing councils, union matters, conditions of service, licensing of additional private universities, unionisation, private sector participation in the provision of student hostels, introduction of fees, commercialisation of some activities, parity in basic salary, entry point for fresh graduates, parent forum and an enlightenment programme

YEAR	DURATION	REASONS FOR THE STRIKES
2006	1 week	From 2006-2013 the ASUU demanded for the payment of: • N157, 000 (one hundred of fifty seven thousand naira) for each postgraduate student's research project supervised • N50 000 for each student on teaching practice supervised (implying 40 students=N2million) • N20 000 per each examination paper supervised • N1000 billion for infrastructure development in public universities and managed by ASSU holdings • Transfer of landed properties in public universities to ASSU holdings
2007	2 months	• Study grants, external assessment of readers or professors, call duty and clinical duty, hazard allowance and excess workload allowance
2008	1 week	• Non-salary conditions of services and clinical loans
2009	3 months	• Payment for research leave, sabbatical leave (university of origin and sabbatical university), sick leave, maternity leave and injury pension;
2010	2 months	
2011	3 months ended in 2012	• Pension of university staff and compulsory retirement age • Patronage of university services; and • Funds from the alumni association
2013	6 months	The same request occurred in 2012 due to the government's failure to keep to previous agreement

Table 2.1 shows the chronology of withdrawal of services by the academic staff union of Nigerian universities from 1981 to 2013. The first row indicates the year of the strike, the second the number of months, days and weeks the strike lasted and the third row the reason for the strike. The chronology of strikes reveals a similarity in demands showing the government neglect and inconsistency in maintaining tertiary education. These strikes disrupt the academic year; increase workload, because lecturers must finish their previous module before moving to a new module thereby increasing the vulnerability of lecturers to emotional pressure (Ofoegbu& Nwadiani, 2006; Onyeonoru, 2001).

According to NUC (2013) the strikes have a negative impact on the university process, progress and functionality. These negative results are as follows: loss of academic sessions, irredeemable distortions in university calendar, longer than normal duration of academic programmes and distractions from teaching and research. The sacking of some lecturers at the University of Ilorin heightened the impact on lecturers in 1994 and 1996, as they engaged in consistent dialogue and strikes demanding for the recall of the sacked lecturers. Apart from the sacked lecturer, ASSU had lost its loyal members and others left with physical marks to remind them

of their struggle to better Nigerian tertiary education. For example, in 2013, ASSU lost Professor Iyayi in a ghastly motor accident on his way to an ASSU meeting (Onyeonoru, 2001).

The undue exposure of lecturers to vulnerabilities made David Le Finkle (2012) to declare that lecturers are micromanaged to death. Kenny (2012) adds that lecturers have become the new scapegoat for society and are held responsible for everything that is wrong in university education because they are unable to fix it. Kuhn (2012) laments that lecturers are not appreciated, highly criticised, often told in the media that they are ineffective, called names such as thugs, a national security threat, terrible, callous, goats that have made a terrible mess of education and are said to be incompetent. Due to the prevailing challenges in most universities, the working life of lecturers seems to be characterised by unpleasant emotions resulting in conflicts, anxieties, frustrations, aggression, anger, fears, hostility and job insecurity (Ofoegbu & Nwadiani, 2006; Durosaro, 1990:113) and these emotions are anti-well-being. Despite these experiences of conflict, frustration and insecurity, some lecturers still uphold the rules and values of tertiary education. These identified challenges were further examined within Bronfenbrenner's (1977) macrosystem.

2.6   THE MACROSYSTEM

According to Bronfenbrenner (1993:39) the macrosystem "refers to the overarching institutional patterns of the culture or subculture, such as the economic, social, educational, legal, and political systems, of which microsystem, mesosystem, and exosystems are the concrete manifestations." Yingst (2011) goes on to explain that the macrosystem involves the culture and subculture the individual lives are embedded in. This system consists of the beliefs, attitudes, patterns of behavior, and other circumstances around the world of the lecturers. In this study, the macrosystem focuses on the emerging profile of enrolled students creating cultural diversity causing pressure in teaching and learning.

Bronfenbrenner (1993: 25) defines the macrosystem as a context encompassing any group "culture, subculture, or other extended social structure" whose members share similar value or belief systems, hazards, resources, lifestyles, structures, opportunities, life course options and patterns of social interchange. Oswalt (2008) refers to the macrosystem as the greatest isolated set among the system, yet, with greater influence on the universities and lecturers' activities. Santrock (2002) agrees that the macrosystem is a house of culture and beliefs that determines the behaviour of its members. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010) acknowledge that the macrosystem comprises socio-cultural beliefs systems that could impact on all the systems. Sugarman (2001) elaborates saying that the macrosystem therefore is reflecting the societal standards, culture, economic and belief system that university members bring into the university

(In the study, the macrosystem examined the emerging demographic profile of the students enrolled in the universities and the level of preparedness, massification or internationalisation of education.

2.6.1 THE MACROSYSTEMIC CHALLENGES IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

Given that the macrosystem is a house of cultural values, customs and regulation, Inglehart and Baker (2001) as well as Altbach (2011) observe that modernisation and internalisation of education is introducing cultural changes in most tertiary education institutions. Knight (2003:2-3) defines the concept of internationalisation of education as "process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education." Chaudhary (2013) defines the concept of modernisation as "a process of socio-cultural transformation, an ongoing process involving values, norms institutions and structure". The merging of two concepts implies that social cultural changes is transforming human and material resources in education across the globe leading to an emerging culture and demand for newer educational facilities and inter institutional transfer and collaboration.

Phillips, Ajrouch and Hillcoat-Nalletamby (2013) note that modernisation has been applauded for the recent societal changes influencing the development of education and the emerging demographic profile of students in tertiary education. This is because more lecturers are engaging in cultural exchange, networking and collaboration, building relationship behaviour with student and colleagues around the globe (Inglehart & Baker, 2001; McGregor, 2008). There are many foreign students from diverse origin, race, socioeconomic position, gender, exceptionalities, language, sexual orientation and geographical regions enrolled in different Nigerian universities (Rothstein, Rothstein & Johnson 2010). Cuseo (2010:2) found in his study that irrespective of cultural diversity such as in gender, racial, ethnic, or cultural backgrounds, further distinctions can be found along the lines of:

- presentation (e.g. under-represented minority students and majority students);
- socioeconomic status (e.g. parental level of education, family income);
- chronological age (e.g. traditional and returning students);
- residential status (e.g. commuters and campus residents);
- national citizenship (i.e. domestic or international students); and
- learning style, personality profile, religious preferences, and sexual orientation.

Cuseo (2010:2) maintains that knowledge of students' diversity is important for their success and reduction of emotional pressure lecturers experience in managing students' academic challenges. In this regard, Nigerian lecturers have never been exposed to any training to accommodate student diversity resulting in greater challenges.

Tettey (2010) expresses his concern that exposing lecturers to student diversity with limited resources is a greater challenge and in Nigeria with its scarce resources this is a particular pressing problem (Ogu, 2008). Jeffrey, Atkins, Laurs and Mann (2005) examined the cultural diversity of the current student population and identified three emerging student profiles. They embrace:

- Cognitive Voyagers: this refers to students that view learning as an individual exploration. These students engage in reflectivity and dialogue to socially create meaning and construct knowledge;

- Strategic competitors: this refers to students that are ambition-driven, hard workers and can adopt self-discipline study patterns and approaches;

- Multimedia collaborations: this refers to students that prefer learning when it is associated with sounds, broadcast, conversation, pictures as illustration and small text bites.

Jeffrey, Atkins, Laurs and Mann (2005) also assert that among the identified emerging demographic profile of students, there are differences in approach and patterns of reading and engaging in study activities. The authors found in their study that some students prefer to listen and these students have a high level of inspiration to accomplish learning goals. Another group of students may prefer independence that is working alone and are internally inspired, whereas the third group of students prefers working collaboratively, learning with visual material and are also externally inspired. The merging of these identified profiles demands resources to cover it in course modules, lecture strategies, and course assignments and marking.

UNESCO (2004) acknowledges that these similarities and dissimilar features identified in students determine their nature, priorities, inspiration, desires and aspirations in the learning environment and explain that the similar and dissimilar features are derived from languages, cultures and customs depending on the country of birth, origin, city, family and religion. Howard (2006) argues that meeting the demands of this emerging demographic profile of students can be very demanding and challenging to the academe, particularly in achieving fair treatment of students. Jonson and Steele (2005) assert that students' enthusiasm and sense of belonging and level of motivation increases when they experience acceptance and are connected (Sachs, 2005; Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006; Brante, 2009; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009; Klug, Bruder, Kelava, Spiel & Schmitz, 2012). Several authors believe that failure to adjust to diversity makes institutions and lecturers experience diverse challenges (Teichler & Jahr, 2001; Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Daly, 2011). Studies also found that challenges resulting from diversity may include relationship behaviour of diverse students, academic writing and demands for accountability, which most lecturers are not prepared for (Trice, 2003; 2005; Ryan & Carroll,

2005; Kingston & Forland, 2008; Fry, Kettridge & Marshall, 2009). The exosystem and challenges that surface are discussed next.

2.7   THE EXOSYSTEM

According to Bronfenbrenner (1977:515) the exosystem "is an extension of the mesosystem embracing other specific social structures, both formal and informal, that do not themselves contain the developing person but impinge upon or encompass the immediate settings in which that person is found, and thereby influence, delimit, or even determine what goes on there. These structures include the major institutions of the society, both deliberately structured and spontaneously evolving, as they operate at a concrete local level. They encompass, amongst other structures, the world of work, the neighbourhood, the mass media, agencies of government (local, state, and national), the distribution of goods and services, communication and transportation facilities, and informal social networks."

This means that the exosystem contains the social environment that the lecturers do not have direct interaction with, but could have encouraging and discouraging impact on the lecturers' work experience (Berk, 2000). The exosystem has been identified as the ecological environment that is indirectly experienced by individuals (Schaie & Willie, 2011) implying that this exosystem defines the larger social system in which the lecturer does not function directly but influences their functionality (Berk, 2000; Swart & Pettipher, 2012). Nduka and Eresimadu (1987); Pearce and Robinson (2009) argue that challenges outside the range of institutional power direct and dictate the policies in funding education. In the above-mentioned study, the exosystem funding of tertiary education is seen to impact the quality of education.

2.7.1   THE EXOSYSTEM CHALLENGES IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

Financing tertiary education has been identified as the bedrock of high performance (Liefner, 2003). However, the national policy on education identifies tertiary education as costly, because of the huge funding required in establishing, maintaining and implementing innovative programmes and projects (Federal Policy on Education, 2004). Nduka and Eresimadu (1987) acknowledge that adequate funding increases the chances of the universities to plan, organise, direct and control educational activities with the right knowledge, skills and attitudes aiming at achieving set goals, implying that poor funding may have a rebounding effect on the administration of the university education (Liefner, 2003). In the same vein, Ezekwesili (2006) and Onuka (2007) studied the role of funding in universities and found that poor funding contributed to the degrading condition of many Nigerian universities. Thus poor funding of tertiary education had been critiqued and blamed on the nature of governmental policy behaviours such as inability to refocus the inherited colonial funding pattern, borrowing from

IMF/World bank loan in 1978 and failure to adopt the UN recommended 26% of the country's gross domestic product.

2.7.1.1 The inability to refocus the inherited colonial funding pattern

An earlier study by Adesua (1981) revealed that the inability of the colonial government to fund education in 1842 until 1882 created a big gap in funding tertiary education in Nigeria. Kpolovie and Obilor (2013) explain that poor funding of tertiary education in Nigeria dates back to colonial government's 1882 Education Ordinance that saw the missionary as the major funder of education, implying the colonial government neglect to set a standard of funding after the colonialist left is reflecting in contemporary funding of education in Nigeria. Marcellus (2009) adds that the government takeover of schools from the missionaries in 1981 further increased the government's financial commitment thereby decreasing funding of education. Although, the governments developed a ten year plan to rectify the funding issues, Adeyemi (2011) acknowledges that the 1944 ten-year education plan shaped and created new patterns of funding that supported both the missionary and voluntary education agencies but it did not rectify funding issues of tertiary education. Collins (1980) adds that from 1953 to 1980, the government had struggled to fund education using the budgetary allocation information that has failed to align with the present student population figure.

2.7.1.2 Borrowing from IMF/World Bank loan in 1978

The complex nature of funding tertiary education has been blamed on the borrowing of IMF/World Bank loan in 1998. According to Adewale's (2014) the borrowing of IMF/World Bank loan in 1978 influenced the poor funding of tertiary education, because of a decrease in financing that Nigerian Universities developed with the government taking the IMF/World Bank loan in 1978. Adewale (2014) holds the government's acceptance of the loan completely responsible for the crippling of the funding of tertiary education in Nigeria. Kpolovie and Esezi (2013) examined the funding pattern of education in Nigeria using Central Bank of Nigeria, statistical bulletin and information. Their study found that in 1978, 11.44% of the budget was allocated to education, in 1979 the budgetary allocation to the education sector went down drastically to 3.70% and six years after the loan, the impact became intense and the budgetary allocation to education went from 4.49% in 1984 to 2.69% in 1986, 1.93% in 1987 to as low as 1.09% in 1991 and this fluctuation has remained the symbol of funding education in Nigeria.

2.7.1.3 Failure to adopt the UN recommended 26% of the country's gross domestic products

According to Emezue (2009) and Opayemi (2011) the failure of the federal government of Nigeria to allocate the UN recommended 26% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP) to education is clear evidence that Nigeria has failed to apply the international guidelines on funding. An earlier study by Levine (1997) linked the poor funding to the government's changing priority, which does not favour education because of emerging competing needs and the government's choice of moving away from education. A study by the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) (2002) points out that the decreasing and fluctuating nature of funding education is limiting the provision of essential materials required for teaching, research and community engagement. A study by Opayemi (2011) and also Kpolovie and Esezi (2013) found that fluctuating funding is causing poor implementation of educational programmes, maintenance of existing infrastructure and construction of new educational equipment. The acquisition of modern educational equipment also poses a problem as a result. Kpolovie and Esezi (2013) link the poor funding to government's inadequate allocation using the growing population of Nigeria and students as an indicator. In this regard, Onuka (2003) summarises by saying that poor funding of education has implications for the performance and functioning of the university, faculty and departments causing low ranking of Nigerian universities amongst world universities (Odika, 2013). Akpotu (2002) further concludes that poor funding of tertiary education is impacting on universities and the lecturers.

2.7.1.4   Impact of poor funding of tertiary education

According to Akpotu (2002) funding in education can be reflected in infrastructures such as construction of buildings, renovation and stocking of libraries and laboratories with modern equipment. Babalola (2004) argues that poor funding is limiting investment on modern technological gadgets, specifically in laboratories, libraries and lecture halls. Nwadiani (2002) points out that poor funding has been linked to the inability to purchase vital teaching and research materials as well as funding of faculty and departmental projects. Derek and Stephen (2002) acknowledge that adequate funding of education will enable the university; faculty and the department provides lecturers with needed material to enhance performance and production in education. Adewale (2014) identifies poor funding as a cause of poor lecture hall conditions, a lack of portable water and constant power failures within the university. Ogu (2008) follows the same line of argument, arguing that poor funding is increasing the university's inability to support lecturers' innovative and expensive research.

Ogu (2008) blames poor funding to be the cause of poor conditions of the libraries and laboratories, because books are out-of-date, torn and old (Rafidadi (2012:8). A study by Aliyu (2012:10) found that a significant number of universities have outdated laboratory apparatus, while "large number of researchers line up to use one microscope in the laboratories." Aliyu

(2012:10) continues to describe most university laboratories as 'dry labs,' due to a lack of reagents and tools to conduct real experiments, moreover, a number of uncompleted projects have been abandoned while shelves in the university library were empty. ThisDay University investigation Committee (2013) found that poor funding is reflecting in the purchasing of regular electricity and power generators, gas, and chemicals and kerosene stoves are used as Bunsen burners. The department of Chemistry in numerous Nigerian universities lack major equipment like mass spectroscopic and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and mass spectroscopic equipment used in characterisation is not available. Aliyu (2012) bemoans the fact that studying science-based courses in many Nigerian universities, has become very difficult as most lecturers and doctoral students travel abroad for specimen analyses.

Fourie (2006) points out that poor funding is limiting the universities from engaging the communities in ways that promote a sense of belonging and building long-lasting bonds between the university and community. Schenck, Nel and Louw (2010) identify that engaging communities improve individuals' potentialities leading to real-life transformation, communal participation and sustainable learning. Okebukola (2003) maintains that poor funding reduces the chance to improve communities' financial conditions, increases tax incomes and adds to communal goods. Akinpelu (2001) supports that funding community engagement increases expectation, improves attitudes, inspires and liberates them for constructive achievement. This means that poor funding limits the realisation of the benefits of adequate funding. Okebukola (2006:36) summarises by saying there is need for large investment of funds and the encouragement of private investors while maintaining a free tuition policy and principles of equity.

Adewale (2014) emphasises the urgency in developing an appropriate policy on funding of tertiary education because functioning with limited resources expose the academe to vulnerability with impact on their quality of life and well-being. Several studies found that the poor funding is creating anxieties that are increasing mental health issues among the academe (Okunrotifa, 1982; NUC, 1995; Ofoegbu & Nwadiani, 2002; Akpotu, 2002). Okebukola (2002:4) expresses the concern that lecturers are relocating to other countries to retain their sanity. Kamper and Steyn (2012) link poor funding of the tertiary the low level of motivation of the academe. Pearce and Robinson (2009) add that low motivation decreases development of innovative ideas, translation of ideas into actions and creatively improvise strategies to handle limited resources. There is fear that a low level of motivation may alter the academe's attitude and affect their relationships. An earlier study by Bronfenbrenner (1979) noted that a system that lacks constructive interaction and relationships, experiences low performance and production in education.

2.8 MESOSYSTEM

According to Bronfenbrenner (1977:26), the mesosystem "Comprises the interrelations among major settings containing the developing person at a particular point in his or her life. In sum, stated succinctly, a mesosystem is a system of microsystems." Swart and Pettipher (2012:14) describe the mesosystem as a "system of microsystems," implying that the mesosystem constitutes the experiences resulting from various interactions and relationships between different layers of the systems (Oswalt 2008; Swart & Pettipher, 2012). This means that the mesosystem is concerned with the interactions and interactional experiences within the settings in which the university lecturers function. Several authors acknowledge that the relationship between the university management and the lecturers is important because universities are positioned to teach, research and engage in community activities in collaboration with contributions by effective and efficient lecturers (Behbahani, 2011; Akpan, 2012).

2.8.1 THE MESOSYSTEMIC CHALLENGES IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

The relationship between the university management and the lecturers has been identified as one of the most important aspects of tertiary education because it fosters national development (Akpan, 2012). University management is positioned openly and implicitly to promote and advance effective and efficient tertiary institutions (Behbahani, 2011), implying that university management is expected to build ethical valuable relationships with the lecturers to promote effective management as to increase productivity in education (Behbahani, 2011). In this regard, the federal government of Nigeria (2004) points out that the university management must create enabling environments for developing intellectual, social and emotional capacities of its customers for national and international development. The implication is that the management of universities is to be organised by each university such as the planning, administration and allocation and distribution of resources to faculties, departments and other units (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004).

Consequently, the university management and the lecturers are to work collaboratively to ensure strategic planning, effective implementation and maintenance of educational programmes and care for its members (National Policy on Education, 2004). However, Ebuara, Udida, Ekpiken and Bassey (2009) assert that the university management is failing to promote cordial relationships needed for effective and successful management of the university. According to the World Bank (2000) poor management and bad governance are promoting disintegration and systems of work are characterised by inefficiency and insecurity thereby impacting on relationship behaviour. A study by Ekaetter (2006) found that the management issues are resulting in imbalance in allocation and distribution of human and material resources to faculties and department. The Nigerian Tribune (2007) investigated the state of Nigerian

universities and found that misappropriation, unbalanced resources allocation and biased recruitment of lecturers, were impacting on lecturers' ability to teach, research and engage in community activities. The Nigerian Tribune (2007) posits that the implications of the misappropriation of the resources include frustration and poor performance by lecturers.

Subsequently, Okebukola (2004) points out that the difficulties lecturers' experience are impacting on their ability to develop innovative ideas and putting pressure on their ability to constructively shape educational programmes. A study by Olugbile (2001) found that lecturers without coping abilities relocated to other countries. Nwaguwu (2006) blames the negative experience of lecturers on poor university management and self-centered practices engaged by university administrators. Ebuara et al. (2009) blame the universities' autocratic leadership style such as sole decision-making resulting to have little focus on innovative models for successful and efficient administration. Ebuara et al. (2009) elaborate by blaming the government for appointing political friends instead of individuals that are making contributions to the knowledge in society. Akpan (2009) supports this by saying that appointment of people using merit and contribution ensures accountability, transparency and recruitment of the right person for the right position. Olagboye (2004) and Adetoro (2009; 2013) add that apart from openness in leadership style, the outcome will increase quality of service delivery, productivity in education and further distribution to valuable markets.

The management style is arguably one of the means of exposing lecturers to negative experiences within the system and a study by Fabiyi (2000) affirms that university management inefficiencies impact on lecturers' work relationship such as the commitment level and effectiveness. A study by Adeboyeje (2000) found that the relationships between the lecturers and university management are deteriorating, because of consistent neglect of their plight. Likewise, Bassey (2000) found lecturers with good relationships with the management are those enjoying good working conditions. Akpan, Ekpiken and Okon (2007) also echo that good management predicts good relationships with lecturers. However, Akpan (2009) maintains that most universities are burdened with relationship issues between the management and the lecturers culminating in low motivation and poor commitment to work.

On the other hand, Tolegenova, Madaliyeva, Jakupov, Naurzalina, Ahtayena and Taumysheva (2015) maintain that some university management's communication skills result in a lack of assertion with respect and show a lack of empathy, implying that a good relationship depends on good communication. Communication plays an important role in building a sense of belonging, self-confidence, and self-determination, because the management can provide the needed information to guide and direct activities (Egbochuku, 2012; Anikina, Ivankina & Tumaova, 2014). Akpan (2000) sums up by saying that notwithstanding the arguments there is

an unbalanced and tense relationship between some university management and lecturers because of poor working conditions. Onyeonoru (2000) further concludes by saying that a good relationship is underscored by the speed at which the lecturers are committed to consult their trade unions rather than focusing on the relationship with the university that employs them.

2.9   THE MICROSYSTEM

According to Bronfenbrenner (1977:515) the microsystem is the setting where, the developing individual interacts and relates with other individuals on a daily basis (workplace, etc.). In the context of this study, the developing individual is assumed to be the lecturers, because they are developing in the profession (lecturers' professional development) and environment (university-faculty-department). Using these criteria, Novick, Kress and Elias (2012:1) add that the microsystem for the university lecturer comprises other individuals within the university, faculty and departments including the "lecture hall, hostel members that the lecturers are in charge of, course taught, faculty meetings, union representatives, administrative team and informal times like lunch, recess, dismissal and lecture time changes".

This is because in the microsystem the lecturers perform their basic and allocated roles through relating, interacting and making critical decisions to justify their positions in the system (Caruso, Bienn & Kornacki, 2006). The microsystem is therefore a setting where the potentialities of individuals are developed, transformed and humanised for personal and professional progress (Schenck, Nel & Louw, 2010). It therefore implies that the experiences of the microsystem are vital for continuous progress of individuals. Moreover, the challenges in the microsystem may impact on professional relationships limiting functionality (Schenck, Nel & Louw, 2010). In this regard, the study examined the professional, academic and institutional challenges that occur within the microsystem.

In this light, the theorist Bronfenbrenner (1979) describes the microsystem as a setting that generates the experiences for its members, therefore implying that the activity, role and relationships within the system create these experiences. Santrock (2002:41) affirms that individuals in the microsystem are active members in the construction of the experiences that exist in the settings. This active involvement in the system creates experiences that impact on the emotions of the lecturers. In this regard, this study examined the professional, academic and institutional challenges that impacted on lecturers' emotional intelligence.

2.9.1   THE MICROSYSTEM CHALLENGES AT NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

The microsystem challenges at Nigerian Universities could be characterised into three comprising of professional challenges, academic challenges and institutional challenges. These concepts are further discussed below.

2.9.1.1   Professional challenges facing university lecturers

The term "profession" has been explored throughout the decades and defined in various ways but Lubell (1978) links profession with the extensive acquisition of knowledge and skills, vital for quality service delivery, certification and standardised behaviour that is non-discriminative but empathetic. According to Goode (1960), a profession has a code of conduct and belief system for its members and its members in the job must apply this code of conduct. This means that a profession is associated with quality in service delivery and a standard code of conduct that promotes all-inclusive educational environment (Wueste, 1988). Professional code influences, regulate academes' actions and decisions, specifically, the decision to serve or withdraw services (Professions Australia, 2008) as seen in the call for strikes by the trade unions, irrespective of the rules and threats of university management. This means the professional body could dictate the job behaviour of its members, by directing, controlling and insisting on maintaining fair standards of judgment and consistency in assigned roles (Raji, 2009). It further implies that professional bodies have the authority to control activities of its members within the employed institutions, by deciding the degree to which they offer or withdraw their services. The professional body also protects its members from any situation that can impact negatively on the integrity of the profession and working condition, implying that the professional body ensures that the members function with fewer challenges.

In this regard, this study describes professional challenges as limitations to the academe's ability to apply and demonstrate the special training or specific acquired skills in the performance of the role of teaching, research and community engagement (Cambridge, 2011). From Oduro's (2014) perspective, lecturer-related professional challenges may be viewed as:

- those directly related to the fundamental tasks of researching, teaching and dissemination through publishing, conferences, seminars;

- external obstructions relating to professional practice; and

- ethical issues confronting lecturers' relational issues with students.

From the above definitions it is clearly obvious that professional challenges have the ability to impact on teaching, research and community engagement through disrupting the extensive use of acquired knowledge and skill in providing quality in service delivery and production in

education. In this regard, the study examined teaching, research and community engagement as professional challenges.

(a)   Teaching as professional challenge

The quality of teaching is determined by the quality of lecturers, which in turn influences the student performance and emotional climate of the institutions (Hattie, 2003, 2012; Shriver & Weissberg, 2005; Hayes et al, 2006). Several authors affirm that quality teaching is a product of practical and individual capabilities such as commitment and passion, in-depth knowledge of the course module and understanding of learners (Palmer, 1998:181 McLaughlin, 2005; Nieto, 2005; Day & Gu, 2010). There are authors that identified social and emotional accountability as the part of quality teaching (Groundwater-Smith, Ewing, R. & Le Cornu, 2015). Several studies found that commitment, social and emotional accountability as well as empathy for other university members dwindle with increase in demands for relevance, performability and application of skills with limited resources (Bok 2004; Duderstadt & Weber 2006; Brennan 2007). This makes teaching a professional challenge which impacts on lecturers coupled with challenges resulting from research and publication.

(b)   Research as professional challenge

Doing research remains the second major professional responsibility of universities and lecturers. The major objective of research in tertiary education institutions are to address demanding "global issues" relevant to solving labour market and societal issues (Yelland, 2010:1). In so doing, innovative ideas for supporting development and assisting individuals to handle challenges so as to achieve personal and professional progress are created (Umoru, 2013). The challenge facing research has been identified as a lack of basic resources (Ogu, 2008) which in turn has been identified as detrimental to research and publication (Akpan, Archibong & Undie, 2012), resulting in the perception of regarding Nigerian universities as teaching institutions because of a lack of a significant contribution to the world of research (Donwa, 2006). Akpochafo (2009) adds that poor library and laboratory conditions, a lack of collaboration with national and international universities for research projects and a lack of internet connectivity in lecturers' offices cause increasing pressure for lecturers when doing research. Another major challenge identified by the researcher is that the process involved in accessing research funds is time consuming, challenging and it distracts lecturers from focusing on teaching (Egwunyenga, 2008). This raises the concern that the professional growth of many lecturers may remain at national level, because of a lack of funds to engage in innovative research (Okebukola, 2001; Iyela, 2001). Adu (2003) notes further that Nigeria has the highest percentage of authorised tertiary educationally qualified people in sub-Saharan Africa, but has the lowest number of international recognised journals. The National University Commission

(2005) supports by saying that of the 138 Nigerian published university journals, 2.8% (4) were found to meet international standards and 7.2% (10) were declared to have potential to meet international standards. Iyela (2001) expresses the concern that there is much pressure on lecturers to publish for promotion, irrespective of their level of commitment to teaching. Ramsden (2003) expresses the concern that the rejection of papers from international journals, because of poor standards of research is putting greater emotional pressure on lecturers.

(c)   Community engagement as professional challenge

Community engagement is one of the central objectives of higher education institutions all over the world. According to Paton, Fitzgerald, Green, Raymond and Burckhardt (2014) engaging in community activities builds a sense of belonging and ownership. Inman and Shuetez (2010:1) acknowledge that community engagement can be regarded as a shared service in which the community collaborates with the university to produce and distribute knowledge. Australian Universities Community Engagement Alliance (2006) describes community engagement as a means by which the community and the university collaborate in the process of research, to learn and construct meaningful knowledge vital for constructive shaping, improving and strengthening of the university and the community. Hence, the Council on Higher Education (2004b) describes community engagement as an approach for transforming tertiary education using priorities of communities. This partly means that the idea of community engagement as one of the goals of tertiary education is derived from the idea that the university is the centre for creating and distributing knowledge and skills for advancing society (Fourie, 2006), implying that the university as the centre of knowledge creation and distribution will create more innovative ideas with the community, using the available human and material resources within the community.

In this regard, Fitzgerald, Smith, Book, Rodin and CIC Community on Engagement (2005:2) describe community engagement as the partnering of the university with stakeholders to create knowledge and distribute the knowledge to improve curriculum, educational programmes and develop productive occupations to engage citizenries thereby reinforcing classless principles and community accountability. The ideas are to address serious social problems and better the community. This means by partnering with the community there can be an exchange of skills, perception, attitudes, appropriate behaviour and innovative ideas necessary for further development (Schenck, Nel & Louw, 2010). It implies that community education involves a chain of change and improvement, which proceeds from sharing of skills to the creation of innovative ideas for further development of both partners (Schenck, Nel & Louw, 2010). The Carnegie Foundation supported this view for the Advancement of Teaching (2011) when they

stated that the partnership between tertiary education and the communities had the aim to improve their mutual benefits through sharing of knowledge and resources as partners.

From a Nigerian perspective, community engagement is about advocating "Africanness" to international society through the university partnering with the communities (Fourie, 2006:8). The partnering involves a two-way process of interacting, conversing and constructing meaning to understand the mutual potential and problems (Gergen & Gergen, 2004). In this way, Fitzgerald et al. (2005) believe the focus of the partnership will be on engaging in the activities that are a matter of give-and-take and equal in benefit. Cottor et al. (2004) add that equal benefits can result from understanding, appreciating and affirming the existing potential strength and available resources of both partners to use it to humanise team building and properly engage the communities. Harden (2013) argues that community engagement must go beyond the professional role to care and support services to individuals and communities experiencing challenges to build a sense of belonging and social justice amongst members of the community and university.

David et al. (2005) maintain that there are certain benefits when engaging with the community. This may range from building the potential of both the university and the community to improve their personal and professional life. An earlier study of Imhabekhai (1999) laments the fact that community engagement is the most neglected of the goals of tertiary education because of the intensity of the challenges associated with the process. He asserts that community engagement involves identification of the needs and interests of the community, identification of the available resources both human and material resources to ensure successful completion of the projects and quality accommodation to stay within the project time and mobilising of the community members to participate. Imhabekhai (1999) explains that identifying the community needs and interests, increases participation and creates a feeling of ownership to protect the project. He also found that most tertiary institutions go to communities with planned projects with the intention to persuade the community to accept them, leading to outright rejection and hostility towards the institution by the community. Imhabekhai (1999) maintains that role overload resulting from teaching and research often takes time of engaging in community activities.

Okebukola (2005) adds that community engagement demands planning, accountability, time management, determination, support and positivity. She also found in her study that some communities might be very aggressive towards change; to convince them on the benefits of the project may demand committed visits to the community by the lecturer, who may not have time to engage in such visits. Okebukola (2005; 2008b) acknowledges that organising time between

teaching, research and marking assignment and writing papers creates more challenges to the academe.

Another challenge identified by Fourie (2006) is the struggle to link the principles of science based study to the community in an ethical way, implying that some science disciplines do not know ways to link course units to community services without raising ethical issues. Another study identified that some communities might be very aggressive towards change; to convince them on the benefits of the project may demand committed visits. Okebukola (2008b) comments on the pathetic funding allocated to tertiary education and the neglect of most faculties and departments towards funding community activities. He points out that the academes are exposed to immeasurable emotional trauma, as the ambition to fulfil their professional role in the communities' surfaces.

2.9.2   ACADEMIC CHALLENGES

According to Kogan and Teichler (2007) academic institutions are places where creative skills are exercised to increase the power of thinking, speaking and acting without hindrance and restraint. Frick and Kapp (2009:257) characterise an academic as someone who should have scholarly credentials within a specific discipline and who should undergo scholarly assessment and continuing academic development. In order to continue academic progress, Kogan and Teichler (2007) maintain that academic institutions should be places where the academe should be able to speak and act without hindrance or restraint.

Consequently, to perform academic roles in a university requires setting well-defined purposes within an acceptable theoretical foundation (Frick & Kapp, 2009). The above-mentioned academic requirements must align with essential structures in the institution to achieve goals in teaching, research and community engagement. Often, universities lack teaching resources, which in turn, reduce the abilities of lecturers to attain quality in service delivery (Adedeji & Olaniyan, 2011).

Egonmwan, (2001) goes further saying that societal demands and expectations on lecturers are unfair because neither the government nor the society is ready to provide the needed teaching resources. Durosaro, (2001) as well as Akpochafo, (2002) adds that the government of Nigeria has not helped in providing an enabling university environment for quality teaching, so their expectations are uncalled for. Other authors explain that only lecturer-friendly university environments could enhance motivation to achieve through increase in commitment (Adeboyeje, 2000; Onyene, 2005; Akpan, Ekpiken & Okon, 2007). Akpan, (2012) continues by saying that this is because a lack of resources initiates an unfriendly educational environment, which in turn hinders commitment and promotes challenging experiences.

Consequently, Revers (2014:1) defines academic challenges as "work related to universities that needs great mental or physical effort in order to be accomplished successfully and therefore test the individual ability." This description of academic challenges refers to its ability to task the mind and strain the body of individual lecturers. The tasking of the mind might result from stretching the lecture schedules, activities, strategies and processes designed to attain success in teaching, research and community engagement either in non-formal or informal, formal plans of the university (Frick & Kapp 2009). This is because academic challenges can hinder "educational pursuit to which scholars and researchers devote their time and energy", using agreed scientific, subjective and mixed research tools as may be appropriate, to deepen their knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study, and bring out products of research for the improvement of education, society and mankind in general (Akinpelu, 2002:12). The straining of the body may result from striving in creating new knowledge, handling the pressure resulting from publication or perishing as well as problems of commodification/commercialisation of education (Levine, 1997; Grant & Gillette, 2006; Bland, 2008; Taylor & Stanton, 2009).

Engelbrecht, Forlin, Eloff and Swart (2001) suggest that unpreparedness of the institution or lecturers to handle the emerging attitude associated with the demographic profile of students could intensify academic challenges. Ajayi and Adeniji, (2009) express the concern that a faulty university curriculum could add to the intensity of the challenges as lecturers strive to balance the curriculum with standards in the world of work. The Federal Ministry of Education, Nigeria (2009) acknowledges that the course units in many universities are not relevant to realities in the world of work and cannot equip students with soft skills needed for daily living. Okebukola, (2009) adds that the faulty curriculum is made worse with a lack of resources to navigate the identified faults in the curriculum. It may therefore be important to examine academic challenges under the following: lecturing (teaching), research and community engagement.

2.9.2.1 Disruptiveness as academic challenges

Teaching is full of challenges and effective handling of the lecture hall is one of its pressuring challenges (Haugaard, Prilleltensky & Sheras, 2014). Over the years, there is an observable increase in lecture hall disruptive behaviour in African Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) particularly in Nigeria (Mutimucuio, 2011). As Madison Area Technical College, (2014:1:B10) rightfully points out, the unexpected changes in the society are mounting untold pressure on every aspect of academic and it is producing unsafe lecture halls for lecturers.

Madison Area Technical College, (2014:1) defines disruptive behaviour "as an act that is disorderly, that might include but is not limited to that which disrespects, disrupts, harasses, coerces, or abuses, and /or might threaten or harm property or person, so that it interferes with

an orderly classroom, teaching process or learning function." This definition links disruptive behaviour with many negative tendencies, which are evident in emotional acts that, contribute to the breakdown of an emotional, literate climate of the lecture hall. These emotional gestures of acting out include insults, lecture interruptions during lectures that cause general disturbance, the use of emotional inappropriate languages both in a verbal and non-verbal manner, displaying emotional aggression or intimidation capable of causing physical or emotional injury to others.

A number of studies have identified lecture hall disruptive behaviour to include students' addiction to phones; late arrival to lectures and sleeping in class most of the time; very unfriendly behaviour and even unwillingness to be present during the lecture (Adams, 2006; Boice, 2006). These attitudes influence lecturing time in a negative way and cast doubt on the lecturers' ability to manage the lecture hall. These unpleasant circumstances create a very unpleasant experience for the lecturer (Adams, 2006). Boice (2006) adds that disruptive behaviour interrupts learning, get in the way of lecturers' capability to deliver instructions, create an unenthusiastic atmosphere and put unnecessary pressure on lecturers by wasting productive hours.

Adam (2006) goes on to blame lecture hall disruptive behaviour on congestion and a poor public address system. Tierney, (2011) blames lecture hall disruptive behaviour on distress arising from "large classes (200+)." Edomaruse, (2012) links lecture hall disruptive behaviour to poor facilities by stating that in some universities, lecture halls with initial plans to accommodate 30 students now take in 200 or 250 students for lectures. ThisDay University investigation committee (2012) supports this statement by providing evidence with Nigerian experience and asserts that, most Nigerian Universities' lecturers, experience overcrowding in lecture halls, laboratories and libraries.

Additionally, ThisDay, (2012:12) reports that most lecture halls are characterised with old malfunctioning seats, desks, ruined blackboards and broken windows. During lectures "most students hang outside or stand by the windows, in some department students sit on bare floor while some lecture halls have no fans." During rainy periods the roof leaks and they are without adequate lightening, hence, if examinations occur at night, the students are forced to light candles or make use of the torchlight from their handsets (ThisDay, 2012:12). They continue by saying that several departments use the stadium of the university as a lecture hall, while some take place underneath mango trees because of lecture hall shortage or congestion. Lecturer-related student diversity has also been identified as source of academic challenges.

2.9.2.2 Research and publication as academic challenge

The second major role of universities and lecturers is research (Umoru, 2013). Research in any higher education institution is designed towards making progress in developing innovative ideas, "promoting progress and enabling individuals to relate more effectively to their environment, to accomplish their purposes and to resolve their conflicts" (Umoru, 2013:1). This means that research is concerned with the generation of knowledge and ideas to enable individuals to use the information derived to build and broaden knowledge and skills on ways to handle the environment.

The study of Akpan, Archibong and Undie (2012) found that the major focus of many Nigerian universities has been on teaching, which therefore characterises them as teaching institutions. Donwa (2006) affirms that Nigerian universities are regarded as teaching institutions, because they have not contributed significantly to generating innovative ideas in the world of academic research. This means that Nigerian universities are not making a quality contribution to identifying, classifying and explaining as well as predicting ways to understand and handle societal and educational problems.

Akpan, Archibong and Undie (2012) blame the poor contribution to the research world by Nigerian universities on a lack of finances to fund innovative expensive research. According to Akpan, Archibong and Undie (2012) many research initiatives are individually funded because access to grants from the government and foreign agencies are very difficult. It is also bedevilled with bureaucracy and a demanding nature. This means that the process involved in accessing research funds is time consuming, challenging and may distract official roles of lecturing.

Akpan, Archibong and Undie (2012) blame the challenges lecturers face on carrying out research on the government's lack of knowledge on the significance of research to national development. Akpan, Archibong and Undie (2012) also blame this on the inability of the university management to educate lecturers on available opportunities and the process of accessing research funds and a lack of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the offices of lecturers. Egwunyenga, (2008) expresses the concern that an increasing lack of funds and support to lecturers' research initiative cause lecturers to focus on research and publications for promotion.

Adu (2003) laments that Nigeria has the highest number of endorsed institutions of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa but have the lowest number of internationally recognised publications. National University Commission (2005) provided evidence that of 138 Nigerian published university journals 2.8 % (4) were found to meet international standard and 7.2% (10) were declared to have the potential to meet the international standard. Akpochafo (2009) laments that poor library and laboratory conditions, a lack of collaboration with national and

international universities for research projects and a lack of internet connectivity in lecturers' offices are increasing pressure lecturers experience in academic research.

Iyela (2001) expresses the concern that the pressure to publish for promotion, irrespective of commitment to teaching is impacting on the quality of research. Ramsden, (2003) expresses the concern that the poor standards of research will pose greater challenges to the progress of education by delaying the economic progress of the nation. Okebukola, (2001) and Iyela (2001) affirm that a lack of funding is forcing lecturers to look for sources for funds from funding agencies or industries, sometimes compromising academic freedom.

2.9.2.3 Internationalization as academic challenges

According to Altbach and Knight (2011) internationalisation consists of the "policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions-and even individuals-to cope with the global academic environment". Altbach and Knight (2011) explain that the intention behind internationalisation of education is profit making, acquisition of advanced skill and linguistic upgrading for standardising course modules of the home country. The authors maintain that internationalisation of education aims at meeting the needs of the academic market, research individuals and commercial international higher education. This means that the need to create a higher standard to attract more investors, is increasing the quest and competition among universities all over the world.

Hickling Kahwa Munroe Shepherd and Wint (2003) observe the competition among universities and the universities' quest for standards in internationalisation which result in academic challenges. This means that the internationalisation is a matter of commercialisation of higher education, setting standards for quality outcome to retain the power of attracting investors. According to Teferra (2014:1) this quest for internationalisation is turning higher education institutions into commercial products and he describes it as 'corporatization' and a 'market place' of 'business-ship'.

Teferra (2014) underscores the tendency to turn higher education institutions into profit-oriented organisations which destroys its traditional objectives of being public goods. According to this author attaching values to knowledge construction and distribution to make it a profit-oriented product, is immeasurable. Teferra (2014) further points out that applying the values of trade and industry to higher education are not sustainable because the academe is highly covered by academic autonomy and he further argues that commercialisation of higher education institutions exerts an influence on the quality of institutions, specifically, in the process of striving to produce quality for its students.

With regard to academic challenges, Arkoudis and Tran (2010) found that international students with English as second language experience challenges in academic writing resulting lecturers to experience of pressure. Chakanika (1995) acknowledges that differences in spoken language and the pattern of writing are frustrating lecturers that could not navigate to make meaning out of the students' terms. Foster, (2014) adds that language skills are vital in studying as international students, because it empowers communication but most international students lack it. Many lecturers make an effort to ensure that students get value for the invested money by ensuring that there is proper learning of effective communication in every aspect of academic writing (Doyle et al., 2010; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011; Bodycott, 2012; Forsey et al., 2012). These financial obstacles have intensified the challenges which lecturers experience.

Some scholars argue that institutions must help students improve the linguistic skills, because it is one of the reasons for studying outside the country (Teichler & Jahr 2001; Goldstein & Kim 2006; Daly 2011). Coffin, Curry, Goodman, Hewings, Lissis and Swann (2005) assert that student writing is an unseen course module for lecturers, specifically, in marking students' examinations scripts, assignment and research projects. Arkoudis and Tran (2010) explain that most universities do not have language support units. This left many international students unguided and caused lecturers to bear the pressure because of poor academic writing. Ryan and Carroll (2005) state that many lecturers experience pressure as they strive to understand the message the student is trying to convey in writing.

Kingston and Forland, (2005) and Trice (2003, 2005) posit that lecturers are unprepared to handle language problems of international students and university management is not providing the necessary support. This means that many universities are after profit making, thereby making students to become customers and lecturers sales personnel who bear the burden to ensure that the institution makes the profit. According to Hirsch and Weber (1999) looking upon students as customers and the university as industry that must produce to meet the needs and desires of the customers do not promote quality, but rather cause it to become a banking system of education. Goran and Greg (2007) argue that education is creating knowledge through ethical relationships, so labelling students as customers and universities as producers and suppliers do not portray a healthy relationship. They express the concern that students as customers imply that they are to purchase finished goods (banking method) from their suppliers (universities) with limited knowledge on how the goods are produced.

Goran and Greg (2007) insist that students as customers, give undue authority to students to demand for their money's worth though they did not merit it leading to comprising quality. This means that students can see lecturers as sale representatives that can be abused, humiliated and treated with disdain, because the customer has money to pay. Goran and Greg (2007)

furthermore maintain that the production of knowledge between student and university must be interactive and collaborative, each contributing to the construction of meaning and creation of knowledge.

Driscoll and Wicks (1998:60) on the other hand argue: "… that venerating student needs may be detrimental to higher education in the long run, because the need for a quality education is not patently clear in the minds of all students (or potential students)" and as such a customer orientation cannot ensure high quality programmes. Driscoll and Wicks (1998) are informative in their interpretation that students' perception of their desired quality in education may be alien to the university-set goals. Students may not understand the dangers of their assumed quality. This implies that students as customers can only create damage to the quality of service delivery and production in education. Delmonico (2000) adds that sometimes institutions bestow on student opportunities to assess circumstances that they (students) barely have knowledge of. The author expresses the fear that it could increase pride and arrogance and thereby reduce quality interactional processes within the institution.

Herbst (2007) maintains that the value of an institution is engraved in its produce and the quality of relationships that is behind such produce. This means that labelling students as customers and the university as suppliers destroy the academic integrity the university upholds and cordial relationships that foster a peaceful environment.

2.9.2.4   Diversity as academic challenge

Institutions comprise people from diverse cultures, ecologies, demographics, religions, and educational background as well as racial backgrounds with implications for the way they perceive, think and act (Pearce & Robinson, 2009). According to Cuseo (2010:2) "diversity embraces such educationally significant differences among students as: gender, racial, ethnic, or cultural background (e.g. under-represented minority students and majority students), socioeconomic status (e.g. parental level of education, family income), chronological age (e.g. traditional and returning students), residential status (e.g. commuters and campus residents), national citizenship i.e. domestic or international students), learning style, personality profile, religious preferences and sexual orientation. Kinicki and Kreitner (2009) continue by saying that diversity could influence viewpoints, principles, attitudes, decisions and communication patterns and reaction towards challenges, implying that diversity can impact on the way institutions function because of inability to integrate different cultures. A study by Sanchez, Haro and Navarro (2001) found that the institutions without the ability to transform diversity into a valuable asset promote unfairness and a negative attitude towards unwanted groups. Several studies affirm that institutions with discriminatory attitudes towards certain culture; population group and gender (see Diaz, Aguado, 1995; de Haro, Rodriguez, 1995; 1997;

Figueroa, 1995; Hoff, 1995) treat them negatively and differently. An earlier work of Allport (1954) as well as Feagin and Eckberg (1980) found that discriminators treat people differently by refusing to give them a fair chance to be heard, promoted or given career opportunities. Harrell (2000) and also Neighbors and Jackson (2003) examined discriminatory behaviour in everyday institutions and found that discriminatory behaviours create emotions of anxiety because the individual or group discriminated against are pressured with emotions of rejection.

Several research studies explored discriminatory attitudes within institutions and found that misjudgement of the individual's capacity to produce quality work in assigned roles leads to discrimination (Pyburn, Ployhart & Holtz, 2008; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008; Heller, 2008). A study by Meisinger (2008) found that discriminatory attitudes limit individuals discriminated against from contributing to the institutions intelligently. Some research studies confirm that discrimination due to diversity is engraved in incorrect labelling and bias of a group leading assigning of roles to less competent individuals (Kulik, Pepper, Roberson & Parker, 2007; Ragin, Singh & Cornwell, 2007). Several studies found that this unaccommodating and unfriendly behaviour exposes the excluded lecturers to emotional vulnerability because of the display of rejection (Fisher, 2006; Colarelli, Spranger & Hechanova, 2006; Scott, 2008). A study by Cloud (2009) found that such individuals could disconnect from others, which in turn distorts good relationships needed for high performance and quality in productivity in education. There are studies that reported that the inability to adapt to change leads to discrimination against the initiators of such innovation (Kulik, Pepper, Roberson & Parker, 2007; Ragin, Singh & Cornwell, 2007).

Ostrom (2005) asserts that diversity is a contributing factor to proper functioning of the institution, because role performance involves connecting with diverse people to achieve common goals. Bronfenbrenner (1979) emphasises the importance of interaction and warmness in enhancing personal and institutional progress. The concept of 'warmness" refers to collection of behaviours associated with the way people are treated. Such qualities embrace friendliness, helpfulness, and trustworthiness which can be regarded as the level of acceptability and rejection in this study (Williams & Bargh, 2008:1-2). This implies that Bronfenbrenner (1979) perceives warmness as a contributing factor to individual and institutional growth, because it is an indicator of acceptability. This further implies that diversity could create a better organisation if the different individuals whom lecturers bring to the institutions are harnessed and utilised (Allen, 2005; Griswold, 2013). It also implies that inability to harness and positively use the benefit of diversity can disrupt the proper functioning of the university.

In this regard, the studies of Miner-Rubino and Cortina (2007); and Farrell (2008) suggest equipping lecturers with skills to enable them to overcome bias associated with dislike of certain

individuals or groups. However, some scholars believe that the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges could be understood more adequately through the examination of the relationship between ecosystemic challenges and emotional intelligence.

Another area of concern revealed in the study of Cuseo (2010) was that diversity determines the extent students can access information, create meaning and construct scholarly knowledge out of it. Donald Lazarus and Lowland (2012) pinpoint that diversity impacts on students' way of understanding course modules because according to Weiten (2013) belief systems influence perceptions. Hence, Tettey (2010) highlights that exposing lecturers to diversity with limited resources is a greater challenge. According to NCATE (2008:12) lecturers must seek to "acquire and demonstrate the knowledge, skills and professional temperament necessary to help all students learn". This means that lecturers are expected to understand each student individually to help solve their academic problems, although, studies identified that understanding students' differences enhanced academic success (Barry & Lechner 1995; Horenczyk & Tatar 2002; Symeonidou & Phtiaka 2009; Hachfeld et al., 2011), however, the applicability in overpopulated lecture halls remains questionable.

Some authors argue that striving to understand and connect with students' individually as well as provide student-centred lecture is resulting in intense pressure (Opdenakker & Van Damme 2006; Brante 2009; Kukla-Acevedo 2009). This implies that lecturers experience lots of pressure in striving to understand and relate to their students on a one-one basis (Sachs 2005; Klug Bruder Kelava Spiel Schmitz 2012; Steyn 2012). This may continue to be a challenge with the increasing internationalisation of education.

2.9.3 INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES

An institution is defined as a system of organised activities coordinated and managed by individuals with the aim of achieving common goals, formulated and guided by policies, rules and regulations to bring together both human and material resources within different faculties and departments for the achievement of common goals. A study by Fourie (2006) as well as Kogan and Teichler (2007) found that tertiary institutions are experiencing problems in human and material resources resulting in the inability to generate, transfer and apply scientific and non-scientific methods to produce innovative ideas for human development. Kogan and Teichler (2007) maintain that the challenges of tertiary education are heightened by forces from external environments such as adoption of global trends in education without adequate preparation and resources. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2012) are of the opinion that a lack of resources impacts on the whole units because resources and activities must function cooperatively to achieve the goals of the institutions and dysfunctionality in any unit distorts the appropriate functioning of the entire system.

In this regard, this study defines institutional challenges as a set of factors from the internal and external environment to impact on explicit application of philosophical rules that govern the objectives and management of tertiary education, and disrupt the application of pragmatic readiness and life skills essential for effective organisation and management to institutions towards maximising performance to achieve the goals of tertiary education. The relationship between philosophical rules, pragmatic readiness and life skills is derived from the fact that institutions are governed by a set of philosophies, which is used to make ethical decision in the management of institutions and its activities (Maduka, 2004). Pragmatic readiness and life skills are required to implement the already-made ethical decision. Institutions experience challenges and neglect to engage the philosophical guidelines in logical reasoning to seek ways to handle the challenges; this in turn impacts on quality in service delivery and products produced in education (Egonmwan, 2002). Durosaro (2002), with fewer resources, suggests that applying governing institutional philosophies helps in tapping every available resource to facilitate acquisition of required facilities for quality teaching and research to achieve less pressure on the academics. Freire (1972) who is widely recognised for inventing the pedagogy of the oppressed, states that every human and institution should be guided by meaningful objectives and philosophical orientations to measure performance, relevance and the inability of the institutions in handling challenges. Institutions that engage in the application of philosophical rules, pragmatic readiness and life skills create meaningful discussions on better practice to achieve top performance of the lecturers and a stable environment (Akinpelu, 2002). Institutions with challenges may be pressured to neglect the importance of philosophical rules, pragmatic readiness and life skills in ensuring smooth navigation of challenges leading to emotional

experiences which impact on professional and personal success of lecturers and institutions (Goleman, 2004). Based on the aforementioned, this study focused and discussed the concepts of philosophical rules, pragmatic readiness and life skills within the domains of institutional challenges in the section.

2.9.3.1 Philosophical rules of the institutions

Philosophy guides the direction of every institution, because it deepens the abilities to diagnose, analyse and explain problems in any field involving human effectiveness and ethical considerations (The Philosophy Major, 2002). In most tertiary education institutions, the institutions are expected to:

- preserve and develop their crucial functions through the exercise of ethics, scientific and intellectual rigour in their various activities; and

- voice their opinions on ethical, cultural and social problems, completely independently and in full awareness of their responsibilities, exercising a kind of intellectual authority that society needs to help it to reflect, understand and act (UNESCO, 1998: Article 2:59 a & b on Ethical roles).

The ethical roles of tertiary education provide an ethical basis for reflective thinking and logical reasoning (Akinpelu, 2001) in ways of handling institutional challenges. Reflective thinking is driven by the desire to understand the challenges within institutional rules (Gary & Rozycki, 2007). Logical reasoning is also driven by the desire to ensure that decisions made after reflective thinking is a suitable approach for handling or preventing challenges (Akinpelu, 2001). This means that philosophical guiding principles of any institution influence procedures for handling challenges in an ethical manner, which in turn, help in uncovering a diverse approach with unanticipated opportunities (Gary & Rozycki; 2007; Zunjic, 2015).

According to Maduka (1991:35) the application of the rigorous, systematic and logical reasoning of philosophy is often neglected in handling institutional challenges, but the process encourages an in-depth understanding of institutional strengths and weaknesses which pushes the university management to think between the lines before engaging in any action (Akinpelu, 2001), particularly, with regard to resource allocation and managing institutional conflict. EFA Global Monitoring Report (2005:31) goes on to say that resources must be allocated to "respond to the needs and priorities of the students and their teachers." The problem is the management of most universities hides behind a lack of funds to deprive the lecturers the basic resources for teaching, research and in engaging in community activities (Ogu, 2008). Studies have also shown that most institutions experience conflict between lecturers and government, lecturers and university management, lecturers and colleagues and lecturers and students, which

sometimes escalate from minor disagreement, frustration, aggression to full blown conflict or strike (Ejiogu, 1990; Sanda,1992; Alabi, 2002). Several authors found that the managerial approach to managing conflict at a minor level has led to a total breakdown in relationships, law and closure of institutions (Adejuwon & Okewale, 2009; Adeyemi, Ekundayo & Alonge, 2010; Fatile & Adejuwon, 2011). Managerial inability to handle institutional challenges was also identified in the study of Etim and Okey (2013) who assert that most institutions often ignore the cues of conflict or use forces as management approach. To solve this problem, university management must apply philosophical rules guiding the institutions to build commitment to work and professional bonding relationships (Akinpelu, 2001). Figure 2.3 summarises simple application of philosophical rules of the university towards successful handling of institutional challenges as conceptualised in this study.

Philosophical rules of the university

Reflective thinking | Logical reasoning

Appropriate decision-making

Faculty | Department

University Goals

Teaching | Research | Community engagement
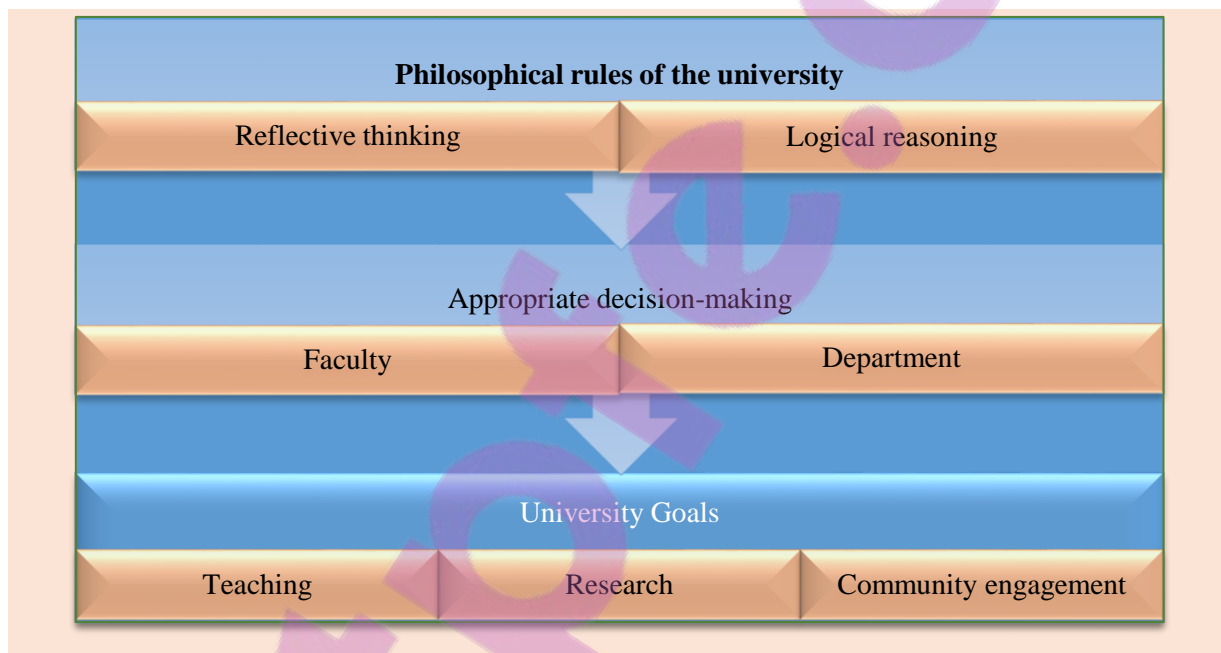
Figure 2.3: A representation of philosophical awareness

The diagram above illustrates the conceptualised process of applying philosophical rules to assist in the handling of institutional challenges. The arrow shows the directions of the process. The first arrow of the philosophical rule points towards reflective thinking and logical reasoning. It indicates that philosophical rules engage reflective thinking and logical reasoning in making decisions on ways to handle institutional challenges. The second arrow indicates that appropriate decisions made, need to be organised and applied in the faculty and department to achieve the university goals of teaching, research and community engagement. However, pragmatic readiness of some institution has been hampered, because of managerial style. In this study the extent to which institutions apply philosophical rules in handling challenging situations, was examined.

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2.9.3.2 Pragmatic-readiness

According to Sleeper (2001) pragmatism is a philosophical concept that respects the past through its obligation to improve the present with the hope to better the future. Cohen (1999) supports that pragmatism believes that human experiences are real and reality is changing constantly and solutions posed by the changes must be solved using the experiences as they emerge. Stone (2011) adds that the pragmatists use experiences to solve problems after mapping out the consequences of the selected experiences and possible solutions. Cohen (1999) explains that pragmatists believe that handling challenges with experiences prepares individuals for success, implying that pragmatists focus on application of solutions to reduce problems. Simon (2004) agrees that pragmatism is about solving problems with appropriate knowledge of the past. Simon went on to explain that pragmatists conceptualise solving problems as a continuous process which must be handled as they emerge using human experience.

With regard to this study, the Cambridge Dictionary Online (2015:1) defines pragmatics as solving problems in a sensible way that suits the conditions that really exist now, rather than obeying fixed theories, ideas or rules. Pragmatic readiness is therefore concerned with applying standards of efficiency, functionality and practicality in handling institutional challenges to accomplish the established goals (Rosenthal, 2014). Pragmatic readiness seeks for practical willingness to handle institutional challenges with data derived from the experiences of lecturers. This is to enable factual understanding of the trends of institutional challenges to draw attention to unconsidered issues and organise discourse for possible solution. Simon (2004) endorses the view that pragmatic readiness promotes focusing of attention to a more serious factor creating institutional challenges to achieve accountability and commitment in dealing with institutional challenges.

Pragmatic readiness is about the managerial behaviour of implementing ethical oriented decisions to ensure lecturers' work in an enabling environment. In this study, the conceptualised process of pragmatic readiness is presented in Figure 2.4.
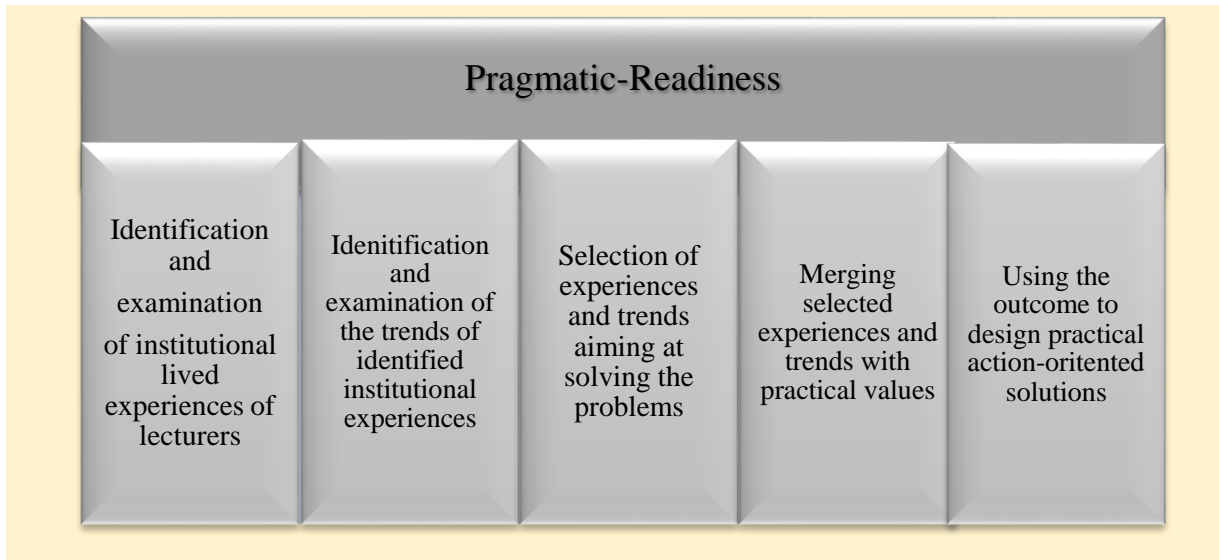
Figure 2.4: A representation of pragmatic readiness

In most institutions practical willingness to implement strategies for handling challenges has been a struggle resulting in an increase in working with pressure for most academics. It has become increasingly difficult for most institutions to display empathy and practical willingness to handle institutional challenges. Maduka (2003) argues clearly that pragmatic readiness to act entails a process to ensure implementation of policies in a balanced way and after going through pragmatic readings, the researcher conceptualises the illustration in Figure 2.4 as a diagrammatic presentation of five major activities involved in developing pragmatic readiness. The first step is the identification and examination of institutional experiences to identify minor and major experiences with factors initiating the experience and evidence of an institutional attempt to handle the challenges. The second step is the identification and examination of the trend of the identified experiences. The third step is the selection from the selected experience and trend to initiate a solution. The fourth step is the merging of selected experiences and trends for implementation. This is very important; according to Maduka (2003) pragmatists believe that change is consistent as a result there must be a constant review of strategies to ensure it aligns with the proposed solution. The fifth step is the use of information derived from the whole steps to design action-oriented solutions. Institutions can use pragmatic readiness to reduce challenges and curtail conflicts. Brendel (2006) maintains that pragmatic readiness is capable of bridging differences amongst concerned parties such as the government, university management and the trade union to create an enabling ecosystemic environment. Thus, pragmatic readiness goes beyond an in-depth understanding of the challenges. It stresses taking practical action to handle the challenges. However, some scholars believe that solving problems demands more than just action-oriented strategies but life skills such as emotional intelligence (Strydom, 2011).

2.9.3.3 Life skills and emotional intelligence awareness

The role of an institution is to create an enabling environment for the academe to function productively (Aluede, 2007). Most institutions express dissatisfaction with the increasing pressure to produce quality with limited resources (ThisDay, 2012). With life skills such as emotional intelligence individual lecturers may develop lifelong coping strategies to face the increasing workload and resulting emotional experiences (Egbochuku, 2012). A study conducted by Evans and Ave (2000) reports that the acquisition of life skills enable individuals and management to navigate challenges successfully, because emotionally intelligent individuals excel more than others in solving problems (Hutchinson, 2000).

With the increase in professional and academic challenges, the institutional environment is pressured with consistent challenges in handling shortfalls in human and material resources. In institutions without life skills such as emotional intelligence, the academics are pressured to perceive challenges as threats to the achievement of a significant position leading to an increase in emotional action activities to curb the threat (Strydom, 2011). Emotional intelligence is vital because it is significant in reading and guiding patterns of emotional display to ensure that problems are solved wisely (Mayer & Salovey, 2009). A study conducted by Goleman (2005) in the workplace revealed that job performance increased with emotional intelligence. A study by Ciarrochi, Scott, Deane and Heaven (2003) found that low emotional intelligence, results in an inability to handle challenges without emotional outburst. Strydom (2011:107) asserts that low emotional intelligence increases in experience of emotions of hurt, confusion and anger resulting in physical aggression and violent action. In Nigeria, with consistent conflict within the system, lecturers need life skills to guarantee coping with the experienced emotions. In life skills such as emotional intelligence, individual lecturers need to be exposed to a variety of emotional competence to ensure suitable choice because of individual differences in perception and mental abilities. These considerations lead to the conceptualisation of Figure 2.6 as possible illustration for building meta-emotional intelligence to increase adaptation, change and coping with the institutional environment.
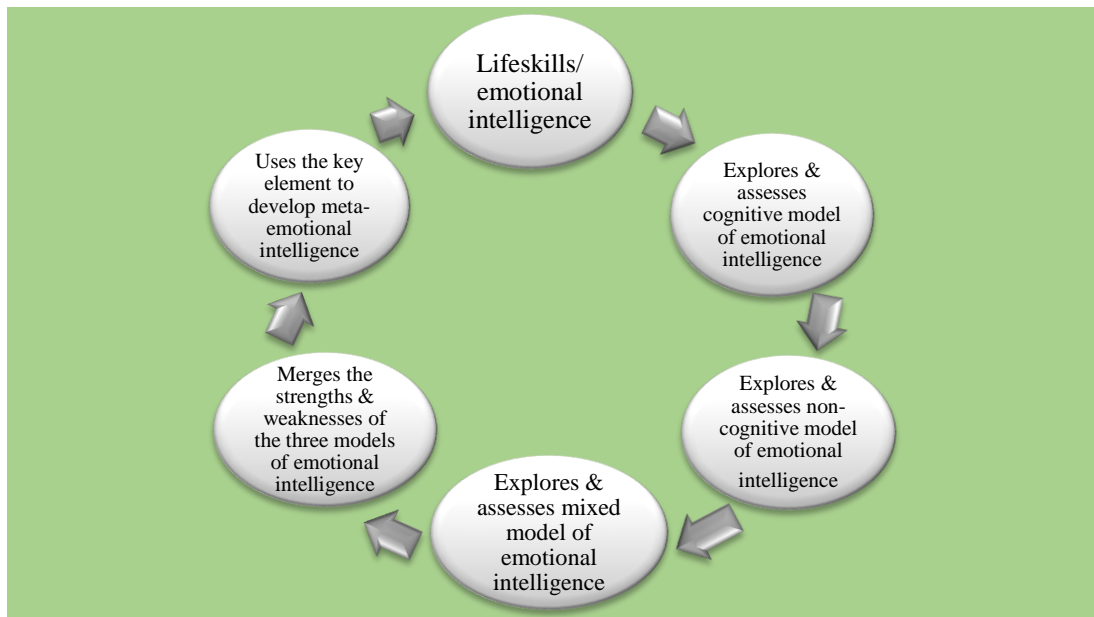
Figure 2.5: Life skills or emotional intelligence

Figure 2.5 illustrates the conceived series of actions for understanding the application of life skills such as emotional intelligence in handling institutional challenges. The first circular flow of the top centre contains the major theme: life skills/emotional intelligence. The second circular flow on the right contains the exploration and assessment of cognitive models of emotional intelligence to identify key elements for possible application to institutional challenges. The third flow downwards underneath the second circular is an exploration and assessment of non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence and the fourth is the investigation and analysis of a mixed-model of emotional intelligence. The fifth is the identification and merging of the strength and weaknesses to create a dialogue that can help to identify key elements for the development of meta-emotional intelligence for handling institutional challenges. The arrows indicate the connection to the flow for easier understanding. These key elements of emotional intelligence are vital in promoting commitment to accept, handle and adapt challenges positively (Hutchinson, 2000). Hence, Nelson and Low (2011) maintain that individuals' low ability to adapt needs change orientation and it is discussed in the next subsection.

2.9.3.4 Change orientation

According to Nelson and Low (2011) change orientation defines the extent to which an individual or an institution is unhappy or happy with the degree of change required for personal and professional growth. They further explain that change orientation includes the degree of enthusiasm and readiness to change. They maintain that change orientation is manifested in the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction reflecting in present emotional skills. Nelson and Low

(2011) add that a high degree for the need for change orientation is an indication of unhappiness with the present personal and emotional skills. Kauffman (2005) and Babbel (2010) point out that unhappy experiences could result in physical weaknesses and constant expression of dissatisfaction. Other studies link emotional distress to general body pain in neck, shoulder, stomach aches, tightening of the chest, chest pains, heart palpitations and difficulty in breathing making sleep difficult without prescribed drugs (Quan & Tally, 2002; Takeuchi et al., 2003; Dinan et al., 2006; Klein et al., 2007; Chang, 2011; Feigenbaum, 2012; Zabri & Kie, 2012). These above-mentioned studies describe the importance of change orientation in ecosystemic challenges. Nelson and Low (2011) maintain that change orientation is a positive emotional skill that promotes healthy change and progress. Studies have also shown that some institutions need change orientation, particularly to curb the problems of managing institutional diversity (Diaz, Aguado, 1995; de Haro, Rodriguez, 1995; 1997; Figueroa, 1995; Hoff, 1995) and it is further discussed in the next subsection.

2.9.3.5   Role overload

According to Shultz, Wang and Olson (2009) the inability to meet the demands of a job within a given time because of multiple roles is impacting on the academe. Brumels and Beach (2008) point out that role overload leads to completion of job description on time but with lack of quality and efficiency. Conley and Woolsey (2000) conceptualise role overload as an outcome of having much work to complete at a limited time. Barkhuizen and Rothman (2007) assert that role overload is impacting on the well-being of the academe. Idris (2011) also maintains that role overload is creating emotional pressure for the academe. Both Winefield (2000) and Kinman and Jones (2004) postulate that the academe experiences intense emotional pressure, because of a role overload. This implication of the findings is that the academe is under emotional siege which impacts on their performance and functioning.

Studies of Peiro et al. (2001) and Posig and Kickul (2003) identify and label emotions of anxiety as prominent in their study. Peiro et al. (2001) explain that the emotions of anxiety are resulting from high expectations attached to the roles. Gillespie et al. (2001) further explain that the experience of anxiety is associated with challenges limiting the ability to complete the tasks on time. Gillespie et al. (2001) link the challenges to lack of suitable resources as the key challenge to complete a task within stipulated time. Other studies express fear that workers caught up in role overload experience intense emotions that expose them to different forms of illnesses (Rau, 2004; Sarafin, 2005; Wright & Diamond, 2006). Some critics identify heart disease and blood pressure as the leading disease (Gardell, 1981; Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Johnson & Johansson, 1991). Johnson and Tores (2011:1) also assert that heart problems are a major disease and may stretch to include "coronary heart disease (CHD), hypertensive disease,

cerebrovascular disease and other disorders of the heart and circulatory system" if pressure continues and is ignored.

Goleman (2004:76) explains that pressure affects the heart, because when an individual is anxious, hormones released in the brain shoot up the heart rate, increase blood sugar levels and slow down less relevant body functions to enforce strategy for survival. Several researchers assert that the continuous trigger and secretion of these hormones may become habits that last for a long time and increase threats to the heart (Glascher & Adolphs, 2003; Skuse Morris & Dolan, 2005; Gallagher, 2012). Several researchers support that the long-time effect of consistent release of hormones impacts on the body by decreasing the immune system and vitality (Kemeny, 2003; Lawson, Pelton, Towey & Georgious, 2009). Researchers posit that frustration, anger, rage, anxiety, depression, headache and migraines may increase the medical toll of disease (Takeuchi, Nakao, Nishikitani & Yano, 2003; Klein *et al.,* 2007; Osborn, 2010; Chang, 2011; Padus & Prevention Magazine, 2012).

Chang (2011) conducted a study on anxiety and maintains that increase in irritation and anxiety can reduce work concentration and the ability to make good decisions leading to unsuccessful completion of work. Bhattacharya and Muruganandam (2003) and Babbel (2010) acknowledge that depression increases cortisol, blood sugar and glucose levels leading to cognitive deficits and cortisol action decreases cognitive performance such as the speed of processing information, eye-hand coordination, verbal and visual memory (Lee, Glass, McAtee, Wand, Bandeen-Roche, Bolla & Schwartz, 2007). This is because of higher levels of cortisol that steal energy resources vital for working memory and exploits them negatively (Goleman, 2004). This implies that institutions exposing their academe to role overload are reducing their quality of life and well-being.

2.9.3.6 Work condition

According to Asiyai (2005) the work conditions at most universities has been deemed complicated and unpleasant reflecting wrecked structures with poor ventilation, poor electrification and equipment that are old in a miserable and incapacitating states. Odetunde (2004) expresses concern that lecturers share small offices leaving them with little comfort and privacy. Okebukola (2005) provides evidence that 30% of universities in Nigeria have basic resources for teaching, research and engaging in community activities such as laboratories, studio, lecture halls, workrooms and libraries giving rise to constant strikes by the academe.

Olatoye (2011) asserts that access to information technology is lacking in most universities forcing lecturers to buy their own Internet unit incurring extra-unbudgeted expenditures. Other studies found that lack of information technology is impacting on the quality of teaching and

research (Akomolafe, 2008; Onwumere, 2008; Sulaiman, 2008; Asiyai, 2010). Another study by Asiyai (2006) provides evidence that the academe is showing displeasure of the working conditions through incessant strikes by Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and the Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU). Asiyai (2006) continues by saying that the government's lack of commitment to agreement signed with lecturers' trade unions has heightened the conflict. Adeboye (2003) concludes that the tension between the academe's trade union and the government increases hostility amongst them and lowers the quality of education.

2.10   THE IMPACT OF PROFESSIONAL, ACADEMIC AND INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES ON LECTURERS IN REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS

This section discusses the professional, academic and institutional challenges and the impact on lecturers in regional and international context of research in higher education. According to Glass (2014) even though every single higher education institution has its peculiar problems, the challenges encountered by institutions the world over are remarkably alike. The similarities in challenges experienced are discussed by Glass (2014:3) who identifies these as a "concern for quality, the struggle to balance modern governance models with traditional academic values and missions, and the push for scholastic excellence while coping with shrinking resources." Huston, Meyer and Paewai (2006) maintain that most lecturers from regional and international contexts of higher education experience intense pressure from professional, academic and institutional challenges. Jenkins (2004) explains that the tension resulting from balancing time and commitment to teaching and research to avoid potentially undersirable impacts and counterproductive behaviours. Harman (2001, 2002, 2003) pinpoints the workload as the source of the experience of added pressure among the academic staff. Kinman (1998) reveals that higher education institutions are prone to pressure, because it is an inevitable distinctive aspect of natural life. Blix, Cruise, Mitchell and Blix (1994) add that working under long-lasting pressure intensifies the negative perceptions of working conditions in institutional environments.

In the UK, a new survey on academic staff revealed the experience of high pressure and the staff said the experience of work pressure is unacceptable, because it has an impact on their well-being (Kinman & Jones, 2001; Spector et al., 2005). Researchers in UK identify higher education as one of the most pressured systems (Tyers et al, 2009).

This study confirms the previous findings that academic staff are "poorly paid, over strained, demotivated and discouraged" (Blampied & Wallace, 2001; Fish & Fraser, 2001; Forlin, 2001; Gillespie et al., 2001; Kinman, 2001; Paulik, 2001; Schonfeld, 2001; Taris et al., 2001; van

Dick & Wagner, 2001; Winefield & Jarrett, 2001; Winter & Sarros, 2002, Smithers, 2003; Association for University Teachers (AUT), 2003; Winefield et al., 2003). Similarly a study in a Dutch institution of higher education reveals job pressure and emotional withdrawal amongst academic staff (Taris, Schreurs & Van Leersel-Van Silfhout, 2001).

One of the impacts on professional, academic and institutional challenges on lecturers in regional and international contexts is a decline in reciprocal interaction, because of an increased workload, striving to meet official deadlines. Studies found that workload creates emotional fluctuations and tiredness (Ivancevich, Konopske & Matteson, 2002) leaving them with less time for relationships. Without suitable managerial care offered, individual lecturers strive to finish their jobs with unhappiness and with fewer time for friends (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001; Anderson, Richard & Saha, 2002; Monnapula-Mapesela, 2002; Barkhuizen, Rothman & Tytherleigh, 2004; Olivier & Venter, 2004; Ofoegbu & Nwadani, 2006).

Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough (2001) point out that the impact on lecturers manifests in a display of anger, embitterment and feelings of inferiority and abandonment. Some researchers believe that these feelings could destroy the socialisation process within the system, because of lack or trust (Jarvis, 2002; Chang & Lu, 2007). Many researchers acknowledge that mood swings could promote work conflict, lack of control and inappropriate decisions that impact on relationships (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000; Goleman, 2004; Tytherleigh et al., 2005). Some studies add that positive attitude drives positive manners and improved outcomes and mood swings can produce negative manners and destroy relationships in any given environment (Bar-On et al, 2000, Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Mayer et al, 2000; Goleman, 2004).

There are many reasons for pressure resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges, embracing psychological, physical and behavioural aspects (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008). Lecturers' emotional inconsistency and conceptualisation of the pressure could impact the state of mind subjecting them to relationship withdrawal (Oduaran, 2001) furthering physical display of low morale. For instance, as a 2016 study Hunter (2016:1) claims that budget slashes on education in Malaysia have exerted a powerful influence on lecturers' morale as many universities overseas are retrenching lecturers, slashing faculty operational costs including stationary, air-conditioning, and travel expenses. Some authors argue that reduction on lecturers' physical comfort could impact on behaviour leading to negative display, for example, in Uganda studies on selected universities have shown that low salaries have influenced staff welfare and behaviour such as avoidance of classes (Bukenya, 2016). These realities of poor funding leave academic staff with intense pressure more than ever before

(Altbach, 2002), because they work more for less (ASSU, 2011). Some authors argue that academic staff experiences more pressure when they compare salaries and workload with colleagues around the world particularly in Canada (Rumbley, et al., 2008). Demoralisation of lecturers could foster (Ramdass & Kruger, nd.) poor interpersonal relationships for lecturers that are not accustomed to the impact of the challenges (Oduaran, 2001).

Several studies have tried to define the connection between the impact of the pressure lecturers experience from professional, academic and institutional challenges in regional and international contexts of research in higher education. According to Donaldson and O' Toole (2000) relationships demand behavioural and attitudinal commitment. Ethical physical connections in academic environment demands readiness to sustain the relationship, but most of the work commitment becomes a frustrating factor building on existing factors. Ofoegbu and Nwadani (2006) believe that inability of lecturers to go on leave puts them at a disadvantage, moving away from responsibilities to help fighting stress and lower relationship commitment (Patterson & Smith 2001).

In Australia, most states report an increasing number of annual workers' reimbursement dues ensuing after office pressure (Caulfield, Chang, Dollard & Elshaug, 2004). Organisations provide a major aspect of pressure experienced by academic staff that affects their interactional process within the academic environment (DeFrank & Cooper, 1987). Studies agree social cognition in any given environment promotes shared solutions to pressures resulting from professional academic and institutional environments (Goleman, 2007). Unfortunately, studies have acknowledged that pressure has become long-lasting disrupting individual interactional processes which in turn impact on social environments. This is evident in the studies of Kinman (2013) who asserts that pressure on higher education is impacting on academic staff, families and well-being.

Noblet, Faragher and Cooper (2003) emphasise comprehensive solutions to restore and reduce the pressure on academics, while others suggest restructuring occupations to transform office pressure through increasing the ability to make good decisions, provide support and free treatment (Arthur, 2000; Bond & Bunce, 2000; Murphy & Sauter, 2003; Richardson & Rothstein,2008).

From a regional perspective, there is no marked difference in the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on lecturers in higher education institutions both as far as national and international spheres are concerned. The impact according to extensive literature is on physical, psychological and well-being which in turn impacts on self-management and socialisation processes. These similarities in impact could be likened to the similarities of the challenges.

In countries like Latin America, Eastern Europe and Central Asia and Eastern Asia, the shift in funding lead to cost-sharing and high reliance on the private sector. This has increased challenges in inequity and inefficiencies, high non-payment rates on student loans, and the insufficient financial autonomy of private higher education institutions (OECD, 2014). Higher education institutions in European institutions (HEIs) in recent times reported facing numerous internal challenges in making an effort to alter their funding models (Pijano & Scott, 2014). Popular among the challenges is dealing with structures that limit strategies and decisions on appropriate outside investors. Other internal obstacles faced by European HEIs include the lack of expertise and capability at administrative level to initiate revenue diversification and to reduce inconsistency presently experienced (Pijano & Scott, 2014; OECD, 2014).

In countries like Malaysia, higher education analyst John (2015) reports that poor funding impacts on infrastructure for groundbreaking research and scientific breakthrough or opening of a global level research and education centers. Some authors have argued that professional, academic and institutional challenges facing African universities originate from funding, lack of capacity building for management, evaluation and accountability (University World News, 2013). As Olonisakin (2007) points out, poor funding has increased conflict between universities and trade unions and caused job mismatches and lack of professional training.

Another key area of challenges identified by Pijano and Scott (2014) is that massification (mass participation as against elite system) is stretching universities to go beyond their capacity to meet students' needs and conform to societal expectations. The challenges of massification and internationalisation in higher education institutions (HEIs) are also experienced in developing countries. Altbach, Reisberg and Rumble (2009) explain that massification has placed tension on developing countries with distinct pressures on infrastructure such as congested lecture halls; old-fashioned reading rooms, fewer care for faculty research, deteriorating office blocks, damage and brain drain of greatest brilliant faculty members. Other studies similarly put forward that impact in infrastructures is felt more severely by academic staff that has to share office space, as Knight (2006) and Rinne (2008) explain without appropriate policy to recognise and successfully manage these challenges, it could result in serious risks, mostly for developing countries.

2.11 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ECOSYSTEMIC CHALLENGES AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In this chapter the theoretical framework of Bronfenbrenner (1997) provides an ecosystemic perspective that explores, the influence of interactions between lecturers and the various layers of their environment (both internal and external). The theory posits that within the tertiary environment individual lecturers interact with each other and their immediate environment

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(Bronfenbrenner, 1994). The interaction within the immediate environment is influenced by the external environment, which the lecturer has no control over.

Bronfenbrenner (1994) posits that the forces of the external environment determine people's ability to make progress in personal and professional life to a very great extent. The application of the ecosystemic perspective to understand the challenges lecturers are experiencing involved a critical examination of the three domains of the challenges (professional, academic and institutional challenges) and their occurrence within the microsystem (Campbell, 2014). This means that I, from an ecosystemic perspective, examined the embedded nature of challenges within the systems and the way they interacted to influences and were influenced by the lecturers.

The ecosystemic challenges of this study were grouped under three domains of professional, academic and institutional challenges. Professional challenges define any threat that might limit the lecturers' use of special training to perform the role. Academic challenges define hindrances to work-related challenges at the universities that involve academic pursuit and the way the academe devotes their time and energy to ensure that quality is achieved in service delivery and productivity in education. Institutional challenges refer to limiting factors from the internal and external environment impacting on the philosophical, pragmatic and life skills/emotional intelligence awareness vital in directing activities, increasing participation and advancing relationships in emotionally proper ways to achieve goals satisfactorily.

The ecosystemic environment contains professional, academic and institutional challenges that put intense pressure on lecturers. These pressures, resulting from these challenges, could disrupt survival, flourishing and achievement of life goals (Lazarus, 1991). According to Goleman (2004:32) pressures caused by professional, academic and institutional challenges can create emotions of anger and disappointment because of being treated unfairly thereby reducing the zeal and commitment to persist in the face of challenges. Controlling the display of these emotions during challenging moments demands the ability to manage emotions in ways that promote proper interaction and reciprocal relationships (Bronfenbrenner 1997). This means that pressures due to challenges can lead to anxiety and frustrations and the method of displaying the emotions may have a destructive effect on interaction and pattern of relationships within the systems (Arvey, Renz & Watson, 1998; Diamond & Shellenbarger, 2007; Fugate, Kinick & Prussia, 2008). It therefore implies that the professional, academic and institutional challenges can cause lecturers to become vulnerable.

The concept of vulnerability according to Chambers (1989:33) "refers to exposure to contingencies and stress, and difficulty in coping with them. Vulnerability has thus two sides: an external side of risks, shocks, and anxiety to which an individual or household is subject to;

and an internal side which is defenselessness, meaning a lack of means to cope without damaging loss; loss can take many forms-becoming or being physically weaker, economically impoverished, socially dependent, humiliated or psychologically harmed". This implies that vulnerability is exacerbated because of heavy burdens bestowed upon lecturers; the first is from the external environment such as rapid social changes and the expectations of the society on tertiary institution while pressures inflicted from the internal environment can be ascribed to an inability of the government and university management to initiate coping strategies to enable lecturers to accept, adjust and improve so as to achieve professional and personal goals (Hans, 2007). It also means that vulnerability has a two-way impact on the lecturers, from the external side, the state of vulnerability is subjecting the individual lecturers to threats, distress and pressure and internally the state of vulnerability is subjecting the individual lecturers to mental, emotional and physical harm (Chambers, 1989; Shaw & Ward, 2014). The impact of the merging of the internal and external state of vulnerability produces in lecturers feelings of isolation, alienation and an increased desire to fight the government as evident in case of the ASSU's historical fight for increase in the allocation of resources to universities (Onyeonoru, 200; Durosaro, 2004).

From his perspective, Zaidi (2014:4) states that people are inherently vulnerable when they lack the "capabilities to exercise choice and freedom in doings things they value and /or to cope with threats they face without suffering damage." Zaidi (2014) argues that stakeholders and governmental institutions often ignore the consistence and continuous nature of the impact of vulnerability. In this regard, Schroder-Butterfill (2012) argues the lack of the support system and coping skills is exposing the already vulnerable individuals to more dangers such as ill-mental health. Shaw and Ward (2014) found that the vulnerable conditions the academe is exposed to, influence their mental health and they lament that it is shredded with culture of silence and acceptance.

The concept of a culture of silence defines an unwillingness to emotional discourse pressures, frustrations, and unhappiness resulting from work challenges (Aston, 2014). Aston (2014) explains that a culture of silence at institutional and individual level causes distress and bias leading to low productivity and a lack of motivation to compete positively with others. These inabilities of individuals and institutions to discuss their state of mental health is impacting on the academe increasing their experience of health complications and the struggle to hide their pain and suffering (Aston, 2014). Goleman (2004) and Bethere and Lidaka (2009) point out that the culture of silence and acceptance could result in severe physical and emotional pain initiating physical manifestation of medical toll of illnesses. Aston (2014) suggests that individuals and institutions must communicate on mental health issues so as to curb both short and long-term effects on individual and institutions.

In this regard, Goleman (2004) asserts the pressuring challenges make negative emotions toxic and a risk factor leading to major threats to health. Goleman aptly advocates emotional intelligence as a tool to navigate ecosystemic challenges successfully without any physical or internal harm. Emotional intelligence is a name derived from merging of emotions and intelligence to promote pleasing progress and the ability to navigate life challenges without an impact on well-being (Salovey & Grewal 2005; Nelson & Low 2011). The relationship between ecosystemic challenges and emotional intelligence is resulting from the fact that ecosystem challenges disrupt the proper functioning of the university environment. Goleman (2004) perceives emotional intelligence as a four-wheeled navigator through ecosystemic challenges comprising of self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management.

Mayer *et al.* (2004); as well as Nelson and Low (2011) maintain that emotional intelligence is seen as the most appropriate, advantageous and well-advised model suitable for every gender and age group to learn and apply to attain quality of life and well-being in personal and professional life. Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) add that emotional intelligence could predict the ability of an individual to handle challenges and maintain intellectual and body fitness. Mattew Zeidner and Robert (2002); Schutte Malouf Simunck Hollander and McKinley (2002) assert that emotional intelligence has the ability to reduce the medical toll of diseases associated with role pressure. The above-mentioned authors maintain that emotional intelligence is effective in preventing and handling physical effects of emotions.

Brown and Schutte (2006) Salovey and Grewal (2005) assert that emotional intelligence skills promote proper psychological and social interaction that enhances productivity. Nelson and Low (2011) point out that there is ample evidence of studies that show that emotional intelligence could promote quality in production and ability to bounce back from challenging experiences. In this regard, Goleman (1995) proposes emotional intelligence using his four domains of self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management as vital in handling ecosystemic challenges. Bar-On (2007:12) supports the use of emotional intelligence by saying that emotional intelligence promotes and contributes to the building of "more effective, productive and caring organizations, communities and societies."

Consequently, there is an urgent need to understand and curb the professional, academic and institutional challenges. There is also an urgent need to enable lecturers to manage and be in charge of emotions they experience as they struggle to achieve efficiency with little resources (Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004; Low, Lomax, Jackson & Nelson, 2004; Sjoguns, 2011). The focus on lecturers' emotional intelligence is to ensure they achieve personal and professional goals without neglecting the goals of the university. The concept of emotional intelligence will be

discussed in the next chapter. However, Figure 2.6 below is a thoughtful illustration of the relationship between the ecosystemic challenges the lecturers experience and emotional intelligence. In Figure 2.6, the federal government is perceived as the determinant of the quality of tertiary education through the establishment, maintenance and implementation of educational programmes and structures. The government is also expected to ensure proper distribution of resources and establishment of a proper board of executives to manage the affairs of the university properly. Hence, professional, academic and institutional challenges within the ecosystemic environment in which the lecturers function are a condition resulting from the government's inability to fulfil their commitment to tertiary education (Akpochafo, 2009).
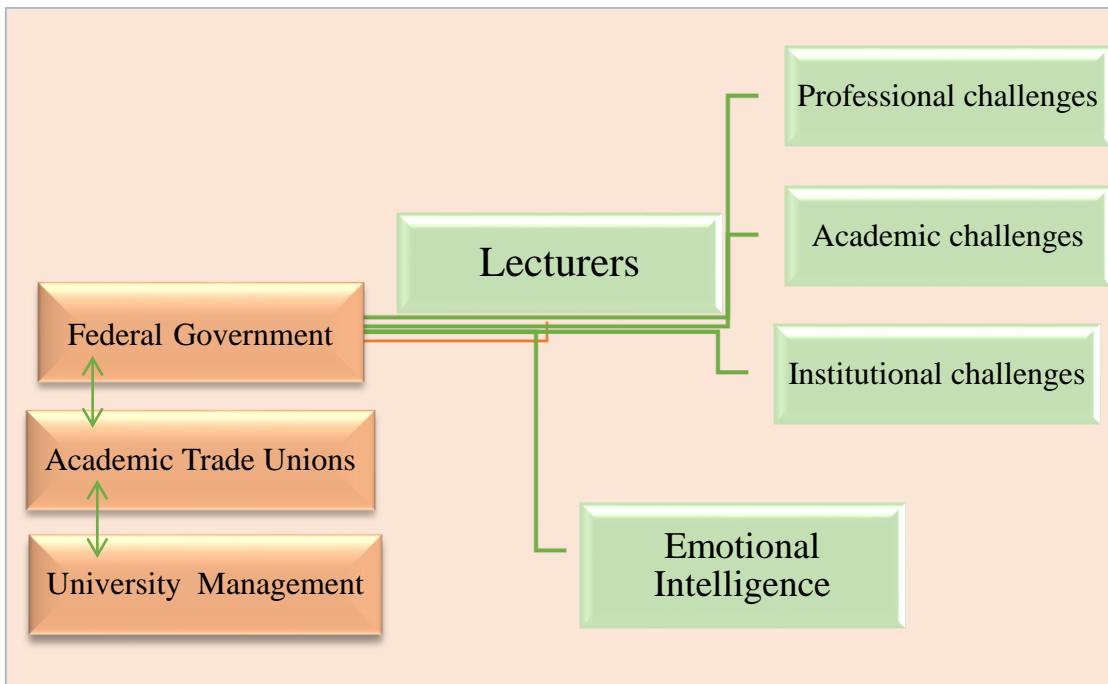
Figure 2.6:   Tertiary education ecosystemic environment

Historically, there is evidence that the federal government lacks the political will to ensure that the number of enrolled students meets the demand for old infrastructure. The construction of infrastructures to meet the newer demand, is putting pressure on the entire system (Akpan, Archibong & Undie, 2012). Onyeonoru (2001) maintains that the pressure lecturers experience is driving the academic trade unions to consistent dialogue and negotiation with the government and failure which leads to strikes. Consequently, it is assumed that the pressure the academe experiences is further intensified by the conflict between the academic trade unions and the government over efficiency in resource allocation, distribution and coordination (Kogan & Teichler, 2007). This implies that Figure 2.6 illustrates that the federal government determines the level of pressure the academe experiences in professional life because of a lack of political will to keep to their promises.

The academic trade unions in Figure 2.6 shows the unions are trapped between the federal government and the university management. The academic trade unions are key to series of investment within the ecosystemic environment through their consistent dialogue, negotiation and consistent strike for improvement in quality of service and a better life for the academe (Onyeonoru, 2001). Although, the academic trade unions have been credited to bringing the government order such as keeping to the agreement, the academic trade unions have been blamed for calling for strikes at odd times, thereby increasing the workload of lecturers, because the lecturers must finish the old module before going into the new module (Onyeonoru, 2001; Aluede 2007). As a result of imposing strikes at their own time, the academic trade union has been identified as another source of pressure on the lecturers.

Figure 2.6 shows the university management below the academic trade unions further illustrating that the activities of university management is impacting on the academic trade union. In the role of university management in creating pressure for the academe, Henkel and Little (2007) argue that the increase in dependence of predominant managerial administration of resources in governmental facilities shows a lack of creativity in improvisation. Musselin (2007) links the pressure the academe experiences to constant conflict between the non-academic and academic profession resulting in a lack of control, because of the inability of the university management to handle it, thereby impacting the quality of relationship and interaction within the system. Bronfenbrenner (1997) stresses the importance of relationship and proper interaction in defining the quality of service delivery and productivity in education. He argues that within the system reciprocal relationships and acceptance of the diversity in other individuals are essential for effective managerial function. He therefore concludes that management without the ability to establish and maintain bonding relationships, which is essential for functionality, increases pressure that limits growth in the system. In this regard, Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) identify the tertiary ecosystemic environment, as sources of

emotional pressure to the academic staff resulting in a poor university environment, poor working conditions and university management and an unconcerned attitude towards the plight of the academe. It is the middle level of government and university management which is neglected and which causes the plight of the academic trade unions.

Figure 2.6 also shows the lecturer stuck at the middle of pressure resulting from the federal government's attitude of neglect and lack of political will. Trade unions fight for efficiency and a better life for the academe as well as assistance with professional, academic and institutional challenges resulting from the interaction of the factors of the internal and external environment that impact on the lecturers. According to Graham (2000) the ecosystemic environment should express care and warmth in interaction and relationships. The ecosystemic environment should be free of anxiety but filled with unrestricted positive approval and empathic understanding of the lecturer's plight. It is clear that the relationship between the ecosystemic challenges and emotional intelligence is barely known and this depicts the limiting nature of emotional intelligence towards the lecturer.

According to Cherniss (2007) the role of emotional intelligence is to use emotional information to support and guide oneself and others through facilitating and encouraging calmness and rational thinking. Jacobs (2007) and Fernandes-Araoz (2007) add that the role of emotional intelligence is to guide selection, recruitment and training in any ecosystemic environment. Cherniss (2007) adds that the role of emotional intelligence is to promote and advance bonding relationships and teamwork to increase productivity in the institution. This proposes that emotional intelligence fosters an ecosystemic environment that handles challenges, facilitates functional interaction and lecturers feel respected and cherished (Graham, 2000; Cherniss, 2007).

From this analysis, the relationship between ecosystemic environment and emotional intelligence is unbalanced because of professional, academic and institutional challenges, which directly put pressure on lecturers' emotional life and further creates conditions for diseases to flourish. The impact on their bodily functioning increases the risk of physical manifestation and the impact is more on lecturers without the ability to cope emotionally. Kauffman (2005) and Babbel (2010) point out that lecturers may experience unsatisfactory situations such as physical weakness and constant expression of dissatisfaction. Other studies linked emotional distress to general body pain in the neck and shoulder, stomach aches, tightening of the chest, chest pains, heart palpitation and difficulty in breathing making sleep difficult without prescribed drugs (Quan & Tally, 2002; Takeuchi *et al.,* 2003; Dinan *et al.,* 2006; Klein *et al.,* 2007; Chang, 2011; Feigenbaum, 2012; Zabri & Kie, 2012). A study by Crawford-Clark (2001) linked the difficulty in sleep to exhaustion leading to self-destructive

behaviour such as criticising, judging, belittling, teasing, insulting and rejecting or abandoning roles and responsibilities.

In summing up the relationship between ecosystemic challenges and emotional intelligence, it is clearly obvious that the professional, academic and institutional challenges are growing as new ones are emerging. There is need to understand the impact of ecosystemic challenges on emotional intelligence and to assess the level of application in effective handling of challenges. In this context, the researcher examined the concept of emotional intelligence in the next chapter.

2.12 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The literature consulted shows that higher education across the globe is experiencing challenges. The literature also further reveals that most higher education institutions in Africa, particularly in Nigeria, are at a point at where crucial descisions must be made which will have far-reaching consequences for the betterment of lecturers and the quality of higher education systems. However, the exisiting literature indicates that most university managements lack the power to make such crucial decisions without the government. The government itself lacks the political will to respond via action for the betterment of higher education institution to reduce the professional, academic and institutional challenges confronting lecturers. The academic trade unions, sensing the weakness of the government to intervene or keep to the signed agreement with the lecturers, adopted warning strikes or indefinite strikes after dialogue and negotiation failed. Bronfenbrenner's theoretical framework that is a guide for this study reveals that these professional, academic and institutional challenges are evenly distributed across the systems. This implies that the challenges are pressurising lecturers from every system. This further implies that lecturers are exposed to instability, unpredictable vulnerability, furthering the inability to make professional progress without striving. This rich information, provided by the literature on professional, academic and institutional challenges and Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, indicates there is a breakdown in the microsystem (institution, faculty and department) with an impact on lecturers' functionality and emotionality. The theory reveals that such breakdown needs support and caring that is meant to last a life time from the institution, because they are partly the source of lecturers' challenges. The information from the literature made it known that the microsystem is the source of emotions and as these emotions intensify they impact on the lecturers and the universities' quality of services offered. Productivity in education is also affected as a result. The theory also made it clear that internal factors such as the government and trade unions may intensify the experience of emotional pressure with their managerial style and decisions. In this regard this study examines the emotional intelligence of lecturers to understand the way it has helped lecturers to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves

within Bronfenbrenner's ecological sysytems. Emotional intelligence is a concept developed because of the need for emotions to help intelligence and for intelligence to guide emotions. The concept of emotional intelligence will be discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER THREE
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

3.1   INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, I reviewed relevant literature on professional, academic and institutional challenges as well as Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory to establish the position in existing literature. Chapter 3 commences with the review of the concept of emotional intelligence, the models of emotional intelligence, cognitive, non-cognitive and a mixed-model of emotional intelligence, with special focus on Daniel Goleman's conceptualisation of emotional intelligence in accordance with the study. The study also highlights the strengths and limitations of the three models and the possible application in tertiary education is discussed. Within the domain of Goleman's conceptualisation of emotional intelligence, the four domains such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management were discussed in order to understand how they helped lecturers to adapt, change or sustain themselves in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges. As a result, I reviewed literature on emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in tertiary education to obtain knowledge on the perception of lecturers towards the challenges, the coping strategies and impact on emotions. Finally the chapter ends with concluding remarks.

3.2   THE CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

This section describes "Emotional Intelligence" as a relative new label for a concept as old as humankind (Nelson & Low, 2011). From a historical perspective, emotional intelligence has been a part of schooling since the beginning of formal education 3,000 years ago in Egypt, India and Greece, in one form or another (Cohen, 2006). The clients of emotional intelligence in the ancient times were only men from wealthy families (Nelson, 2010). The content of emotional intelligence then was to use knowledge of personal emotional weaknesses and strengths to guide behaviour in private and public life (e.g. the Ancient Greeks) (Cohen, 2006). However, at present, Emotional Intelligence is learnable skills provided to people irrespective of social status, educational background; gender and race to enable them to think wisely and act responsibly with emotions (Cohen, 2006; Nelson & Low, 2011).

Thus, the concept of emotional intelligence by scholars such as Payne Wayne (1986), Mayer and Salovey(1990), Goleman(1995), Bar-On(1997), Emily Sterrett (2000), Nelson and

Low(2003), Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2003) Maree and Finestone(2007), Coetzee and Jansen(2007), Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts(2008), Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Davies et al.(1998) was examined in accordance to the study to establish how emotions and intelligence that can work together build, strengthen and enhance the ability of lecturers to handle professional, academic and institutional challenges. I examined the concept of emotional intelligence by Payne Wayne as entry point from describing the concept to the understanding of the application in real-life situations (Weiten, 2013).

Payne Wayne (1986:165) conceptualises emotional intelligence as "…The facts, meaning, truth, relationships, etc. (of emotional intelligence) are those that exist in the realm of emotion. Thus, feelings are facts… The meanings are felt meaning, the truths are emotional problems, and that is those problems in the way we feel". Payne argues that people actually experience emotions as a result of circumstances, relationships or personal moods, although, the emotions may be exaggerated during interpretation, the fact is that, emotions are actually experienced. Furthermore, the truth according to Payne (1986) is that, the individual experiencing the emotion is the only source of identifying, understanding, assessing and characterising the experienced emotions, implying that the researcher must go into the world of the participants to understand the true emotional experience as perceived, understood and interpreted by the participants. Consequently, Payne's (1986) concept of emotional intelligence emphasises an accurate understanding of emotional experience as narrated by the participants and the impact on professional growth. Payne's (1986) concept of emotional intelligence highlights three major points; the first is that circumstances in relationships and personal attitudes can trigger emotions. The second is that the triggered emotions can be identified and labelled by the individual. The third is that the identified and labelled emotions can cause further complications for individuals, implying the need to monitor emotions to curb the impact on persons and other individuals as proposed by Mayer and Salovey in 1990.

Mayer and Salovey (1990:189) conceptualise Emotional Intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions." Later, Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (in Salovey & Grewal 2005:282) further extend their concept of emotional intelligence to include a group of related skills that helps individuals to think through emotions appropriately and rationally. In their view emotional intelligence is about perception, recognition and assessment to distinguish the emotions in order to use the information to think wisely to act intelligently. The prominent theme in Mayer, Caruso and Salovey's concept of emotional intelligence is constructive thinking, intelligent reasoning and constructively shaped behaviour for successful interaction and relationships in any given environment, implying that the authors perceive

emotional intelligence as the capacity to think constructively and reason intelligently and handle emotions and emotional behaviour appropriately.

Goleman (1995:319) from another perspective conceptualises that: "Emotional Intelligence as the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships". In 2011, Goleman presented his summarised idea of emotional intelligence as "emotional intelligence includes self-mastery (self-awareness and self-regulation) plus social intelligence (empathy and social skills). For Goleman (2011) emotional intelligence is fundamental to life of success through constructive thinking, reassurance, and self-confidence in the face of challenges. For Goleman, emotional intelligence begins with understanding of personal emotions and other people's emotions. The knowledge is to be used in building relationships and empathy in any social environment for teamwork and peaceful circumstances in the work environment.

Bar-On (1997:16) conceptualises emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". Bar-On (1997:16) proposes that environmental problems create emotions of anxieties and frustrations, however applying different kinds of skills enable the individual to navigate the challenges and to create certain associations with emotions. Bar-On posits that the individual ability to navigate challenging environment benefits the individual, institutions and communities because the skills are observable and reflects in activities and behaviours. After the extensive study on emotional intelligence, Bar-On (2007) points out that emotional intelligence is strategic, instant and enhances individual normal wisdom and skills to connect well in personal and professional life.

Emily Sterrett (2000) from a different perceptive regards emotional intelligence as: "True emotional intelligence is the ability to call upon information from the emotional centre of the brain and to balance that with information from the rational centre of the brain." Emily Sterrett's (2000) concept of emotional intelligence points to two types of brain activities (emotional and rational) which need to cooperate for accurate emotional intelligence to be achieved. Two emerging themes from Emily Sterrett's concepts of emotional intelligence is that emotionally intelligent people need to exercise control of their emotions. Secondly acting with emotions needs to be approved by rational brain operations. Thirdly emotional and rational brain activities need to test the emotional information, verify the level of subjectivity and draw conclusions using the contribution information from emotional brain and rational brain activities. This is what Emily Sterrett calls "true" emotional intelligence: balancing subjectivity with objectivity for credible decisions and actions.

Nelson and Low (2003, 2011:74) conceptualise emotional intelligence "as a confluence of developed skills and abilities valuable for (a) more accurately knowing yourself in terms of personal strength and weaknesses, (b) establishing and maintaining effective and healthy relationships (c) getting along and working productively with others and (d) dealing effectively and healthily with the demands and pressures of daily work and life."

The Nelson and Low (2003) perceive emotional intelligence as a learnable skill capable of promoting respect, acceptance and accommodation of other people with their strengths and weaknesses. Nelson and Low's concept of emotional intelligence emphasises the fact that emotional intelligence is learnable. This provides opportunities for people without emotional intelligence to learn and bridge the gap between areas of strength and weaknesses. Nelson and Low (2003) point out that learning emotional intelligence is to reduce work anxiety and frustration, increase the quality of relationships and interaction in order to increase quality in service delivery and productivity.

From their perceptive, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2003:72) define emotional intelligence as "the set of abilities (verbal and non-verbal) that enables a person to generate, recognize, express, understand, and evaluate their own, and others', emotions in order to guide thinking and action to successfully cope with environmental demands and pressures". Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2003) perceive emotional intelligence as vital in generating data to support individuals or groups of people in developing skills to withstand challenges. Van Rooy and Viswesvaran's concept of emotional intelligence focuses on the role emotional data play in services provision such as providing instant data, saving valuable time and resources that would have been invested in resolving conflict.

Maree and Finestone (2007:178) assert that "emotional intelligence as the individual ability to understand his or her emotions and express them, to understand the emotions of others, to control the emotions, to reveal the problem-solving skills in relationships and to be self-motivating". The authors regard emotional intelligence as personal skills fundamental for human behaviour with regard to emotions such as solving relationship problems and motivating oneself irrespective of the challenges.

According to Coetzee and Jansen (2007:3) "emotional intelligence refers to an array of attitudes, social skills and a personal management style that allows us to succeed in the teaching profession and life in general". The author's concept of emotional intelligence embraces a focus on different behaviours, relationships abilities and an individual way of handling issues, which promotes success in professional and personal life. In other words, emotional intelligence is person-oriented, because application to real-life starts with the individual's behaviours, interactional processes and ways of managing challenges. This implies if an individual has

emotional intelligence, then he will dispose of good behaviour and relationship skills and he will display a personal managerial style.

Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2008:100) maintain that "Emotional intelligence as the competence to identify, monitor and express emotions; to label, differentiate, and understand the complex nature, antecedents, and consequences of emotions; to assimilate emotions in thought and strategically use emotions to achieve one's adaptive goals; and to effectively regulate positive and negative emotions, both in oneself and others." Zeidner et al. (2008) opt for a concept of emotional intelligence which includes identification, observation, directing and labelling of emotions and the individual's use of the information to prevent problems, solve problems and adjust to encouraging and discouraging situations.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997:xiii) define emotional intelligence as "the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence." The acumen of emotions refers the use of insight from emotional data to influence, motivate and maintain institutional success. Cooper and Sawaf's concept of emotional intelligence emphasises the use of emotional information both negative and positive as a strategy to solve and prevent institutional challenges.

Davies et al. (1998) have a different perspective of the definition of emotional intelligence. According to them, emotional intelligence acts in a four key direction. It embraces:

- Expression and appraisal of emotions in oneself which relates to an individual's ability to fathom his or her deeper emotions and to be able to communicate these emotions naturally. People who dispose of a good ability in this realm will be able to sense and acknowledge their emotions more successfully than most people;

- Recognition and appraisal of emotions in others which refers to an individual's ability to observe and understand the emotions of those around them. People who rate highly in this area will be very sensitive to understand the emotions of others. They will also be able to predict the other people's emotional responses;

- Regulation of emotions in oneself which refers to the ability of a person to maintain his or her emotions, giving rise to a faster recovery from psychological distress. A person who has a high score in this area will be able to return to his normal psychological status soon after being upset or celebrating. Such individuals will also have better control of their emotions and will less likely lose their temper; and

- The use of emotion to promote performance relates to the ability of the individuals to make use of their emotions by directing them towards constructive activities and personal performance. Individuals who are highly capable in this dimension will be

able to encourage themselves to do better continuously. They will also be able to project their emotions in productive and positive directions (Davis et al., 1998).

The concept of emotional intelligence emphasises the use emotional intelligence to provide support, education and proper relationships for greater performance and quality in productivity (Davis, et al., 1998).

Having examined the views of various scholars on emotional intelligence as mentioned above, the researcher observed that proponents of emotional intelligence emphasise that emotions whether positive or negative, provide data for preventing or solving problems. The critics also view emotional intelligence as learnable skills for balancing subjectivity and objectivity for credible decisions and actions aiming at building teamwork. A peaceful work environment is regarded as beneficial to individuals, institutions and the community in general. The literature further highlights that emotional intelligence builds self-confidence, constructive thinking, reasoning and acting to enhance personal attitude and managerial style vital for bonding relationships to increase quality of service, productivity and progression in the profession.

Most scholars of emotional intelligence linked the skill such as constructive thinking, relationship building and strategic planning and implementation of the plan with higher performers (Linskey, 2010). Other authors view emotional intelligence as a key element to dynamic decision-making, innovative planning and strategic actions (Pearce & Robinson, 2009). Emotional intelligence is also linked with problem-solving through identifying, understanding and confronting real-life challenges, thereby liberating the individuals emotionally to actualise their potentialities (Maree & Finestone, 2007; Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2008; Cloud, 2009; Grow, 2009; Nelson, 2011).

I therefore argue, based on the discourse above, that the concept of emotional intelligence is driven by two forces: emotions and intelligence: Emotions are driven by the need to express and display a good or bad feeling towards a situation and intelligence is driven by the need to act with wisdom in expressing and displaying the felt emotions towards the situation. Linked to the study, emotions are driven by the experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges and intelligence is driven by the need to apply wisdom to handle the challenges effectively. I further identified the following major salient trend common in the concepts of emotional intelligence as presented in Figure 3.1. I posit that the professional, academic and institutional challenges create emotional experiences for lecturers. Managing these experiences demands emotional intelligence and I endeavoured to link these with the framework of the study. The four salient trends are presented in Figure 3.1 and are mentioned and discussed below:

- Identification and labeling of emotions;
- Assessment of the identified and labelled emotions;
- Interpretation and understanding of the emotional message; and
- The application of the emotional knowledge to handle the challenges.
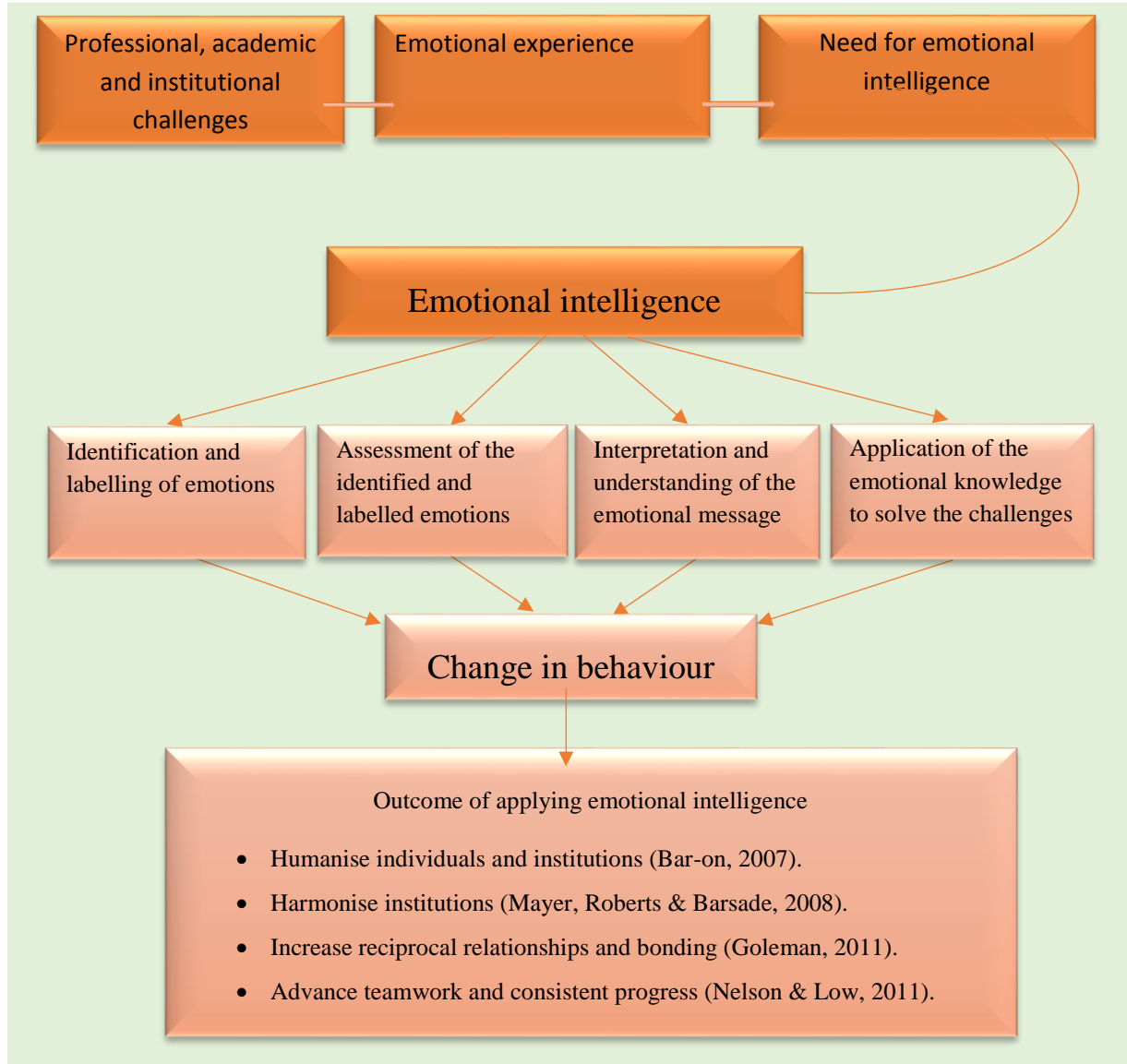
Figure 3.1: **Showing the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence**

3.2.1   IDENTIFICATION AND LABELLING OF EMOTIONS

This refers to the ability to recognise and label the experienced emotions. Many scholars of emotional intelligence emphasise that the identification and labelling of experienced emotions is important to individuals and institutions. According to Bar-On, Maree and Elias (2006) the ability to identify, understand and label experienced emotions promotes the appropriate use of emotions to solve problems. Scholars of emotional intelligence such as Nelson (2010);

Goleman (1998) also Mayer and Salovey (1990) acknowledge that identification and labelling of emotions is the first step in liberating and actualising the potential of an individual, because it is linked with accurate self-awareness and emotional assessment. Several studies conducted by the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in institutions over the years provide supporting evidence that the ability to identify and accurately label emotions are the foundation for building an emotionally intelligent life needed for professional and personal progress (Emotional Intelligence Consortium, 2014).

3.2.2   ASSESSMENT OF THE IDENTIFIED AND LABELLED EMOTIONS

This refers to the ability to accurately analyse identified and labelled emotions to understand the root cause of the emotions and to solve the problems. According to Bar-On, Maree and Elias (2006), the ability to accurate assess and understand the experienced emotions of other individuals, increases empathy, teamwork and proper interaction. For instance, scholars such as Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) and Sawaf (2014) acknowledge that accurate assessment of the identified and labelled emotions provides important and relevant information needed to interpret and understand emotional messages for effective handling of challenges initiating the emotions.

3.2.3   INTERPRETATION AND UNDERSTANDING OF EMOTIONAL MESSAGE

This refers to the ability to interpret and assign meaning to the experienced emotions to promote an accurate understanding of an emotional message. Most scholars of emotional intelligence emphasise that accurate interpretation of circumstances. Creating the emotions provides reliable data for understanding the message emotions communicate, leading to proper management and improvement of situations (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Mayer & Salovey, 1990; Hammett, Nelson & Low, 2012). The importance of accurate interpretation of circumstances creating the emotions was emphasised by Miltenberger (2008) who posits, that there is a need to understand the covert reason behind any emotion expressed and displayed, because in every overt display there is a covert reason, implying that researchers must seek to understand behind the scene factors initiating the emotional experience.

3.2.4   APPLICATION OF EMOTIONAL KNOWLEDGE TO MANAGE CHALLENGES

The literature shows that application of information derived from emotions, positive or negative helps to improve and sustain the system (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). This is because the information provides a basis for building reciprocal relationships and interaction vital for the institution to function and achieve set goals (Nelson & Low, 2011); in other words, emotions

are sources of information for improving the system for quality results (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008).

3.2.5 CHANGE IN BEHAVIOUR

Most scholars of emotional intelligence emphasise that emotional intelligence results in change in behaviour such as self-management and relationship-management (Nelson, 2010). Marques (2007) postulates that emotional intelligence promotes change in interactional processes and strategies for preventing or handling relationship problems. A change in self-management and relationship-management result in better performance, time-management, commitment and empathetic behaviour (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Goleman, 2004). This is because personal change in ways of managing challenges increases the ability to connect and relate well with others, which in turn, promotes, establishes and sustains relationships (Nelson & Low, 2011). These relationships enhance the group's satisfaction, reduce frustration and minimise unhappiness leading to improved performance, and higher involvement at faculty level, departments and institutional activities (Goleman, 2011). The further outcome of applying emotional intelligence is discussed in the next section.

3.2.6 OUTCOME OF APPLYING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The essence of emotional intelligence is embedded in the application to real-life situations; Izards et al. (2001) observe the increase in socialisation skills such as assertiveness in communication. Elfenbein et al. (2007) also Nelson and Low (2011:31) elaborate saying that communicating emotions assertively builds relationships, because the individual knows a better way to express felt emotions in a respectful manner. Assertiveness with respect to communication is associated with success in teamwork resulting in higher performance and quickness in achieving set goals (Dalcher, Dietrich, Eskerod & Sandhawalia, 2010). Team cooperation has also been linked with the development of innovative ideas and successful implementation of the ideas (Goleman, 2004; Xavier, 2005).

On the other hand, applying emotional intelligence is beneficial to individuals, institutions and general society, because emotional intelligence builds caring, supportive and empathic individuals (Bar-On, 2007). The advantage of emotional intelligence is that it further enhances harmonisation of institutions for better internationalisation of education and better job opportunities for education products (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008). Harmony in an institution promotes reciprocal bonding relationships vital for success in professions (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008; Goleman, 2011; Nelson & Low, 2011).

Consequently, the next section examines the three prominent models of emotional intelligence such as cognitive models of emotional intelligence; non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence and mixed models of emotional intelligence for better understanding of approaches that proponents of emotional intelligence are using in assessing emotions to predict ways of living emotionally intelligent lives. These three models of emotional intelligence are discussed in the next section.

3.3   COGNITIVE MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The cognitive model of emotional intelligence is one of the models designed to measure an individual's level of emotional intelligence (Herbst, Maree & Sibanda, 2006). This model was introduced by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and was linked with standards of the intelligent quotient. Hence, Michelon (2006:1) identifies the cognitive model of emotional intelligence as "brain-based skills." Gray et al. (2002) explain that brain-based skills mean that, cognitive models are reproduced after the standard of intellectual reasoning such as thinking reflectively and reasoning intelligently to make functional decisions. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2007) explain that the cognitive model of emotional intelligence is interrelated abilities that help people to respond to emotional situations intelligently. Nussbaum (in Delport, 2009) adds that the interrelated skills help individuals to judge situations logically, in order to make profound decisions on handling emotions. Most scholars of cognitive models of emotional intelligence believe that thinking reflectively and reasoning intelligently is important to handle challenges (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

On the other hand, Mayer and Salovey (1997) point out, that though people differ in ways of processing and using emotional information, scholars use emotion-based problem-solving items developed and grouped under the four domains namely (perceiving, using understanding and managing emotions) to measure emotional intelligence (Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Mayer, Caruso & Sitavenios, 2003) help to balance the difference. In general, the cognitive model of emotional intelligence focuses on measuring mental skills to predict emotional intelligence. I identified the following four salient elements amongst proponents of cognitive models of emotional intelligence that are linkable to this study and these are presented in Figure 3.2. They are:

- The accurate identification of emotions resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges;
- Understanding of experienced emotions and the impact on the lecturer's cognitive abilities;

- The identification of distressing thoughts and antecedents both past and present situations that enhance the impact of emotions; and

- The application of the information generated to decrease distressing thoughts and replace it with a more balanced thought.

3.3.1 ACCURATE IDENTIFICATION OF EMOTIONS RESULTING FROM THE EXPERIENCE OF PROFESSIONAL, ACADEMIC AND INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES

Lecturers have to accurately identify emotions resulting from the experience of professional, academic and institutional (PAI) challenges and impact on functionality and productivity.

3.3.2 UNDERSTANDING OF EXPERIENCED EMOTIONS AND IMPACT ON LECTURERS COGNITIVE ABILITIES

Lecturers have to accurately understand the experienced emotions and the impact on cognitive abilities engaging two major activities: inward introspection and outward introspection. According to Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) inward and outward introspection are very important in identifying and labelling phenomena. The inward introspection means the honest examination of personal emotional luggage to gain insight on the present on-going or very lately past emotional state (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). The second outward introspection involves observation, consistent monitoring of other people's state of emotions, sensitivities, differences in opinions and ways of responding to challenges (Ottoman, 2012) to understand ways to interact with such individuals. Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) and Stanford Enclopedia of Philosophy, (2014) maintain that outward introspection produces information through analysis of the body language(s) as displayed by the individual under investigation. The information derived from the analysis of the body language helps in labelling and guiding actions. Thus, the cognitive model of emotional intelligence utilises inward and outward reflection to understand the impact of emotional experience in order to act intelligently.

3.3.3 IDENTIFICATION OF DISTRESSING THOUGHTS

The experience of emotions is linked with thinking and reasoning, hence emotions often result in anxiety and frustration leading to distressing thoughts (Miltenberger, 2008). The literature linked distressing thoughts with the way individuals perceive and interpret events that challenge their progress (Akinpelu, 2001; Coetzee & Jansen, 2007). Nelson and Low (2011) are of the opinion that the way the individual thinks about the emotions and problems cause the emotions to deepen through distress and impact on the individual. This is because, according to Miltenberger (2008) thinking involves digging deep into the emotional situations to find

justifications for the experienced emotion and such digging results in more negative thinking in some individuals.

3.3.4 APPLICATION OF THE INFORMATION GENERATED TO DECREASE DISTRESSING THOUGHTS AND INCREASE A MORE BALANCED THOUGHT

Many scholars of cognitive models of emotional intelligence emphasise the use of information is derived from emotions to curb emotional distress (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Coetzee & Jansen, 2007; Nelson & Low, 2011). However, Oduaran (2001) points out that some individuals may identify potential areas of need but feel weak in taking action to initiate change, because of fear of failing. Consequently, Nelson and Low (2011) suggest change orientation for a more balanced thought through the developing, strengthening and enhancing of emotional intelligence skills. Notwithstanding, the cognitive model of emotional intelligence can be applied in the tertiary landscape with the aim of using thinking and intelligent reasoning to observe, identify and understand emotions (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1997). The individual can use the knowledge to act wisely and behave responsibly. The salient elements identified in the cognitive models of emotional intelligence are presented in Figure 3.2.
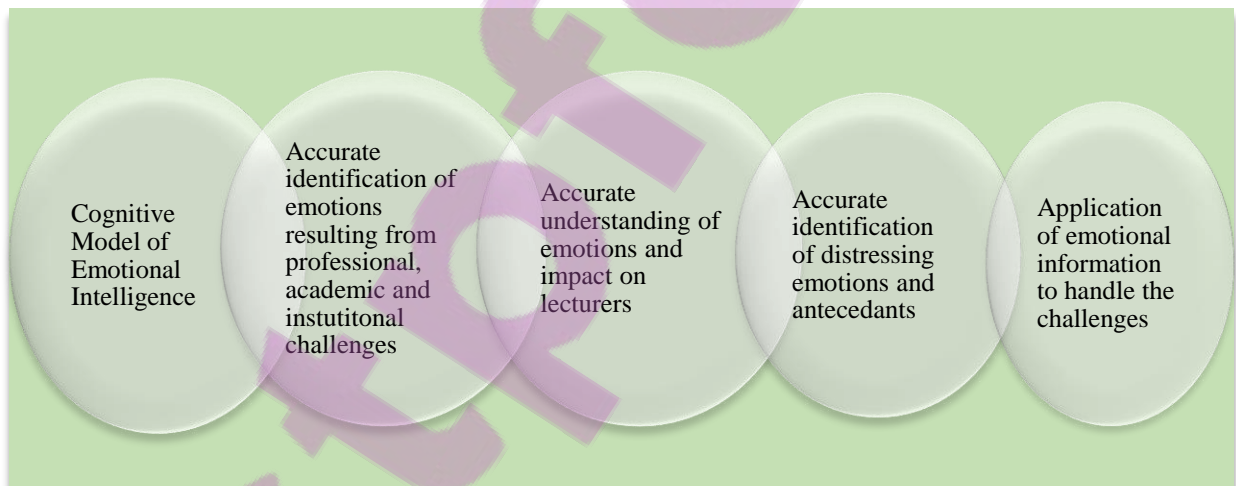
Figure 3.2: A representation of the cognitive model of emotional intelligence

The Figure 3.2 illustrates that the cognitive model of emotional intelligence with regard to this study and it begins with accurate identification of emotions resulting from the experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges. The second process shows accurate understanding of emotions and influences on lecturers. The third process deals with identifying and labelling of emotions tagged as distressing emotions for intelligent action. The fourth process indicates that cognitive models of emotional intelligence deals with applying information derived from emotions to handle the challenges causing the emotions constructively and intelligently. The intersecting connections in the order indicate the process

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which involves an unbroken chain and its completion leads to reduction of emotional impact. Hence, the cognitive model of emotional intelligence can be applied in the tertiary landscape and it is discussed in 3.3.5 below.

3.3.5 APPLYING THE COGNITIVE MODEL EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE TERTIARY LANDSCAPE

According to Dulewics and Higgs (2000) the cognitive model of emotional intelligence involves two fundamental skills: sensing feeling and applying the insight to handle relationships. The concept of sensing emotions is vital. According to Whitbourne (2014) the working environment is engaged with individuals with complex characters that cause disagreement and the ability to sense and handle it appropriately determines the degree to which peace is attained. A study by Lopes (2014:2) further affirms that the working environment involves interacting with individuals that enhances complex simple matters through "corporate politicking, self-promotion, power-plays and envy." This is further influenced by limited resources leading to competition over available facilities. Segal and Smith (2014) postulate that the complexity of the environment where lecturers work, could trigger strong emotions of unhappiness which may increase dissatisfaction and distress. The authors maintain that to manage the workplace complexities with the approach that reduces pressure, increases non-self-justifying, and considerate responses; emotional intelligence should be used as it "opens pathways to creative problems solving, team building and improved relationships" (Segal & Smith, 2014:1). This implies that emotional intelligence can contribute to the building of an emotionally literate, work environment (Dulewics & Higgs, 2000).

Another domain to apply the cognitive model of emotional intelligence in the tertiary landscape is nested in exploring the cognitive covert behaviour to identify the potential problem domains that demand change orientation and restructuring (Nelson & Low, 2011). According to Miltenberger (2008:558) the concept of cognitive covert behaviour refers to emotional behaviour that is not directly observable and cannot be "recorded by an independent observer… rather only the person engaging in the cognitive covert behaviour can identify and record the occurrence of the behaviour." Miltenberger (2008:568) argues that nevertheless, it is known that people tend to think, have an inner conversation, solve problems, assess themselves, make plans and imagine specific types of behaviour or situations. However, cognitive behaviour entrenches patterns of thoughts. Miltenberger (2008) insists that handling emotional experience demands a well-organised and applicable plan to restructure the way of thinking. Building on Miltenberger (2008) this study suggests the following:

(1)   Lecturers must objectively define patterns of thinking and reasoning to help identify areas of weakness and strength because the accurate assessment of a personal thinking style is important in achieving emotional success (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

(2)   Lecturers should accurately identify the emotional states associated with patterns of thinking and reasoning and recorded thinking and reasoning, the trends and antecedents in a diary where necessary. This provides the knowledge on the emotional past and present controlling the thought process thereby providing the individual with the opportunity to handle the challenges.

(3)   Lecturers with the need for change orientation should be taught ways to balance information from the emotional brain to the rational brain to achieve balance for true emotional intelligence (Sterret, 2000). In order to achieve the balance, Miltenberger (2008) suggests that the disturbing thoughts should be identified, and an emotionally appropriate response should follow emanating from the relevant thoughts. Nelson and Low (2011) add that teaching ways to restructure thinking and reasoning as part of daily living can help achieve emotional balance. Miltenberger (2008) maintains that restructuring the pattern of thinking and reasoning can help to enhance covert behaviour that many academes fail to focus on. However, some scholars identify the limitations of cognitive models of emotional intelligence and it is discussed below.

3.3.6   LIMITATIONS OF THE COGNITIVE MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Coetzee and Jansen (2007:53) the emphasis of the cognitive model of emotional intelligence on "thinking and reasoning" is a major limitation because it makes cognitive models of emotional intelligence restrictive in measure and application. Nelson and Low (2011) affirm that the focus on thinking and reasoning makes practical application to real life difficult, especially in dealing with mental and physical challenges. Similarly, Bradberry (2003) posits that the ability to think properly in moments of challenges has been strongly critiqued. Bradberry (2003) claims that critique view cognitive models of emotional intelligence as inapplicable in the work environment, because consistent challenges impact on the academe's ability to think fast. Likewise, Goleman (2004) asserts that in moments of challenges, emotional minds hijack the situation and make the impact of cognitive minds less active. Nelson and Low (2011:18) attribute emotional hijacking to the fact that cognitive minds work slower but in a systematic way to protect the emotional brain from impulsivity. The solution to the problem is training the emotional mind to work cooperatively with the rational mind to promote good decisions, reduce biases, insensitivity and unfair treatment of others in personal and professional life (Emily Sterrett, 2000).

Another limitation of the cognitive model of emotional intelligence is that thinking-oriented lecturers cannot display warmness in dealing with other individuals (Coetzee & Jansen, 2007). Nelson and Low (2011) are of the opinion that an inability to display warmth is an indication of possible problematic domains. However, Bronfenbrenner (1997) maintains that environments without warmth limit reciprocal relationships that promote functionality and productivity. Coetzee and Jansen (2007:58) point out that thinking-oriented lecturers lack empathy, because "thinking type prefers the use of logic and rationality as the basis for problem-solving." However, thinking individuals only use values and emotions to decide and further support their logical conclusion; implying that thinking individuals prefer to relate to others from a logical and objective or subjective value-based point of view. Coetzee and Jansen (2007) argue that the imbalances amongst the thinking and emotional individuals are creating weakness in making decisions to solve problems in many institutions. Coetzee and Jansen (2007) argue further that in moments of challenges the thinking types display coldness and a lack of empathy. They continue by saying that thinking individuals have problems with emotional expression, particularly in appreciating and complimenting others and when intensely cherished values are disregarded, ignored or unappreciated. They may lash out at others, implying that thinking-oriented lecturers may find it difficult to handle professional, academic and institutional challenges, because they lack the ability to think quickly to take appropriate balanced action.

In summary, Blake, Smeyers, Smith, Standish and Wiley and Sons (2008) point out that the greatest mistake of a cognitive model of emotional intelligence is the separation of emotion and thinking, because such separation will not yield a powerful conclusion. Thus, some scholars of emotional intelligence propose non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence.

3.4   NON-COGNITIVE MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (NCMoEI)

The terms "non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence" are used to contrast a variety of behaviour, personality characteristics, and attitudes with academic skills aptitudes, and attainment" (Gutman & Schoon, 2013:8). Sociologists Bowles and Ginitis (1976) introduce the concept of non-cognitive skills as means of increasing the chances of achieving success in personal and professional life (Bowles & Ginitis, 1976). Macarthy and Wilson (2012:1) claim that non-cognitive skills are building blocks for respecting diversity and universal valued human rights that are contributing to the advancement of non-violent conflict resolution and peaceful environment. Non-cognitive skills are linked to the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence and some scholars describe non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence as qualities that are not exclusively intelligent and logically based (Rosen, Glennie, Dalton, Lennon & Robert Bozick, 2010).

The origin of the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence has been linked to Petrides, Rita and Kokkinaki (2007) who describe it as people's perception of their own emotional abilities (Petrides, Rita & Kokkinaki, 2007). The authors suggest that the measurement of emotional intelligence is better as "behavioural trends and self-perceived abilities… so its investigation should be conducted primarily within the personality framework…implying that Non-Cognitive Emotional Intelligence is linked to personality not to ability factors" (Petrides & Furnham, 2001:425). They continue by saying that the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence is borrowed from many "personality domains such as empathy and assertiveness (Goleman, 1995); social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920); personal intelligence (Gardner, 1983); and ability emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)". Petrides and Furnham (2001) maintain that the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence was proposed to curb the problems associated with measuring the cognitive emotional intelligence. Hence, most non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence measure the focus on well-being, self-control emotional, sociability and adaptability to both human and environmental conditions (Costa, Petrides & Tillmann, 2012). It therefore implies that non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence focus on skills that are not mental-oriented. The following common salient trend was identified in non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence and it is represented graphically in Figure 3:3.

Figure 3.3 indicates the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence at the centre. The second block cycle shows that non-cognitive emotional intelligence equips individuals with personal qualities that ensure success in life such as persistence, commitment, assertiveness, respect and empathy. The second block cycle indicates that non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence equipped with social attributes make some members more humane than other members of the system. The third block cycle suggests that applying the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence builds motivation to work smartly and diligently resulting in higher performance and success in life. The fourth block cycle indicates that the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence helps build and strengthen individual or group managerial styles resulting in less conflict and more bonding interaction. Thus, the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence is deemed very crucial for the tertiary landscape. These key elements identified in the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence are further discussed in the next section.
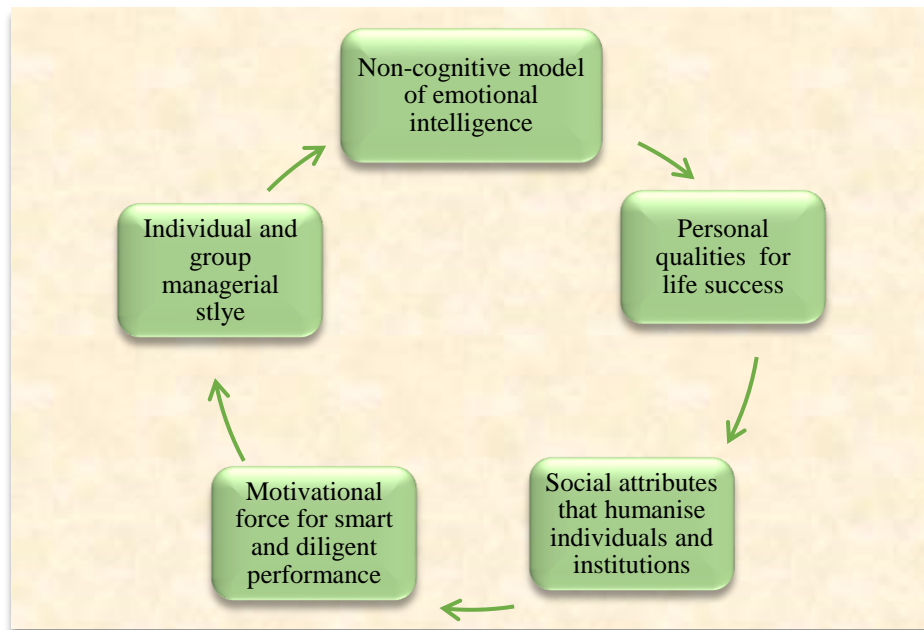
Figure 3.3:   A representation of a non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence

3.4.1   PERSONAL QUALITIES THAT ENSURE LIFE SUCCESS

Petrides, Rita and Kokkinaki (2007) refer to the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence as personal qualities that influence the way an individually perceived emotions and handle challenges with the emotional knowledge to ensure professional and personal success.

3.4.2   SOCIAL ATTRIBUTES THAT HUMANISE INDIVIDUALS AND INSTITUTIONS

The non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence is a social skill that guides individuals in expressing and displaying emotions in ways that contribute to the betterment of human interaction and relationship (Petrides, 2011). Better human interaction has been associated with creating of and enabling the environment that accommodates diverse lecturers and student (Macarthy & Wilson, 2012) because it makes them caring and empathetic.

3.4.3   MOTIVATIONAL FORCES FOR SMART AND DILIGENT PERFORMANCE

According to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010) the feeling of strong interest to perform a role is described as motivation. Stubbs (2005) affirms that adequate exposure to non-cognitive emotional intelligence increases self-motivation leading to smart and diligent performance of job roles. Millet (2007) further affirms that the application of the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence increases the motivation at work leading to quality performance and productivity.

3.4.4 INDIVIDUAL OR GROUP MANAGERIAL STYLE THAT FOSTERS PROFESSIONAL AND PERSONAL SUCCESS

According to Merkowitz and Earnest (2006) the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence justifies 75% of excellence in personal and professional life through building and enhancing managerial style to ensure optimum functioning. Siegling, Nielsen and Petrides (2014) affirm that non-cognitive emotional intelligence build individual management and leadership style in ways that increase mental, emotional and psychological health resulting in a better work environment. The non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence can be applied in a tertiary landscape.

3.4.5 APPLYING THE NON-COGNITIVE MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE TERTIARY LANDSCAPE ((NCMoEI)

The non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence can be applied in tertiary education to prevent or handle emotions resulting from the experiences of professional, academic and institutional challenges through building lecturers' optimism. The concept of optimism defines the general sense of self-assurance that there are prospects in the face of challenges (Carver & Scheiver, 2003). Carver and Scheiver (2003) postulate that optimistic lecturers can innovate, imagine and improvise to increase quality in services delivery and productivity in challenging moments. Central to Carver and Scheiver (2003) and also Makikangas and Kinnunen (2003) findings are that optimistic lecturers do not show fatigue and pessimism, so they experience less negative emotions in personal and professional life.

3.4.6 LIMITATIONS OF A NON-COGNITIVE MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (NCMoEI)

According to Saarni (2000) the major limitation of the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence is confusing the term emotional competence with emotional intelligence. Saarni (2000) explains that emotional competence must be recognised as emotional skills and the application of the skills vary according to the environment and circumstances. Another limitation identified by West (2014) is that the use of self-report can lead to increase in faking of answers. It is clearly obvious that there is a gap in the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence because it focuses on non-cognitive skills only. Hence some scholars saw the need to develop a model integrating cognitive and non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence resulting in the birth of a mixed model of emotional intelligence.

3.5   A MIXED MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (MMoEI)

The term "mixed model" "stems from the fact that the model mixes together core ideas of emotional intelligence with a variety of other personality traits (Free-Management-ebook.com, 2014:19). The mixed model of emotional intelligence is developed from the merging of key concepts of cognitive and non-cognitive skills and other skills unrelated to either emotions or intelligence (Free-Management-ebook.com, 2014:19). Although, Daniel Goleman is the major proponent of the mixed model of emotional intelligence, there are other proponents such as Bar-On (1997) and Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2003:72) who regard emotional intelligence as the mixing of various abilities to guide thoughts and activities to ensure that systemic demands and pressures are handled effectively and successfully.

Nelson and Low (2003, 2011:74) also define emotional intelligence as mixing varieties of learnable skills vital for identifying emotional strengths and weaknesses, for forming and maintaining successful and beneficial relationships necessary for role performance and product work. Goleman (1995) and Nelson and Low (2011) underscore that the mixed model of emotional intelligence is a learnable skill because it provides opportunity for the academe to build, improve and strengthen their emotional intelligence skills where necessary.

The mixed model of emotional intelligence measures individuals' capability to understand emotions and use the emotional knowledge to make appropriate decisions, attuned to social environment, build trust and empathy (Seddon, 2015). The mixed model of emotional intelligence uses four or more than four domains to measure emotional intelligence; however, the focus of the study is on the use of the following four domains viz.; self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. The mixed model of emotional intelligence measure is centred on self-report (Goleman, 2004). Given the considerable examination of the mixed model of emotional intelligence, I found the following four common salient trends amongst the proponents as presented in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 conceptualises the mixed model of emotional intelligence from the four major common trends amongst the proponents. The first process indicates that the mixed model of emotional intelligence is a learnable and teachable skill, implying that there is opportunity for lecturers that need to develop, enhance and strengthen their capacity. The second process indicates that in teaching emotional intelligence skills the focus is on balancing the information between the emotional and rational brain to ensure credible decisions and actions. The third process is focusing on individual style of managing emotions to ensure proper balancing of emotional and rational brain information, in order to achieve emotional control and appropriate expression. The fourth process is to provide progress feedback to ensure consistent, motivated commitment.
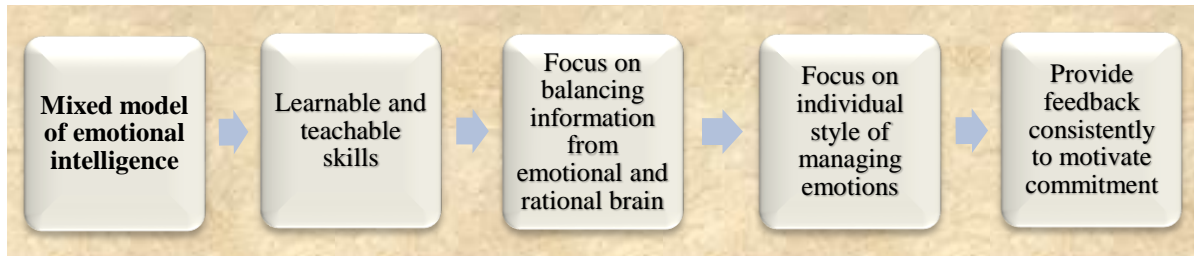
Figure 3.4:   A representation of mixed models of emotional intelligence

The mixed model of emotional intelligence involves:

- A learnable skill that enhances role performance and productivity refers to the ability to use emotional knowledge to design an emotional intelligence learning programme and training such as seminars or workshops and training or interventions (Hammett, Nelson & Low, 2012);

- The content of learning emotional intelligence which needs to focus on balancing information between the emotional and rational brain to promote credible and unbiased decisions;

- An individual style of managing emotions which is monitored by the trainer to ensure emotional hijack is curtailed; and

- The provision of consistent feedback which is vitally important to ensure motivation for further commitment.

In this regard, I therefore considered the application of the mixed model of emotional intelligence in the tertiary landscape and possible limitations.

3.5.1   APPLYING THE MIXED MODEL EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE TERTIARY LANDSCAPE (NCMOEI)

One of the fundamental ideas of the mixed model of emotional intelligence is to use a variety of skills to build, broaden and enhance the capacity to cope with professional and personal challenges (Nelson & Low, 2012). In this regard, the mixed model of emotional intelligence emphasises the application of the variety of skills to achieve quality service delivery and productivity (Seal, Naumann, Scott & Royce-Davis, 2010). Hence, possible application of the mixed model of emotional intelligence requires constructive investigation of the potential problem area to guide change orientation (Hammett, Nelson & Low, 2012). To achieve the successful application of the mixed model emotional intelligence in the tertiary landscape, the researcher suggests the following steps:

- Establish the level of awareness. It is acceptable to explore the level of awareness of the individual lecturers with regard to their professional, academic and institutional challenges which are associated with emotional experience and subsequent impact (Goleman, 2004);

- Identify the level of subjectivity and objectivity in labelling the emotional experiences with the observation method (Creswell, 2013) and emotional data to increase the power of the findings;

- Identify the lecturers' level of optimism and pessimism to highlight the extent lecturers are willing to participate in emotional intelligence training (Carver & Scheiver, 2003);

- Identify the lecturers' strengths and weaknesses in handling emotions (Nelson & Low, 2011), because weaknesses in handling emotional experience may imply a lack of emotional intelligence skills;

- Identify institutional willingness to support and provide an enabling environment for lecturers to learn and apply the skills. Institutional willingness may be by enacting policies support emotional intelligence; and

- Design programmes using necessary models to emphasise the identified potential problem areas (Nelson & Low, 2011).

However, it is important to point out that the application of the mixed model of emotional intelligence may differ in different systems but identification of potential problem areas for change orientation or restructuring follows the same process (Saarni, 2003; Nelson & Low, 2011; Miltenberger, 2008). Although, the mixed method model of emotional intelligence has been applauded for mixing variety of skills, it has also been criticised for incorporating more of the cognitive features (Saarni, 2003). The limitations are discussed in the next section.

3.5.2   LIMITATIONS OF THE MIXED MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Mayer et al (2000) and McCrae (2000) the mixed model of emotional intelligence has been critiqued for incorporating more cognitive features. Similarly, the mixed model of emotional intelligence has been blamed for generalisation of findings (Prins, Niekerk & Weyers, 2011). Another major critique came from Salovey and Caruso (2000:1) who claim the limitations of the mixed model of emotional intelligence idea is the inclusion of diverse psychological abilities that are not related theoretically and scientifically. They continue by saying that most of the abilities barely relate to emotions or intelligence leading to terminological and conceptual confusion. Notwithstanding, the limitations of these three

models of emotional intelligence discussed in the study, I further examined the rationale for the inclusion of the emotional intelligence models in the study.

3.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODEL IN THE STUDY

The concept of emotional intelligence remains one of the benchmarks for understanding the emotional intelligence in accordance with the study. Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) argue that the understanding of the models of emotional intelligence grouped under cognitive model of emotional intelligence; non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence and mixed model of emotional intelligence can also provide ideas on the approaches that scholars of emotional intelligence are applying to recognise, analyse, understand and learn about individuals' or the group's emotional abilities. The rationale for examination of the cognitive, non-cognitive and mixed models of emotional intelligence is to establish the relevance and gaps in accordance with the study. Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) add that the models of emotional intelligence measure and explain human abilities to identify and understand emotions in personal and professional life, in order to understand the contribution emotional intelligence is making and challenges that need to be curbed for people to live emotionally intelligent lives.

With regard to cognitive model of emotional intelligence, Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) posit that it measures individual and institutional knowledge of emotional abilities. The important aspect of the cognitive model of emotional intelligence is the use of the four domains such as perception, emotional facilitation, emotional understanding and emotional management to measure emotional intelligence. Mayer and Salovey (1997) elucidate this aspect by pointing out that there is a link between the four domains and a prediction of emotional intelligence skills. However, Jack Mayer (2012) argues that the failure of the cognitive model of emotional intelligence to focus on practical application to daily living is a major setback, because the purpose of emotional intelligence is to enhance life success. Hein (2006) adds that the emphasis on the use of only cognitive is not justifiable, because people need more than cognition to achieve progress. Blake, Smeyers, Smith and Standish (2008) join the argument by saying that the cognitive focus solely on the rational mind makes the model inconclusive in application and this creates a gap for a non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence.

On the other hand, the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence was developed to cover the gap discovered in the cognitive model. Petrides (2007) explains that the idea of the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence is to bridge the measuring gap existing in the measure of cognitive skills. The important aspect of the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence is the use of the five domains such as well-being, self-control, emotionality, sociability and adaptability to measure and predict emotional intelligence (Siegling, Nielsen & Petrides, 2014).

However, Nelson (2010) argues that emotions are shaped by beliefs and values, since these involve elements of thinking, using solely non-cognitive based measures which are restrictive in nature. This restrictive nature of the non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence made scholars to search for an inclusive model and they came up with the mixed model of emotional intelligence.

Consequently, the restrictive nature of the cognitive and non-cognitive model of emotional intelligence made some scholars of emotional intelligence to come up with the mixed model. The mixed model of emotional intelligence adopted in this study is Goleman's model of emotional intelligence. The rationale behind the use of Goleman's model of emotional intelligence is because the model focuses on performability and applicability to increase functionality and efficiency in the workplace. Goleman believes that his model is a "synthesizer" and can combine with diverse skills to produce results in any institution. Considering the consistency in the rise of professional, academic and institutional challenges, mixing different abilities may be vital. According to Kinicki and Kreitner (2009) most institutions are searching for individuals with a combination of rational and emotional abilities to handle the institutional challenges, implying that many institutions are realizing the importance of mixing skills in solving problems. Research done by Kinicki and Kreitner (2009) reveals that individuals with mixed skills of emotional intelligence handle problems differently and successfully. Goleman (2004) argues that merging the tenets of cognitive and non-cognitive models of emotional intelligence is the best way to produce quality in performance and productivity in education without the medical toll of diseases.

According to Chan (2002) Goleman's mixed model of emotional intelligence integrates varieties of skills in measures used to predict emotional intelligence. Likewise, Carmine, Leo and Associates (2014) affirm that Goleman's mixed model of emotional intelligence is suitable for the study, because it is originally designed to measure workplace abilities. Although, Goleman's model of emotional intelligence has been used in several organisations, it has not been used as in the context of the study consequently it has not been used in investigating professional, academic and institutional challenges in tertiary education in Nigeria. I used specifically, the four domains of Goleman's emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management and I tried to adapt the domains to suit this study, coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.7 CONCEPTUALISING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN ACCORDANCE WITH GOLEMAN'S FOUR DOMAINS

The conceptualisation of emotional intelligence in accordance with Daniel Goleman's (2004) four domains; which are self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-

management are a signpost to structuring and positioning the study, implying that Goleman's emotional intelligence framework guided the data collection, data review and analyses. The justification for the use of Goleman's framework is based on the fact that it has been applied in "tens of thousands of schools and organizations throughout the world" with outstanding results (Goleman, 2013:1). Moreover, Cherniss, Goleman and Emmerling's (1998:1) emotional intelligence best practice guideline aligns with the context of this study. According to their guideline:

- Emotional intelligence best practice must examine organisational needs (in this study organisational challenges group under professional, academic and institutional were examined);

- Emotional intelligence best practices must examine individual needs (in the study the impact of the challenges on lecturers were examined);

- Emotional intelligence practices must deliver assessment with care (in the study the emotional strengths and weaknesses in dealing with challenges were examined in the study. However, it was not grouped into absolutely negative or positive influences but as data for improvement); and

- Emotional intelligence findings must aim towards advocating for a suitable policy that might encourage the integration of emotional intelligence into the institutions, particularly recruitment and selection of lecturers as well as designing suitable models to fit the needs of the institutions and their lecturers.

Goleman (1995:48) defines emotional intelligence as "knowing one's emotions; managing emotions; motivating oneself, recognising emotions in others, and handling relationships". In 1998, Goleman developed an emotional intelligence model that is workplace and institutionally oriented (Goleman, 2001). Goleman (1998) claims that his domains measure the potential of individuals or institutions, to learn and apply emotional intelligence. According to Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006:9) the model is grouped into four major domains such as:

- Self-awareness comprising of emotional self-confidence, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence;

- Self-management comprising of self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement drive and initiative;

- Social-awareness comprising of empathy, service orientation and organisational awareness; and

- Relationship-management comprising of developing others, influence, communication, conflict-management, leadership, a change catalyst, building bonds, teamwork and collaboration.

3.7.1 SELF-AWARENESS

Earlier studies of Binet Simon (1904); Lewis and Brooks-Gunn (1979) point out that self-awareness provides information necessary for building personality, assertiveness and honest personal views of situations. Cohen (1994) avers that the value of self-awareness is impartial self-assessment, leading to the understanding of inward values and beliefs that influence emotional behaviour. Goleman (2001) embraces the concept of self-awareness as the first in his four domains of emotional intelligence and argue that self-awareness is the foundation of living emotional intelligent lives. He continues on to explain that self-awareness is an honest and well-informed examination of personal emotions, implying that self-awareness is a powerful tool for obtaining well-informed information on personal emotional strengths and weaknesses. Goleman posits that his self-awareness domain comprises: emotional self-awareness, accurate self-awareness and a positive personal mind-set.

3.7.1.1 Emotional self-awareness

According to Goleman (1995) emotional self-awareness refers to the understanding of personal emotions. Marks Matthew and Zaccaro (2001) are of the opinion that awareness of personal emotions could be a predictor to individual and group success, because the team could understand each other's emotional state. Nelson, Low and Hammett (2012) acknowledge that individuals that are aware of their personal emotions communicate in a clear and honest way and manage their time well to meet official deadlines. Goleman (2007) posits that individuals that are aware of their emotions achieve personal and professional goals because emotional knowledge helps them to manage emotions of frustrations and anger. In the study, lecturers' emotional awareness was examined.

3.7.1.2 Accurate self-assessment

According to Anderson and Lux (2005) accurate self-assessment refers to the individual's ability to process factual information regarding strengths and weaknesses required for handling challenges, such as professional, academic and institutional challenges. Boyatzis (1982) affirm that accurate self-assessment increases one's performance leading to higher productivity through the use of personal strength to balance identified weaknesses. Jordan and Troth (2004) observe that accurate self-assessment leads to a greater awareness and understanding of ways to use self-control and persistence to do teamwork. A study by MTD Training and Ventus

(2010) reveals that individuals possess the ability to accurately assess their emotions and enjoy bonding relationships and collaboration in teamwork. The study therefore examined lecturers' ability to accurately assess their own emotions and emotions of other people.

3.7.1.3 Self-confidence

According to Goleman (2004) self-confidence is the ability to handle threatening challenges in an optimistic, determined and committed manner. Doctrat (2011) links self-confidence to an optimistic frame of mind and the belief in one's capability to achieve personal and professional goals. Likewise, Cherniss and Goleman (2001:83) and Jacobs (2001:164) acknowledge that self-confidence involves a powerful positive self-image and it leads to outstanding performance. Research by Nadler (2006) reveals that self-confidence increases performance by influencing people's motivation to achieve common goals. Goleman (2004) explains the increase in performance is resulting from making good decisions in the presence of the opposition, facing a difference in opinion or open condemnation from authority figures. Anderson (2010) further explains that self-confident individuals display skills such as determination and commitment to their roles, because they can creatively improvise. Nadler (2006) sums up by saying that self-confident individuals are good facilitators and performers at their jobs, because they are focused not egotistical and self-justifying. The study sought evidence of self-confidence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.7.2 SELF-MANAGEMENT

According to Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) self-management is the ability to control impulsivity to act by staying calm in challenging situations. HelpGuide (2012) points out that self-management involves the consistent monitoring of emotions to ensure that one acts responsibly in one's personal and professional life (HelpGuide, 2012). This implies that self-management is about self-discipline in the use of emotions in setting objectives, working autonomously and collaborating with other people (Australian Curriculum, 2013). The Department of Education, Science and Training [DEST] (2002:7) acknowledges that self-management is a skill that contributes to employee fulfilment and advancement. In the study, self-management includes emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement orientation, initiative and optimism.

3.7.2.1 Emotional self-control

According to DeLisi (2014) emotional self-control is the capacity to control personal emotions in moments when there is a strong desire to act irrational. Goleman (2001) maintains that emotional self-control is a skill that helps an individual to take charge of the emotions and the

right frame of mind in difficult situations. Nelson (2012) links emotional self-control to modes of communication and says that individuals in charge of their emotions express their anger in assertive but respectful ways. Eisenberg et al. (2001) affirm that individuals that can control their emotions in moments of intense challenge are emotionally intelligent, implying that emotional self-control reduces impulsivity to act and increases calmness (see Carver, Sutton & Scheier, 2000; Posner & Rothbart 2000; Davidson, Lewis, Alloy, Amaral, Bush & Cohen, 2002). The study examined the ability of lecturers to remain calm in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.2.2 Transparency

The term transparency is derived from old French and Medieval Latin but used in emotional intelligence to denote "an authentic openness to others about one's feelings, beliefs and actions" (Primal Leadership & Goleman 2013:1). According to Goleman (2004) and Merriam-Webster (2013) a transparent display of emotions is easily perceived, detected and readily understood. Primal Leadership and Goleman (2013:1) explain that individuals that are emotionally transparent willingly acknowledge mistakes and wrong actions taken against colleagues and students, implying that transparency in emotional intelligence can encourage honesty in handling professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.2.3 Adaptability

According to Jacobs (2001) adaptability defines the ability of an individual to handle professional, academic and institutional challenges with flexibility and openness. Primal Leadership and Goleman (2013:1) posit that individuals with the ability to adapt to challenges can multitask with determination and commitment to achieve desired goals irrespective of the challenges they encounter. In the study, the ability of lecturers to adapt to professional, academic and institutional challenges was examined.

3.5.2.4   Achievement

According to Primal Leadership and Goleman (2013:1) achievement oriented individuals have the ability to perform well in the face of professional, academic and institutional challenges. Goleman (2004) continues to explain that it is because achievement oriented individuals are self-determined, courageous and committed. Goleman further elaborates on achievement-oriented individuals as practical and calculative in setting measurable and attainable goals (Primal Leadership and Goleman 2013:1). This particular study examined the achievement-oriented ability in handling professional academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.2.5   Optimism

Research by Scheier and Carver (2001) reveals that optimistic individuals are hopeful in future success and cope differently from pessimistic individuals. Chang (2002) using data from optimism to pessimism and stress appraisal argues that optimistic individuals are less vulnerable to emotions because they handle challenges well so they experience more good health than pessimistic individuals (Chang, Sanna & Yang, 2003). Optimistic individuals excel in their jobs, enjoy good mental health and quality lifestyle emotional intelligent life (Peterson and Bossio, 2001; Kubzansky, Sparrow, Vokonas and Kawachi, 2001; Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 2001; Tindle et al., 2009; Giltay et al., 2004). Along the same line, Ballantyne (2013) maintains that optimistic individuals have better socialisation and interaction skills leading to bonding relationships vital for productivity in the work environment. Conversano et al. (2010:25) assert that optimistic individuals excel in personal and professional life, because they have confidence, and do not doubt their abilities in handling challenges as they arise. The above-mentioned researchers examined optimism in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.3   SOCIAL AWARENESS

According to Segal and Smith (2013) social awareness is the ability to understand the emotions and emotional clues of a social group and use the information derived to solve the problems initiating the emotions. Goleman (2004) points out that social awareness involves the understanding of the social and cultural meaning of expressed and displayed emotions within a system. This means that social awareness is reading the emotions of a social group to understand and deal with the challenges creating the social emotions. This particular study focused on understanding the social climate of the institutions. According to Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) social awareness comprises: primal empathy; empathetic accuracy; social cognition; self-presentation and institutional awareness.

3.5.3.1 Primal empathy

This refers to sensing the emotions of other individuals and using the information to empathise with them (Goleman 2004; Miller 2005). Empathy describes thoughtful consideration of other individuals' emotions before making decisions (Change-Management.com 2012). Goleman (2007:86) adds that empathy entails active listening and paying full attention to understand the other person's viewpoint and show compassion. The researchers examined the primal empathy in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.3.2 Empathetic accuracy

This is the accurate understanding of another person's thoughts, feelings, and intentions (Goleman, 2007:84). This means that empathetic accuracy is a measure of a perceiver's ability to accurately understand the specific content of another person's thoughts and feelings (Ickes, 1993.). Empathetic accuracy is the reflection of ability to judge the emotions of another person accurately so as to predict the outcome of relationship and social adjustments (see Ickes et al., 1990; Mayer Salovey & Caruso, 2002; Ickes et al., 1990; Levenson & Reuf, 1992; Stinson & Ickes, 1992; Cote & Miners, 2006). Some researchers believe that empathic accuracy could be shaped by social roles and cultural norms (Kraus, Cote & Keltner, 2010), implying that individual's social standards and traditional orientation determines the ability to show empathy. Goleman (2004) supports this assumption by saying that proper knowledge of the social environment promotes accurate empathy. The study examined accurate empathy in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.3.3 Social cognition

According to Goleman (2007:90) social cognition refers to knowledge of the ways the social world actually works and the ability to use the knowledge to find solutions to social dilemmas. Hence, social cognition helps in navigating the subtle interpersonal world in ways that promote good social relationships (Goleman 2007). He continues to explain that the understanding of the social environment promotes and enhances proper communication. The study examined the knowledge of the social environment in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.3.4 Self-presentation

According to Quizlet (2012) self-presentation refers to appropriate emotional behaviour. Several studies found that the socialisation process dictates the way individuals present themselves (Donald, 1993; Reathel, 1994; Holodynski & Friedlimeier, 2006). A study by

Delport (2009) acknowledges that socio-cultural context determines the way individuals present themselves in challenging moments. Goleman (2004) explains that the strong cultural difference may manifest in the way an individual presents them in emotional challenges systems, because of the diversity that exists in the systems. The study examined self-presentation in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.4 RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Relationship management is one of Goleman's domains of emotional intelligence. Goleman (2001) believes that mastering relationship skills, based on emotional intelligence competencies helps in handling relationships problems. He argues that the ability to handle personal emotional outburst or impulses to act translates to success in relationship management (Goleman, 2001:5). Goleman concludes by saying that the success of human relationships centres on skill of accommodating other people and their emotions (Goleman, 2001:5). He lists the clusters of relationship-management to include developing others, influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and teamwork.

3.5.4.1 Developing others

According to Spencer and Spencer (1993) the ability to improve the skill of other people is a character of excellent outstanding lecturers; managers and counsellors. Goleman (2000b) argues that the ability of an institution to identify and develop the professional needs of the members is vital for success because it reduces challenges. Goleman concludes that helping to develop the skills of colleagues builds relationships, increases performance and productivity within the system. The study examined the consistency in engaging in continuing professional development.

3.5.4.2 Influence

According to Pearce and Robinson Jr. (2009:39) the art of influence entails constructive shaping of the outcome of interaction, using tact and self-control. Goleman (2007) is of the opinion that the ability to influence is linked with the understanding of the social environment and applying empathy. He continues by saying that controlling impulsivity to act leads to display of professional behaviour with composure courteously. He sums up by saying that professional behaviour that depicts calmness but assertive communication reduces conflicts and violent behaviour. The study examined the extent of influence that depicts calmness and proper communication.

3.5.4.3 Communication

According to Miller (2008:121) communication is "the interchange of ideas, beliefs, thoughts, feelings and emotions and it can occur through various means, both verbal and nonverbal". According to Goleman (2007) communicating with emotional intelligence skills guides emotional actions, build restraint to conflict and encourages long lasting friendships. Consequently, Goleman suggests that strong discourse must be built on the understanding of emotional communication within institutions, so as to increase the desire to react in ways that promote and advance an emotional intelligence system. The study examined communication patterns in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.4.4 Conflict management

According to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2012:142) managing conflict is one of the key strategies for addressing violence and Goleman (2007) describes it as an important emotional intelligence skills. According to Goleman (2004) conflict management aims at identifying developing or developed challenges such as professional, academic and institutional and effectively design strategies to handle them. Goleman (2007) explains that conflict management involves the skills of listening to understand the dialogue and make constructive decisions to solve the problem.

3.5.4.5 Leadership

According to Goleman (2012:4) leadership is the "ability to 'ignite' passion and inspire colleagues to perform effectively" even in the midst of challenges. Goleman argues that emotional intelligent leaders are capable of initiating and promoting a passionate work environment, building teamwork and collaboration. Several studies acknowledge that emotionally intelligent leaders are change facilitators because they understand emotions and model them appropriately (Oduro, 2014).

3.5.4.6 Change catalyst

Goleman (2004) makes the convincing claim that emotional intelligence increases the determination to lead change and handle professional, academic and institutional challenges. Goleman (2004) adds by saying that change agents are good at establishing, maintaining and strengthening relationships, more often referred to as bond builders.

3.5.4.7 Building bonds

According to Goleman (2004) building bonds are an important emotional intelligence relationship skill. Goleman (2004:116) asserts that bonding indicates, people are feeling contented, encouraged, involved, and relaxed thereby indicating synergy in relationships that exist in the system. Likewise, Belsten (2009) affirms that building bonds encourages and supports proper interaction in the system thereby increasing the level of trust and support amongst the academe. The researchers examined bonding in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

3.5.4.8 Collaboration and teamwork

According to Belsten (2009) collaboration and teamwork entail working together to achieve institutional goals. Likewise, Luca and Tarricone (2001) maintain that an emotionally intelligent team performs better than teams that lack emotional intelligence. Goleman (2004) maintains that teamwork encourages positive and better communication skills resulting in better performance, progress and productivity.

3.6   LINKING BRONFENBRENNER'S SYSTEMS WITH EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The main focus of this study is to establish the way university lecturers use emotional intelligence to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges that occur in Bronfenbrenner's (1979) systems. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems is used to establish the way each system interacts to intensify the pressure that impacts on lecturers furthering the need for coping. The literature also provides evidence that lecturers experience intense pressure that undermines their confidence and confuse and disorganise them (Hudu, 2015). This is clear in Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory that the situation in any of the systems could make or mar the progress of its memebers. He pointed out microsystems as the seat of emotions, because it is the immediate environment of the lecturers and the functional process that demands face-to-face interaction and relationships.

Several studies acknowledge that emotions play a major role in intellectual interrelational and relationship processes as well as social compartments (Lopes, Nezlek, Schutz & Salovey, 2004; Sai & Wei Lin, 2012; Asiah, Hayati, Thomas & Francis, 2015). The impact of the challenges on lecturers' emotions, if persisting could impact on academic and social functioning disrupting the reciprocal interactional processes and ethical bonding in relationships required for quality services delivery and productivity in education (Nelson & Low, 2012). Other studies believe that misinterpreted and unchecked emotions could convey wrong information about commons

intentions and thoughts, because emotions serve as a communication tool (Keltner & Haidt, 2001; Opengart & Bierema, 2016). To curb the negative effects of emotions caused Mayer and Salovey to propose emotional intelligence so that emotions could help to guide behaviour in coping (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In this regard, this study explores the way emotional intelligence could guide the lecturers to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges distributed within Bronfenbrenner's (1979) five systems as shown in Figure 5.3 below. This implies the emotional competence of university lecturers have to be studied to understand the way it is relevant to their coping mechanisms. Bronfenbrenner (1979) believes that his five systems such as microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosytem, when explored should help researchers identify why and how things happened and the systems that made it happen. The importance of his system to this study lies in identifying the systems that create and intensify the pressures associated with professional, academic and institutional challenges which lecturers experience. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory should help to identify various systems producing emotional pressures and the way emotional intelligence has been used to curb the impact of the challenges.

Goleman (1995) is of opinion that his four domains of emotional intelligence (personal competences: self-awareness, self-management, social competence, social-awareness and relationship-management) should identify, highlight and reveal the lecturers' ability to naviagate challenges with his emotional competences. The concept of emotional intelligence is the ability to identiy emotions, understand the reason behind the emotions and use the information to think in a self-motivating, realistic and optimistic style irrespective of the opposing challenges. In line with this thinking, linking emotional emotional competences with Bronfenbrenner's concepts (1979) focus attention on the possible theoretical applications such as tracking progress of lecturers within the institution and achieving the kind of progress desired. Professionally and personally the progress involves curbing professional, academic and institutional challenges and the desired key features for driving the progress need government intervention and institutional warmness (Dochy, 2011). Warmth for lecturers means application of emotional competence of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management to ensure that professional progress is achieved and sustained within Bronfenbrenner's systems. Once, Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological system and Goleman's frameworks for emotional intelligence are merged to understand the experience of challenges and which competences lecturers apply in the systems, the information derived could be developed, strengthened and enhanced. The ability of lecturers to cope with the challenges is derived from warmth as they adapt, adjust and sustain themselves in the university system irrespective of government intervention or not.

According to the two frameworks, emotional intelligence must be examined within the context of emotions generated within the systems and the way lecturers have been able to cope with their competences. The frameworks can assist in examining the competences to understand the way they have helped lecturers to adapt, adjust and sustain self within the systems. Asiah, Hayati, Thomas and Francis (2015) agree that emotional intelligence should help lecturers to become more effective and efficient in managing themselves and their job descriptions. The relationship between Bronfenbrenner's systems and Goleman's emotional intelligence theory is illustrated below.
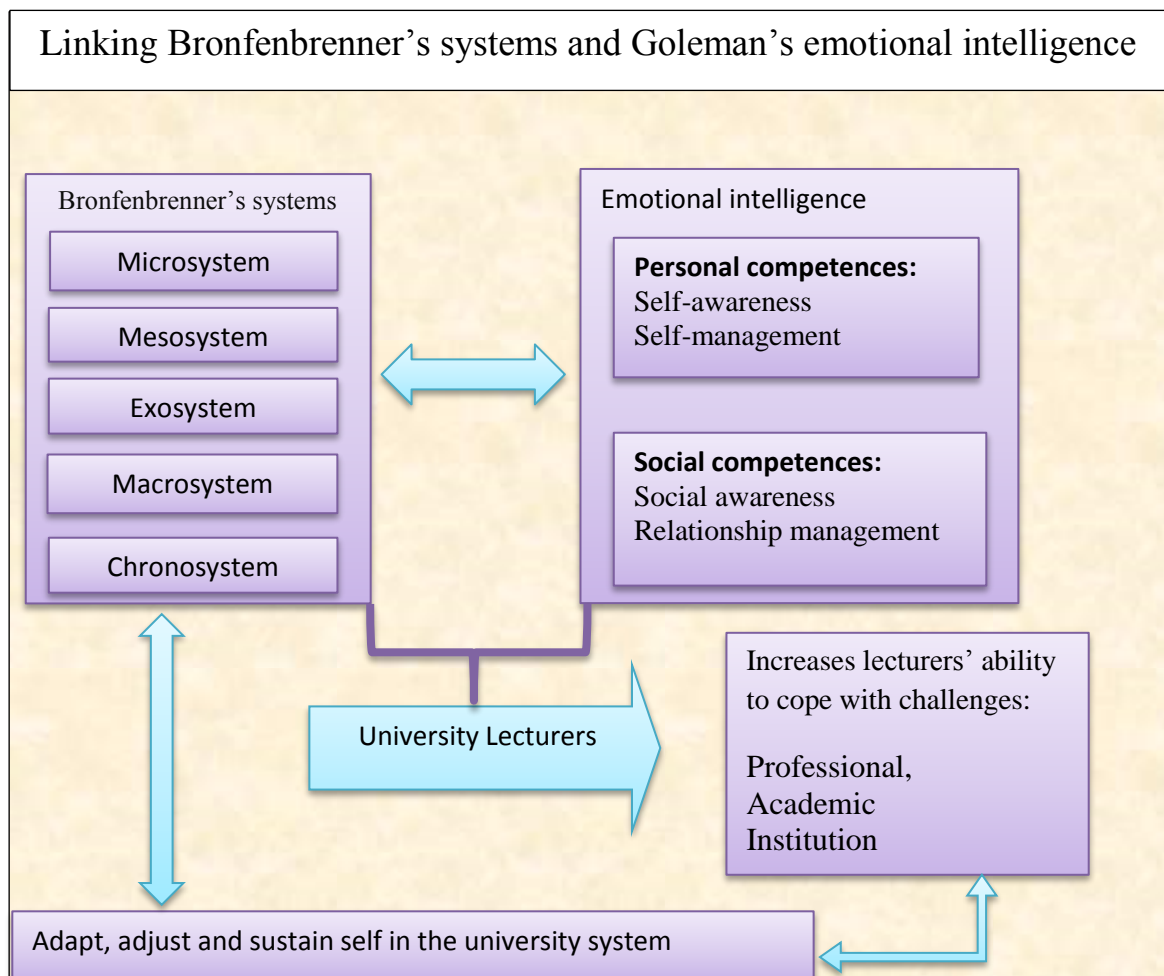
Figure 3.5: The link between Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1979) and Goleman's (1995) framework for emotional competences

3.7   CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, I tried to establish that professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities are situated within Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological system theory. I examined the concept of emotional intelligence, the models of emotional intelligence and justified the inclusion in the study. The conceptualisation of emotional intelligence by Goleman

with his four domains such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship-management was focused on. The chapter covered the importance and benefit of emotional intelligence of the academe. The importance of emotional intelligence, using the four domains such as self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management was identified as capable of helping the academe to build reciprocal bonding relationships necessary for proper functioning in the system. I also identified emotional intelligence as capable of helping the academe to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges, because societal changes and global trends will consistently drive challenges. In this regard, emotional intelligence is seen as a technique to keep the lecturers determined, committed and prepared for emerging challenges. The chapter identifies the benefit of emotional intelligence to help tertiary education to retain the academe, develop their professional skills and meet with emerging challenges. The benefits also include building creative and efficient team groups resulting in an increase in quality of service delivery and productivity in education. I therefore conclude by saying that emotional intelligence may actually be the lost key that must be found for tertiary education to cope with professional, academic and institutional intelligence. Chapter four will focus on the research methodology to discuss the research process that was utilised in data collection and analyses for coping with professional academic and institutional challenges.

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CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters, I reviewed the literature on professional, academic and institutional challenges and the way they are embedded within Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory. I also reviewed emotional intelligence, the existing models and the justification for the use of Goleman's emotional competence framework amongst others. Earlier on in Chapter 1, I briefly described the background orientation to this study and research methodology to be utilised. This chapter illuminates the research methodology, which is the procedure to explore this study. This chapter describes the procedures and approaches for collecting data, analysing data and interpreting as well as writing the research report. The main guide in this chapter is the research paradigm, which is drawn from an interpretative paradigm and selected based on my ontological and epistemological view of reality and the way knowledge can be constructed from reality. Furthermore, I will discuss my research design, research approach and reseach type, research methods, which I used to select my research sites and participants, data collection, data analysis as well as the process I applied to ensure trustworthiness of the study. I also included figures and tables for better understanding of the research procedure applied in the study. I ensured that my role as a researcher followed the principles underlying the use of qualitative research by the lives of the academics focusing on meaning and perception, coping and impact to understand the data and interpret it without comprise trustworthiness. The following research questions as presented in chapter one of this study guides research methodology:

The main research question to guide this study is:

How do Nigerian university lecturers cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges posed to their emotional intelligence?

The following served as secondary research questions:

- How do Nigerian university lecturers perceive professional, academic and institutional challenges?

- What coping strategies do Nigerian university lecturers apply in managing professional, academic and institutional challenges?

- What impact do these professional, academic and institutional challenges have on lecturers' emotions?

- What will the key elements of an emotional intelligence model be for Nigerian University lecturers?

4.2   RESEARCH PARADIGM

Given that, qualitative research on a social basis is concerned with worldviews with the aim to contextualise, interpret, understand and present my viewpoints; I engaged a paradigm that relates to my research design to guide the process. I applied a three way process to help me understand and unfold the holistic multiple realities this study present (nature of reality), how I know what I know and that what I know is trustworthy (epistemology). I further used the process to generate and collate my research data (methodology) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; TerreBlanche & Durrheim, 1999; Ritchie & Lewis 2012; Bryman, 2012; Maree, 2012). A paradigm is a process, a standard structure for understanding an environment of opinions and perceptions people have about lived experiences in the social world to find answers to problems under scrutiny (Perren & Ram, 2004; Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Babbie (2012); Bryman, 2012; Ritchie & Lewis 2012; Maree, 2012). A paradigm, as Foucault (1972:1977) extrapolates, is diverse beliefs developed within discussions and activities of participants, and is exclusively environmental and time-oriented.

Given, an interpretative paradigm involves a philosophical approach that assesses the truth of the meaning of an idea by focusing on understanding the experiences from the perspective of the lecturers (Merrian, 2002; Myers, 2009; Reeves & Hedberg, 2003), and to "reflect upon the broader epistemological and philosophical consequences of their perspective" (Perren & Ram, 2004, p. 95). I employed interpretative paradigm principles, in order to understand the "complex whole from preconceptions about the meanings of its parts and their interrelationships" (Klein & Myers, 1999:71). To achieve it, I set the primary research questions (complex whole) to understand the whole study and secondary research questions (as parts) to understand them separately. I connected them to arrive at trustworthy answers to the research questions and to arrive at credibile findings (Paterson & Higgs, 2005; von Zweck et al., 2008). The second principle of contextualisation is "an inevitable difference in understanding between the interpreter and the author of a text that is created by the historical distance between them ... One of the key tasks becomes one of seeking meaning in context." (Klein & Myers, 1999:73). To achieve this principle, I reviewed, extensively, existing literature and engaged in pilot studies for improving an understanding of the concept of professional, academic and institutional challenges as well as emotional intelligence. I then, selected the relevant concepts to the study and discuss them (Klein & Myers, 1999).

Again to apply the third principle of interaction between the researcher and the participants, I focused more on describing the ways in which data collection and interpretation affected each other (Klein & Myers, 1999; Miskon, 2013). To achieve this principle, I established a good relationship with my participants, with informed consent and I tape recorded the interview followed by a transcription of the interview. I engaged in rigorous scrutiny of the data, organinsing it case by case, theme by theme until there was data overload. I merged the analysed data themes and categories for interpretation and to answer the research questions. This helped to gain knowledge on how each case (university and the lecturers) the perception, coping and impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges impact on their emotional intelligence. I went on to apply the fourth principle of abstraction and generalisation through relating the data interpretation to the application of theories (Klein & Myers, 1999; Walsham, 1995 Miskon, 2013) such as those linked with Bronfenbrenner (1997) and Goleman 1995. I achieved this by using the theoretical framework of Bronfenbrenner and Goleman's emotional competence framework to analyse and interpret the data. It helped in identification of systems and competences that produce pressure and I made known my deeper insight of the study and the ways I conceptualised my findings.

Furthermore, I applied the fifth principle of dialogical thinking which requires "researcher to confront his or her preconceptions (prejudices) which guided the original research design the original lenses with the data that emerge through the research process" (Hirschheim & Klein, 1989, p. 82). To achieve this priniciple, I reviewed the research questions to ensure they are focused on what they set out to achieve. I reviewed the research instrument with significant orders to ensure the quality of the instrument. I applied for ethical considerations and the instrument was approved. I conducted a pilot study with similar participants and context to ensure the trustworthiness of the research instrument. During data analysis and interpretation, dialogical reasoning was involved to eliminate bias and increase the credibility of the study to clarify the findings (Fernández, 2005). I went on to apply the sixth principle of multiple interpretations through merging of the data from the three universities during and after analysis. I tiangulated and synthesised the findings to ensure corroboration and argument with chains of evidence (Miskon, 2013).

On the other hand, I applied the seventh principle of suspicion critical thinking, asking probing questions for clarity of moaning and signs. I took a critical standpoint at all times all through the information-gathering and exploration. Participants' view was examined at face value. Probing and triangulation of results occurred. I further met with my supervisors to validate and eliminate unsuitable points. These principles enabled me to coordinate and organise my research design, data collection and data analsyis to understand the lived experiences of lecturers in their world (Myers, 2009; Leitch, Hill & Harrison, 2010; Goldkuhl, 2012). In this

regard, I also adapted the key features as proposed by Thomas (2010) on interpretivism in a way that aligns with this study as presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Adapted key features of Interpretivist' paradigm (Thomas, 2010)

Features	Interpretivist and activity-engaged
Purpose of research	To understand and make meaning of key elements of emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities.
Ontology	To investigate how professional, academic and institutional challenges create experiences that impact on lecturers' emotions, altering interactions, relationships and performability.
Epistemology	To construct knowledge from the participants' narratives of lived experiences derived from transcribed, analysed and interpreted data from semi-structured interviews.
Research approach	Consistent, unwavering reflectivity for continuous renewal of constructed knowledge to ensure that the social world of the participants and the resulting lived experiences are understood as narrated by them (Schmidt, 2001:136; Miller & Fredericks, 2002:983).

Table 4.1 indicates the key features of the interpretivist' paradigm of Thomas (2010) and shows how they could be used to be adapted and improved to suit the context of the study. In the first line of the table under the features, the purpose of research is at the top of the list and interpretivism guided the quest to understand and make meaning of key elements of emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities. In line two: ontology, I went on to investigate how professional, academic and institutional challenges created experiences that impact on lecturers' emotions. I investigated altering interactions, relationships and performability by interacting with the participants to hear, listen, understand and make meaning of the participants' perception, coping strategies and impact of the challenges on emotions. In line three, regarding epistemology, I went on to search for salient key elements from the participants' narratives of lived experiences derived from transcribed, analysed and interpreted data from semi-structured interviews to enable me to make sense of their perceptions and to construct authentic knowledge from it. In the fourth line the research approach is mentioned. In order to ensure that the relationship between research questions, research objectives and research paradigm is sustained, I, as the researcher, engaged in consistent, unwavering reflectivity for continuous renewal of constructed knowledge to ensure that the social world of the participants and the resulting lived experiences were understood as narrated by them (Schmidt, 2001:136; Miller & Fredericks, 2002:983; Haverkamp & Young, 2007:289).

Hence, I used an interpretative paradigm to argue the probability that professional, academic and institutional challenges can have on the lecturers' emotional intelligence. I further investigated whether the outcome of such impact can affect lecturers' lowering of the quality of service delivery and productivity in education. I also checked if these above-mentioned aspects could lower the ability of lecturers to act independently or collectively to make decisions for change orientation without compulsion (Melles, 2008). I thus focused on the qualities of interpretivism that encourage a better understanding of the experiences and the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on lecturers' emotional intelligence and the consequences of such impact on lecturers. I therefore entered the research scene with an interpretivist perspective considering it vital in guiding me in adopting the "spirit of open inquiry" (Brendel & Miller, 2008:25). With an interpretive paradigm in mind, the research approach is discussed in the next section.

4.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

Given this study aims to explore the way lecturers perceive and interpret the experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges, construct the impact and report coping strategies in three different categories of Nigerian universities with different ownership structure, I opted for multiple case study as research design. Generally, a case study is an in depth exploration of one or more phenomenon with a variety of sources of data (Gomm, Hammersley & Foster, 2000; Jupp, 2006). The strength of case lies in its flexibility that is in the ability to take one or more one case and use interviews to generate extensive data (Hakim, 2000); it could also empirical (provide initial analysis for further study) or descriptive (provide a more thorough explanation of a specific findings) (Yin, 2003) and explanatory (detailed interpretation of a problem and what caused the problem) (Jupp, 2006:20). Another strong point of case study is its ability influence policy and impact of practice (Jupp, 2006) and to compare, develop a model and suggest generalisations (Thomas, 2004; Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:135).

Given the versatility of case study in enabling the researcher to go beyond the case to identify other issues to inform policy and improve the situation, I employed multiple case designs. According to Yin (2003) multiple case study permits the investigator to search for differences inside and amongst cases with the aim to make replica outcomes across cases and draw comparisons. Yin went on to describe the benefits of Multiple case study as "(a) predicts similar results (a literal replication) or (b) predicts contrasting results but for predictable reasons (a theoretical replication) without neglecting the challenge as very time consuming and costly (Yin, 2003:47). Since, this study is to explore the how and why create professional, academic and institutional challenges posed on lecturers' emotional intelligence, multiple case study is appropriate in understanding the three different universities, with different ownership structure

and organisational pattern situated within the two geopolitical zones in Nigeria such as south-south and south-east. Moreover I aimed at using the design to make available a comprehensive, well-scrutinised complete account (Mouton, 2001; Davies, 2007; Merriam, 2009; Pickard, 2013) of how lecturers perceive the experience, how they cope and why the use the selected coping strategies to enable gain deeper insight on ways lecturers adapt, adjust and sustain self.

4.3.1 RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF MULTIPLE CASE STUDIES AS RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Creswell (2009) and Mason (2002) qualitative case studies help in producing rich, extensive data in words during semi-structured individual interviews. The suitability of research questions helps participants provide deep data (Mouton, 2001; Myers, 2009), which implies that questions must be directed at the domain that the information is sought after (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). The ability to advance knowledge and improve practice makes a case study vital to this study (Merriam, 2009). In this regard, I used multiple case studies as research design, a type of qualitative case study. According to Yin, (2003) also Leedy and Ormord (2013) multiple case studies, as part of an appropriate research design, have become acceptable amongst qualitative researchers, because of its flexibility to incorporate more than one case and promote understanding. Arguably, as widely used research design, multiple case studies add worth to this study, because it is the intelligent links between the research purpose and research questions to the procedures aimed at gathering information, scrutinising the information so as to draw conclusions from the generated information (Rowley, 2002; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Yin, 2009). However, Maimbo and Pervan (2005) suggest consistency in procedure for data collection, analysis and interpretation to promote and demonstrate trustworthiness.

Apart from these benefits found in existing studies, my reasoning for using a multiple case study design is based on the choice of research site and participants as they should provide comprehensive information to answer research questions (Willig, 2008). In effect, the multiple case research design directs the selection of the phenomena and the cases, the consistency in application in data collection, analysis and interpretation which provides opportunity for continuous understanding of how the cases exist within the context. This implies that Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory is relevant to these cases to understand the system that the phenomenon is prominent. Another motivation is that the phenomenon under study occurs in a social context, although academically-oriented; this enables me to set the research limit by focusing on academic environment and in Goleman's emotional competence by focusing on the four domains of emotional intelligence. This design helped me to critically look at the cases, the challenges and their diverse context to make meaning of their experiences and interpret in ways to answer research questions and achieve the purpose of the study. Based on the discourse, multiple case the research design was found to be the most appropriate for the

study, because both promoted an understanding of the phenomenon under study. The coping strategies and the system involved could facilitate development of an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education. The next paragraph deals with research the paradigm, research approach and research type.

4.3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

Bearing in mind the study aims of understanding in what ways lecturers experienced professional, academic and institutional challenges, the reasons why they experienced and how lecturers coped with it were explored. I acknowledge that I could not influence the conduct of participants as lecturers in this study and I, therefore, covered the background situations and provided reasons why I considered the lecturers and the context of the study as vital in tertiary education (university environment) (Yin, 2003). The lived experiences of the participants formed an integral part of this case study design. An important justification for the use of an interpretative case study approach is based on its philosophical stance, link to the theory, data collection, analysis and final product of the study (Walshan, 2004).

An interpretative case study is an approach that provides a deeper insight into the context of a social world from the impression and understanding of participants who are living in it (Andrade, 2009). This is through an active interaction of the researcher and the participants, because the interpretivist accepts that reality is created on a social basis and the researcher is the means of discovering this truth (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2001; Mingers, 2001). Interpretive case studies equip the researcher in the procedure of data collection and scrutiny and to present the participant's views and the researcher's constructed knowledge (Andrade, 2009; Creswell, 2013). Using an interpretative case study approach enables the researcher to strive to achieve a reasonable and genuine explanation of the scrutinised challenges (Mingers, 2001).

Another important consideration for interpretative case study approach is its ability to enable the researcher to investigate the three universities in the natural environment with the use of a suitable theoretical framework for the study, research design and a paradigm to elicit, organise, analyse, interpret and create meaning from the whole procedure (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002; de Voset al., 2011). I considered this very significant as it allowed me as the researcher to consider the diversities of the universities and varied contexts, the interaction of the challenges and the theory systems and lecturers' experiences of emotional pressures to cope.

On the other hand, I chose an interpretative case study approach, as the processes can provide deeper insight into the perception, coping strategies and impact of professional, academic and

institutional challenges across the three universities. The lectuers need to be strengthened and these strategies enhance their coping skills, while waiting for the government to address the professional, academic and institutional challenges. I therefore immersed the criteria for establishing the quality of an interpretative case study approach and adapted it to guide my deep interest in emotional intelligence of lecturers in coping with the phenomenon under study.

Table 4.2: Criteria for establishing the quality of interpretive case study approach

Criterion	Definition	Specific case study tactics applied	Theoretical appropriate principles
Construct trustworthiness	Establishment of accurate operational methods for the concept being studied	Pilot study to validate the questions and establish precautionary measures using evidence from three case studies. Triangulation by comparing multiple sources of evidence (three case studies). Review of key draft case study reports by key informants.	Theoretical sufficiency through working on the problem under study Chains of evidence form literature and multiple case studies
Sources: Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Hayward & Sparkes, 1975; Strauss, 1987; Neuman, 1997; Dey, 1999; Yin, 2003; Straub, Boudreau & Gefen, 2004; Charmaz, 2006; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007			
Internal trustworthiness	Establishment of connecting association	This is achieved by: Comparing emerging patterns against expected ones; Looking for emerging patterns through consistency of occurrence; Searching for alternative reasons for the occurrence; Establishing the fundamental relations that eventually create model; and Striving to detect the existence of conceptual links among codes that generate models, which in comprehensive terms means "conjectures models, frameworks, or body of knowledge."	Theoretical coding
Sources: Glaser (1978; 1992) Strauss (1987) Guba & Lincoln (1994); Dey, (1999); Kendall (1999); Yin (2003); Gregor (2006)			

External trustworthiness	Establishment of generalisation domain	This is achieved by: Using existing literature and Using replication logic in multiple case studies	Produce theoretical generalisation through multiple case studies
Sources : Walsham (1995a); Lee & Baskerville (2003); Yin (2003); Andrade (2009)			
Dependability	This aspect: demonstrates and advances repetitiveness of the study	The aims are to: develop a case study databank and to develop a case study procedure to encourage easy application by others	The aims are to: produce visual step by step processes of carrying out an interpretative case study and to increase corroboration and chains of evidence afforded by the theory
Sources: Glaser (1978); Strauss(1987); Eisenhardt (1989);Strauss & Corbin (1990, 1992); Miles & Huberman (1994); Walsham (1995a); Trauth (1997); Max Weber cited by Neuman (1997); Dey (1999); Collis & Hussey, (2003); Tacchi, Slater & Hearn (2003); Walsham (1995a); Yin (2003); Cook (2005); Charmaz (2006); Gregor (2006); Díaz Andrade & Urquhart (2001, 2008).			

4.3.3   RESEARCH TYPE: MULTIPLE CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

The multiple case study analysis describes an approach that analyses an intensive study of more than one case in qualitative research through pattern-matching, explanation-building, time-series analysis, logic models and synthesis with the aim to understand across larger sets of case (Gerring, 2004; Perry, 2004, Yin, 2003; Stake, 2005). This explanation has ontological and epistemological reasons which help to shape the interpretation of multiple-case-study generated data.

The ontological and epistemological reason that guides multiple case study analysis aims to understand participants' views and perceptions about their experiences in the academic world through scrutinising multiple cases (Kohn, 1997; Stake, 2005). The basic assumption of multiple-case-study analysis is extensive examination of participants' experiences in cases. The aim is to reveal the human problems which are very important in understanding their functional or dysfunctional, rational or irrational, managing emotions and becoming effective (Stake, 2005).

The multiple case study analysis begins with establishing step-by-step analysis and procedures for analysis (Willig, 2008; Yin, 2006, 2009b and 2011a; Leedy & Ormord, 2013). The procedures for multiple case study analysis deal with attention to detail and deepness in
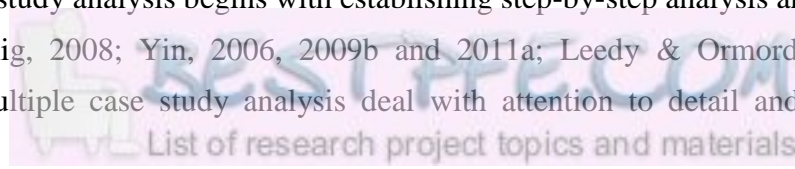
interpretation of uniqueness of experience (Stake, 2005) of challenges, impact and coping strategies across cases. This provides chains of evidence to combine, converge and interpret the findings. These enable the researcher to look for the way professional, academic and institutional challenges features lies both within and outside the institutions to define the content or environment of the cases. The multiple case study analysis helped in understanding the commonalities of the challenges across the systems and the way in which lecturers have adapted, adjusted and sustain themselves.

4.4   RESEARCH METHODS

According to Araoye (2004) research methods define organised techniques for engaging in research through orderly gathering of information, analysing the information and interpreting the information to answer the posed research questions. This implies that research methods can contribute to the understanding of the way in which professional, academic and institutional challenges affected lecturers and the outcome of such methods impacting on them as part of my investigation. An in-depth understanding of the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on lecturers involving any research methods, demands human interaction. This interaction according to Imhabekhai (2001) fosters a feeling of belonging, involvement and happiness, because of the chance to contribute in solving the pressing problem. Thus, research methods are part of an important process that facilitates human interaction, which is needed to elicit vital information necessary for handling the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges which the participating lecturers in my study experienced.

According to Imhabekhai (2001) research methods promote a well-established relationship that enables the participants to open up to the researcher. He continues to say that, when the participants permit the researcher into their social world it will lead to a useful understanding of the impact of the professional, academic and institutional challenges on the emotional intelligence of lecturers and the outcome of such impact on performance and productivity. In this regard, I selected the qualitative research approach to enable me to collect data with the semi-structured interviews to interact appropriately with the participants, understand their subjectivity and relate it to the purpose of the study. In this way the research participants and research site became important factors in determining the extent to which valid and reliable results were obtained.

4.4.1   RESEARCH SITES AND PARTICIPANTS

According to Araoye (2004), the selection of research sites and participants is determined by the purpose of the research and relevance of the selected participant and research site to the research. In this regard, the researcher used purposive sampling to select both the research site and participants. According to Creswell (2012:626) purposeful sampling is a qualitative procedure in which the researcher intentionally selects individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon. According to Patton (2002), in purposive sampling, the researcher selects people that can help to generate the most useful data, although they are small units of analysis from a larger group. According to Mason (2002:140) purposive sampling depends on expert judgment of the researcher or availability of necessary resources needed to enhance the research, implying that purposive sampling is a selection with the intention to meet the goals of the research (Ritchie & Lewis, 2012).

In this regard, the researcher adopted the following guidelines to direct my selection of research participants and the most appropriate research site:

- What kind of experiences is the research seeking for?

- How can the experiences be accurately identified and labelled?

- What kind of participants will provide the information needed to answer the posed research questions?

- In what way will the participants perceive their involvement before responding to the research questions?

- What procedure will be applied to ensure the gathering of comprehensive information needed to address the problem understudy? (Imhabekhai, 2001; Creswell, 2012).

- What information can be gathered to assist lecturers at university level in the performance of their daily tasks?

Based on the above guidelines I went on to use qualitative strategies to select the research sites and research participants.

4.4.2   RESEARCH SITE

The research site for the study was purposively selected from the three types of universities in Nigeria namely federally-owned universities, state-owned universities and privately-owned universities. From the federal category, the researcher selected university A because it is one of the oldest universities in Nigeria and it is located in a safe environment and the location is easily accessible by road. In the state-owned category, I selected university because B, it is a

young state university but has achieved tremendous success within a short time. In the privately-owned category, the researcher selected university C, because it is also a young privately-owned university and it is growing fast. I considered these three universities with the assumption that the combination will provide good insight for this study. Hence, I considered these three participant universities coded as: "University A" for the federal university; "University B" for the state university and "University C" for the private university as capable of providing me relevant information within Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory. I also considered them capable to contribute to knowledge construction to enable me to establish how lecturers perceive professional, academic and institutional challenges constructively and how to use coping strategies. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:172) suggest that:

"To address a research question or hypothesis, the researcher engages in a sampling procedure that involves determining the location or site for the research, the participants who will provide data in the study and how they will be sampled, the number of participants needed to answer the research questions, and the recruitment procedures for participants".

The researcher adopted the following guidelines to direct me in selecting the most appropriate research site and finding the appropriate research participants:

- What kind of experiences is the research seeking for?

- How can the experiences be accurately identified and labelled?

- What kind of participants will provide the information needed to answer the posed research questions?

- In what way will the participants perceive their involvement before responding to the research questions?

- What procedure will be applied to ensure the gathering of comprehensive information needed to address the problem understudy? (Imhabekhai, 2001; Creswell, 2012).

- What information can be gathered to assist lecturers at university level in the performance of their daily tasks?

Based on the above guidelines and in line with the principles of purposive sampling, the researcher selected the participants that could provide rich dependable information on coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities, purposefully. The participants were lecturers from three categories of Nigerian universities and lecturers from the federal, state and private universities from south-south and south-east geopolitical zone of Nigeria. The researcher was engaged in the following activities in these research sites.

Table 4.3:   Activities of the participants in the research project

No	Participants	Activities	Venue	Duration
1	12 lecturers from the three selected universities (Six females and six males)	Farmilisation with university context and participants	University environment	One hour per day with the participants from each university.
2	6 lecturers with PhDs (Three females and three males)	Responding to semi-structured interviews to provide relevant information to the study.	University environment	One hour each on each visit.
3	6 lecturers without PhDs (Three females and three males)	Responding to semi-structured interviews to provide relevant information to the study.	University environment	One hour each on each visit.

Table 4.3 above shows an outline of the activities participants performed in the research project and comprises the participants, activities, venue and duration. In the first line of the table, twelve lecturers were selected as participants, including six females and six males. I was engaged in farmilisation procedure with the participants in the university environment and the duration is one hour spent with each participant and two participants per day. In the second line of the Table 4.3, six lecturers with PhDs comprising three females and three males responded to the semi-structured interviews within their university environment for more than one hour each. In the third line of Table 4.3: six lecturers without PhDs comprising three females and three males responded to the semi-structured interviews within their university environment for more than one hour each.

4.4.3   RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The research participants were purposefully selected from people that could provide rich dependable information on coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities. The participants were lecturers from the three categories of universities in the South-South Geopolitical zone of Nigeria. South-South Nigeria was selected, because it was Nigeria's most free zone in relation with the current political and religious crisis.

The researcher purposively selected twelve lecturers from three categories of universities in Nigeria to be participants in the research. Consequently, the selection of these participants was purposive and drawn from the researcher's existing network. Exclusively, the criteria for selected participants were characterisation and ownership structure of the university. The researcher selected the twelve participants using the following criteria:

- The participant must be a lecturer from the three categories of universities in Nigeria (Federal, State and Private) that exist in Nigeria;

- The participant must be a lecturer with PhD or without PhD (educational level); and

- The participant must be either a male or a female (gender balanced).

- Table 4.4 below illustrates the purposive selection of participants for the semi-structured interview comprising the gender, university categories, and level of education as per the time of interview as well as age range.

Table 4.4: Participants in semi-structured interview

Participant	Gender	University category	Level of education	Age
Participant A	Male	Federal	With Ph.D.	55+ years
Participant B	Female	Federal	With Ph.D.	55+ years
Participant C	Male	Federal	Without Ph.D.	50+ years
Participant D	Female	Federal	Without Ph.D.	35+years
Participant E	Male	State	With Ph.D.	50+ years
Participant F	Female	State	Without Ph.D.	45+years
Participant G	Male	State	With Ph.D.	45+ years
Participant H	Female	State	Without Ph.D.	35+ years
Participant I	Male	Private	With Ph.D.	65+years
Participant J	Female	Private	With Ph.D.	55+ years
Participant K	Male	Private	With Ph.D.	55+years
Participant L	Female	Private	Without Ph.D.	45+years

The interview for each participant was taped-recorded (with their consent) and lasted for approximately one to two hours each.

4.4.4   DATA COLLECTION METHODS

This study is a qualitative research study so it informs the data collection process adopted. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:298) "a method of data collection is simply a technique that is used to collect empirical research data" the researcher therefore utilised the following methods to generate diverse kinds of information to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2012:212). The data collection method utilised, covered the qualitative semi-structured interview, observation and field notes to collect various information.

4.4.4.1   Semi-structured interviews

Several authors assert that the interview is popular in the qualitative research approach and provides an opportunity for extensive formation and reformation of meaning to draw authentic conclusions (Ritchie & Lewis 2012; Flick et al., 2004; Silverman 2004; Ary et al., 2002; Mason 2002; Marshall & Rossman 1999; Merriam, 1998). There are different types of interviews, but the semi-structured interview, is one of the instruments used to generate data qualitatively in this study. Folkestad (2003) points out that the semi-structured interview provides insight into any problem under study, thereby permitting participants to think deeply before replying. Adams McIlvain Lacy et al. (2002) explain that semi-structured interviews are a veritable tool for data collection in qualitative research; however, they involve a planned activity and are characterised by open-ended questions as well as opportunities for further probing. Similarly, Ryen (2002:85) states that semi-structured interviews provide the researcher an opportunity to "…get access to actions and events that are viewed as relevant for the research/study; access to the single participant and the way he or she views the world is central."

The semi-structured interviews were the data collection instruments for the qualitative method used (Creswell, 2012). The purpose of using the semi-structured interview was to gather information to actually understand and provide evidence about the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges. As a researcher, the following statement served as guidance: " all the elements associated with educational quality are interrelated, a serious defect in one element is likely to have implications for quality in others" (Dare, 2005), implying that all the processes relating to data analysis must appropriately relate to each other to ensure that reliable information is obtained. In fact, questions regarding reliability were posed regarding ways to link Goleman's four domains of emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. Another issue posed was on structuring the semi-structured questions within the domains to reduce ambiguity and ensure clarity of answers.

However, I began every interview with a personal introduction. I presented and explained the rationale for the consent letter and the importance of the signing of the consent letter. I also made it known to them that I had to maintain their confidentiality. The semi-structured interviews were conducted in their offices providing me with the opportunity to observe the safety and comfort of their offices. The observation of the office environment was crucial, because safety and comfort contribute to lecturers' feeling of acceptance, emotional stability and creativity (Dare, 2005; Nelson & Low, 2011).

In semi-structured interviews, each participant was asked to provide information on age in years, gender, religion, current educational level, marital status and additional responsibilities. The essence of religion and additional responsibilities is to establish if the two have any special implication to this study. The first major question was on the importance the participants attached to professional, academic and institutional challenges. The major theme centred on professional, academic and institutional challenges aiming at generating information on participants' perception, identification, of emotions and relating these aspects to self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management. The second major question was on the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges and the effect they had on the professional and personal emotional life of the participants. The theme dealt with the impact of emotional intelligence aiming at generating information on the effect of professional, academic and institutional challenges of the participants. The third major question was on how the participants coped with professional, academic and institutional challenges, intended to identify and understand coping strategies.

I realised that most participants were reluctant to discuss the professional, academic and institutional challenges in detail. Some were also reluctant to link these challenges to their institution. Thus, I perceived it as an attempt to protect the quality and image of their institution. However, I handled the challenges by asking the respondents about their perception of the conflict between the academe trade union and the government. I used the question to stimulate a solution, because the academe trade union called for strikes, because the federal government failed to implement the agreement they entered into with the trade union in their previous strike. This action of participants helped me to learn that in the search for knowledge, image protection interfered to the extent to which the participants provided accurate in-depth information of the phenomenon under study. The semi-structured interviews were taped-recorded with the acceptance of the participants and transcribed.

4.4.4.2 Field notes

According to Creswell (2012:141) there is need to obtain permission from individuals and institutions before engaging in data collection, implying that the researcher must establish

connections at research sites before selecting research participants. Backed with Creswell's (2012) suggestion, I connected with the research site with the help of personal contacts, implying that the method of entry into the research site and connection with the research participants was very easy, because of the help of previously known individuals. As a result of this connection to research participants, I was able to navigate through dialogue and persuasions using the objectives of the study.

The concept of an existing network gave rise to the identification of personal contacts that provided supportive entry into the research site resulting in the building of strong relationships at the research site and with the research participants without resistance. The involvement of existing networks in my study was to use strong personal contacts to connect to the participants with the needed valued information for deeper understanding of emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in tertiary education (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007). In this study, the existing network referred to individuals known to me but I had personal contacts that helped in creating connections and relationships to direct and advance the fieldwork in the study. This implies that with previous known contacts I was able to communicate, connect and elicit collaboration of research participants so as to generate data with the use of semi-structured interviews.

4.4.5   DATA ANALYSIS

According to Merriam (1998) the analysis of data is a way of making meaning and sense of the data generated from a study. Data analysis entails organising generated data for interpretation in ways, "searching for recurring patterns to determine the importance of relevant information." Several critics maintain that data analysis is the process of making the data more manageable by organising the collected data into categories and interpreting data, searching for recurring patterns to determine the importance of the relevant information (Bodgan & Knopp Biklen, 1992:153; Marshall & Rossman, 1999:150).

According to de Vos et al. (2005:338) qualitative data analysis involves "bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. This may involve construction of a framework to communicate the findings. Likewise, Cohen et al. (2001:147) who state that data analysis "involves organizing, accounting for, and explaining the data; in short, making sense of the data… noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities". Similarly, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:208) state that "…data analysis involves coding the data, dividing the text into small units (phrases, sentences or paragraphs) assigning a label to each unit, then grouping them into themes". Using the suggestions from Cohen et al. (2001); de Vos et al (2005) and Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), I went on to analyse the data using codes to organise, structure and arrange the small units into categories and themes.

According to Charmaz (2006:186) codes serve as shorthand device to label, separate, compile and organise data, implying that the essence of coding is to organise and manage data (Bryman, 2012). In order to construct meaning from participants' accounts of experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges, the researcher used semi-structured interviews, observations and field notes to collect data. To code the data, she followed Charmaz (2006) two major types of coding namely: the initial coding and the focused coding. In the initial coding she assigned a code to a text in each line with open-mindedness and aiming to "generate new ideas and themes of interest". In focused coding, she searched for consistent and revealing codes resulting in the categorisation of data. She consistently re-examined the new codes to ensure proper categorisation of data (Charmaz, 2006 57-58). Manson (2002) acknowledges that categorising data helps in locating themes or examples that could have been neglected. Manson (2002) continues by saying that grouping data in categories and themes keep the research focused, organised and provides the opportunity to present results diagrammatically. The author adds that it could also help the readers to spot connections and interrelationships, which could have been difficult to identify.

Nieuwenhuis (2007:99) is of the opinion that qualitative data analysis makes an attempt to establish the meanings participants attach to their lived experiences by interpreting participants point of views of the problems. Creswell (2012:238) goes further to say that the process of analysing generated data from participants lived experience can follow diverse methods. Nieuwenhuis (2007) further supports by saying that the researcher has the right to determine the most appropriate process of coding data generated from a qualitative study. In this regard, I analysed my qualitative data combing the suggestions of Creswell (2012:237) and Shinebourne (2011), which are as follows:

- I transcribed the recorded semi-structured interviews and organised them according to the relevant universities. I coded the universities and participants before going into a more focused coding, implying that the transcribed data were coded according to universities and participants who were equally linked to their university; and

- In order to ensure the ethical issues are not raised, I coded the participants' universities and institutions. According to Babbie (2011:477) ethical issues must be considered at every stage of the research to avoid academic embarrassment. I therefore conformed to the "standard of conduct." I promised the ethics Department of the University of Pretoria and the participants, voluntary participation, no harm to the participants when obtaining data from the participants and keeping to the consent promise of maintaining their anonymity and confidentiality (Babbie, 2011). The researcher followed her ethical obligations strictly and avoided deception of the participants. The overview of the coding process is shown in Figure 4.1 below.
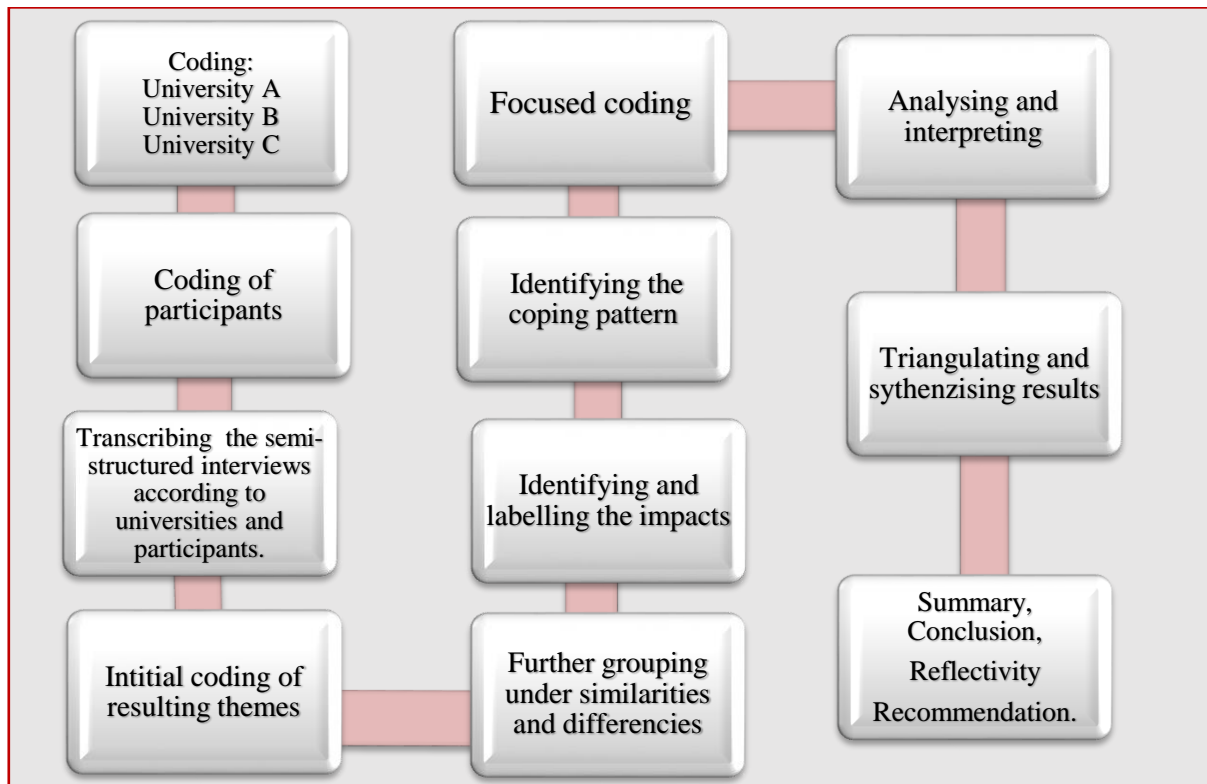
Figure 4.1:   Process of coding semi-structured interviews (Babbie, 2011)

I therefore went on to explain the coding of participating institutions and individuals as shown in Table 4.1. Table 4.1 reveals that participant Universities were coded with alphabet letters to ensure that ethical obligations were maintained. The participant universities were labelled as University A, labelled as UA, University B labelled as UB and University C labelled as UC thereby adhering to the promise of maintaining anonymity and confidently (Babbie, 2011).

The participants' experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges and its impact on university lecturers were studied. Data were collected qualitatively with semi-structured interviews, observations and field notes were taken. In order to construct meaning from participants' accounts of experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges, the study looked at the emerging concepts using Goleman's four domains of emotional intelligence as a guide. Manson (2002) asserts that categorising helps in locating themes or examples that would have been neglected. Manson (2002) continues by saying that grouping data in themes or categories keeps the research focused, organised and provides opportunity to present results diagrammatically. The author adds that it could help readers to spot connections and interrelationships, which could have been difficult to identify.

Consequently, the semi-structured interviews were transcribed and data analysis was started with coding of the data into categories and consistent modifying of the categories into manageable information (Seale *et al*., 2004:475). This idea is supported by the findings of

Merriam (1998:11), who states that the analysis of data "usually results in the identification of recurring patterns that cut through the data or into the delineation of a process". In this regard, I followed the idea of McMillian and Schumacher, (2001) who support comparing and contrasting each part of the transcribed data to identify statements in the data that are relevant to the study. I further followed this approach until the same identified problems kept emerging again (Somekh & Lewin, 2005) to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings.

4.4.6   TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness may be described as a measure of honesty and quality applied in the development and application of a research tool (Silverman, 2004). Silverman (2004) views the production of any ethically-approved research as the act of obtaining trustworthy and usable information with the use of diverse instruments. Trochim, (2001) acknowledges that trustworthiness in any meaningful research ensures the quality and richness of the information gathered and anlysed. According to Cohen et al. (2005:105) trustworthiness is attained with "honesty, depth, richness, scope of data achieved, participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterested or objectivity of the researcher." As the researcher, I availed myself to achieve trustworthiness by applying of the procedures with consistent link with research purpose and research questions to analysis, interpretation and report writing (Tobin & Begley, 2004; Letts, Wilkins, Law, Stewart, Bosch & Westmorland, 2007). I tried to achieve trustworthiness by applying the principles of credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability to establish the trustworthiness of this study and stick to the priniciples of an interpretative paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Fernández, 2005; Clisset, 2008; Miskon, 2013).

4.4.6.1   Credibility

Credibility refers to the extent to which the quality of the research is trustworthy by investigating what it set out to investigate (Silverman, 2000). According to Merriam (2002:6) "credibility deals with the question: How consistent are the findings with reality". The question of harmonisation of the research outcome with the real world is identified as a significant way for establishing credibility, because it is a process that starts with research design, research methods, the selection of participants from a wider population or from different sampling cohorts such as different categories of university to enable triangulation of findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The use of different categories of universities in Nigeria such as federal, state and private universities was to compensate for weaknesses and to make full use of considered advantages (Guber, 1998; Brewer & Hunter, 1989). Van Maanen (1983) elaborates further saying that it would help to "check out bits of information" among participants to compare and contrast perceptions and experiences where necessary. To strengthen the credibility of this

study, I ensured each interview followed a planned pattern with probing questions and it lasted for one to two hours "depending on their willingness and wealth of experiences they offered" (Aboderin, 2004:s130). Probing questions were to confirm the participants' answers, not the researcher's preconceived beliefs, implying that the probing questions were on issues raised by the participants. Furthermore, I ensure that I used iterative questions to achieve credibility. I consistently asked probing questions to clarify, complex answers and to increase the understanding of the answers provided by the participants to each question. According to Merriam (2002), iterative questions help to clarify lies from the truth. I also ensured that the research findings were dependable. I relied extensively on identifying the lived experiences of professional, academic and institutional challenges and the impact on lecturers' emotional intelligence between lecturers with Ph.D.s and lecturers without Ph.D.s, female and male as well as among the three universities.

4.4.6.2 Dependability

Several authors maintain that dependability in qualitiative research demonstrate the ability to replicate itself if repeated in a similar context (McMillian & Wergin, 2002 Collis & Hussey, 2003; Tacchi, Slater & Hearn, 2003; Walsham, 1995a; Yin, 2003; Cook, 2005; Charmaz, 2006; Gregor, 2006; Díaz Andrade & Urquhar, 2001, 2008). To ensure that dependability is obtained I developed a case study databank and a case study procedure to encourage easy application by others. I also produced a visual step-by-step process of carrying out an interpretative case study, increase corroboration and a chain of evidence (see 6.5; Dey 1999; Collis & Hussey, 2003; Tacchi, Slater & Hearn, 2003; Walsham, 1995a; Yin 2003; Cook, 2005; Charmaz, 2006; Gregor, 2006; Díaz Andrade & Urquhart, 2001, 2008). I also checked consistently the data under analysis to ensure that they belong to the right theme and category Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Nieuwenhuis, 2012). I ensured that the language of writing was simple for others to read and to make their judgement without bias.

4.4.6.3 Conformability

According to Janesick (2000) and Creswell (2002) conformability helps to confirm the trustworthiness of research. To maintain conformability, I supported the report with many uncensored direct quotes from the participants which I consistently checked to ensure that each comment aligns with the theme and categories (Mertens, 2002, Clisset, 2008; Creswell, 2012). I also used establishment connection and association through comparing emerging patterns against expected ones and looking for emerging patterns through consistency of occurrence (Glaser, 1978; 1992; Strauss, 1987; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Dey, 1999; Kendall, 1999; Yin, 2003; Gregor, 2006). As the researcher, I used consistent reflectivity, in-depth explanations, and high-order conceptualisation (Polit & Beck, 2010:1; Bryman, 2012:205) to derive meaning

from the emerging patterns. I went on to use three different types of universities in Nigeria as research sites to increase the chances of transferability.

4.4.6.4 Transferability

According to Lincoln and Guba, (1985) and also Rolfe, (2006) transferability embraces the extent the research findings could be transferred to circumstances outside the scope of the study. Ryan *et al.,* (2002, 123) describe it as the important aspect of research and identify key challenges that may limit transferability of research findings to include "population, time and environmental strength." Likewise, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003, 38) affirm that the following specific types of transferability: population transferability (to other individuals, groups or entities), ecological transferability (to other contexts and settings), temporal transferability (to other time periods), and operational transferability (to other modes/methods of measuring/observing the variables/behaviour) which might challenge the extent to which the research findings could be transferred. They explain that since the population might not be a true representation of the population, the time of study and the setting might differ in application of the findings, which might pose a threat. However, in this study, I used extensive data from three different types of universities with different ownership structures to increase transferability through the merging of the strengths of their narratives (Walsham, 1995a; Lee & Baskerville, 2003; Yin, 2003; Andrade, 2009). Researchers like Mark and Shotland (1987); and Cojocaru (2010) support the use of triangulation (the utilisation of a variety of data collection processes) to build up the quality of the study and its strength of transferability.

4.5   ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

According to Cutliffe and Ramcharan (2002:2006) ethics is a process linking the agreement of continuing in the activity of research amongst researcher and participants, implying that ethics define the extent the researcher exposes the participants to risks and the extent the participants are willing to continue to participate in the research. In the same vein, I as the researcher ensured that the entire corpus of participants for both quantitative (survey questionnaire) and qualitative (semi-structured interview), completed the consent form (see Appendix A).

Since the study involved digging deep into the emotional life of lecturers, I was guided by Cohen et al. (2005:49) who suggest focusing on ethical concerns to ensure its minimisation, implying that she tried at each phase of the study to guide against the probable actions or probing questions that could raise ethical issues (Clasquin-Johnson, 2011). The need to protect the participants from possible harm was emphasised by (Flick, 2009). I was guided by the obligation to keep to the principles of ethical clearance stated in the University of Pretoria, where I applied for clearance. I obtained clearance before going to the field to collect her data

for the study. I therefore kept to the rules of confidentiality, anonymity and did not in any way deceive my participants (Laerd, 2011). I also followed the suggestions of Flewitt (2005) and also Giordano *et al.* (2007) who advocate consideration for participants' confidentiality. I used codes to identify her participants by using codes and also altered some statements that could make any reader from the participant university to identify the participants.

4.6   THE ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

Maree (2012:41) states that the first role of a researcher is to "enter into a collaborative partnership with the respondents in order to collect and analyze data, with the main aim of creating understanding". McMillian and Schumacher (2010) add that the researcher must be a thoughtful viewer recording facts as truly as possible, asking probing questions that could help in data analysis. In this regard, Nieuwenhuis (2007) asserts that a researcher is a "research instrument", implying the researcher is an instrument for the compilation of semi-structured interview questions, structuring of interviews, carrying out the interviews, analysing the data and combining the result as well as comparing them (Joubert 2005; Wellington, 2000). In this study, I aligned my roles with Ritchie and Lewis' (2012:147) assertions; I became "a passive facilitator to enable the interviewee to talk about their thoughts, feelings, views and experiences." This role was very tasking, as most participants were reluctant and unwilling to participate, because they did not want negative reports concerning the institutions and their lecturers. I addressed this limitation with ethical consideration of not disclosing the identities of the participants. I ensured that in all the steps the identity of the participants was never disclosed. As a researcher, my first step was to become familiar with the environment and its significant others, then I got to know other participants through them and proceeded with data collection. In this study, my role as a researcher involved the following:

- I explained to the participants the aims of the research and their role as participants to enable her to establish a researcher-participant relationship (Creswell, 2013);

- I established a researcher-participant relationship bearing in mind the ethical concerns of such relationships such as maintaining anonymity and confidentiality (Postholm & Madsen, 2006);

- I asked the participants probing question, listening actively so as to develop another probing question aiming at gaining in-depth information on the participants' situation (Simon, 2011);

- I interviewed each participant at a time to enable her to listen actively, understand, interpret and construct meaning out of his or her experiences (Creswell, 2013);

- I ensured that the semi-structured interview was carried out in the participants' natural setting. This provided opportunity to observe the natural environment (Creswell, 2013);

- I objectively interpreted the subjective reality of the participants (Tian, 2012); and

- I ensured that the readers were not misled by her sampling methods by informing the reader that selecting participants using the criteria such as with PhDs and without PhDs, the characterisation and ownership structure of Nigerian universities and geopolitical zones, were to enhance the findings, particularly in identifying the minor salient trends creating emotional experiences for the academe.

Since the research on emotions is a sensitive issue, I applied caution using the ethical concern as a guideline to ensure that her role as a researcher did not have impact on the participants later once the study would be completed. I strictly maintained anonymity and confidentiality by coding the participants' universities as "A," "B" and "C", I also used codes to identify the names of the participants.

4.6   CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, the research methodology used in this study was discussed. I delineated the outline: research design, research approach and research paradigm. I also discussed the qualitative approach as analytical tool for the study. I illuminated interpretivism as my research paradigm and justified its use, because of the nature of my study which demanded in-depth information on lived experiences of the participants. Moreover, the study focused on understanding the experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges; Interpretivists believe that the lived experience is vital for authentic construction of knowledge. I also discussed the trustworthiness and ethical concerns raised by this study. The results of the study are presented and discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER FIVE
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

"Theory without practice leads to an empty idealism, and action without philosophical reflection leads to mindless activism" (Elias & Merriam, 1980:4).

5.1   INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4, I presented the research methodology that I considered important for data collection in order to answer the research questions stated in Chapter 1. In this chapter, I presented the outcome of the activities at the research sites and with the participants. On the research site, my existing network introduced me to the university registrar. I introduced my research title, objectives, University of Pretoria and my role as a researcher. However, we spent time discussing University of Pretoria and South Africa. After the chat with the registrar, the registrar immediately permitted the use of the institution and their academe as research participants. The registrar officially referred me to the research and publication director, who subsequently connected me with the deans and heads of department for easier access to the participants. According to the research and publication director of one of the universities, connecting with the deans and the heads of the departments would ensure that quality information was obtained through the selection of appropriate participants.

I discussed the criteria for the selection of lecturers for the semi-structured interviews, namely lecturers with PhDs and lecturers without PhDs, both males and females. The lecturers were given the opportunity to deliberate on their participation and the participants were purposively selected. The selection of the participants for semi-structured interviews was based on the criteria such as: lecturer with Ph.D. and lecturer without Ph.D., female and male and they completed their acceptance forms. Given that the qualitative research demands developing an interactional relationship with the participants' universities and individuals to the study (Abram, 2010) to gain their turst to allow the researcher into the lived experience (Creswell, 2012), I first of all built my relationship with each participant.This means that the success of any data collection was strictly tied to proper connections and interaction to build trust and enable the participants to respond openly and honestly to questions asked (OECD, 2006). Bearing in mind that quality of relationships and interaction foster quality information, I contacted my existing network to discuss the objectives of my research and to elicit the kind of support that I needed from them. I explained to the research site management that I needed their

support in the area of participation. I made an effort to convince the participant institutions of their safety through optimum maintenance of anonymity and confidentiality. This is in line with the findings of Imhabekhai (2004) that the level of support and participation determines the level of success in any project. Imhabekhai (2004) maintains that some research site managements may reject participation if persons previously known to them are not involved in the research to provide convincing evidence that anonymity and confidentiality must be maintained.

However, with the introduction, convincing skills and personal contacts of existing networks, I built a personal relationship with the research site management and proposed significant cues to develop their interest towards the research. To ensure successful connection, I followed the suggestions of Imhabekhai (2004) for productive cooperation and full participation in research in Nigerian social and cultural environment such as:

- I explored the local customs and religion prominent amongst would be participants to decide when to actually visit them and how to undertake the visit. This is very important because the religious groups are mainly Christians and Muslims and they have their prayers at a certain time of the day in the institutions and the researcher had to respect this meeting time. Imhabekhai (2004) believes that the understanding of the participants' available time promotes quality contribution;

- I ensured that her mode of dressing and general attitude displayed proper friendliness. This I achieved by being a normal cheerful person; and

- I also applied emotional self-control to tolerate and understand participants' inadequacies or impropriety. This is because most participants changed interview time several times giving excuses of being tired or coming from the impromptu meeting or forgot that they booked interviews for the day.

After ensuring the formalisation of my person with the research site, I went on to meet with the university management to ensure that the data collection experience was less challenging.

This chapter therefore consists of the breakdown of information generated from the semi-structured interviews on professional, academic and institutional challenges at the research sites with the selected participants. The collected data were analysed with the qualitative methods and the findings coded, using themes such as perception, impact and coping as a strategy as well as emotional intelligence and key elements of the emotional intelligence model. In theme one, the findings on the perception of professional, academic and institutional challenges were presented. In theme two, the findings on the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on the academe's emotional intelligence were presented. In theme three, the findings

on coping strategies used by the participants were presented. In theme four, the findings on emotional intelligence were presented. In theme five, the key elements of emotional intelligence were described. Finally, I present the interpretation of the findings and the concluding remarks.

5.2 BACKGROUND DATA ON RESEARCH SITES AND PARTICIPANTS

The participant data analysis described the process the researcher used to manage the derived information from transcription stage to coding, analysing and making meaning of the analysed data (Ritchie & Lewis, 2012). I analysed the participant data aiming at making sense of the participants' experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges. According to Eatough and Smith (2008) also Shinebourne (2011) the way individuals perceive a situation guides and direct their action, implying individuals' perception, interpretation and meaning derived shapes their present and future action (Benzies & Allen, 2001:544). Smith et al. (2009) further support that in-depth analysis of data generated from participants helps in the discovering of unexpected and important information needed to solve the problem. Backed with the knowledge, I commenced with the data analysis and discussed the biographical information on research sites and participants universities selected from the sites. The criteria for the selection of the participants' universities were based on three categories of Nigerian universities: federal, state and private. The universities were located within different geo-political zones in Nigeria. The Universities "A", "B" and "C" are located in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria.

According to the profile data they were from different tribes, religion, educational background gender and age group. The participants played different roles outside their teaching, research and community engagement. This was evidently obvious with the consistent interruption from calls for meetings or to perform other administrative roles, during the semi-structured interviews. The name of the participants and their universities were coded. According to Babbie (2011:477) ethical issues must be considered at every stage of research to avoid academic embarrassment. I therefore conformed to the "standard of conduct." She promised the ethics Department of University of Pretoria and the participants: such as voluntary participation, no harm to the participants, obtaining of the participants' consent and sticking to the consent promise of maintaining participants' anonymity and confidentiality (Babbie, 2011). I followed strictly the ethical obligations and avoided deception of the participants. I presented the coding of participants institutions as shown in Table 5.1 below. I also presented the biographical information such as educational background, age, gender, marital status, religious and ethnicity as well as additional responsibility to enable in-depth knowledge of the participants.

5.2.1   RESEARCH SITES

The research sites refer to the location in which the researcher intends to select the participants for the study (see Chapter 4: 4.5.1). In this study, three types of universities in Nigeria namely: Federal universities, state universities and private universities were considered and the researcher selected university A from federal categories. I selected university B from the state category and I selected university C from the private category. The selection of the three universities was envisioned to provide the study with the most relevant participants whose lived experiences could enrich and enhance the credibility of the study. Backed with the knowledge, I approach this section with a discussion on biographical information on the participants' universities.

In Table 5.1 the first participant university is a federal university, tagged as University A and coded as UA. The second participant university is a state university tagged as University B and coded as UB. The third participant university is a private university tagged as University C and coded as UC.

Table 5.1:   Participant institutional codes

Participant Universities		Coding
University A	Federal university	UA
University B	State university	UB
University C	Private university	UC

5.2.1.1   University A

The university A is a federal government owned university located in South-South Nigeria, and stands as one of the oldest universities in Nigeria.

5.2.1.2   University B

The University B is state-owned and located in South-South Nigeria and it is one of the younger universities in Nigeria.

5.2.1.3   University C

The University C is a privately-owned university located in the South-South geopolitical zone of Nigeria. University C is one of the youngest growing universities in Nigeria. I was engaged

in the following activities in these research sites such as selection of the participants and engaging in interviews.

5.2.2   RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

According to Teddlie and Fen Yu (2007:78) the research participants refer to the individuals that indicate interest in the study. As research participants they are to provide in-depth information on their lived experiences by responding to questions on emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges during the semi-structured interviews. In the same vein, the research participants were lecturers selected with the stratified purposive sampling method from three universities in Nigeria (see Chapter 4: 4.5.4).

The researcher therefore went on to add the position of the participant, gender, the participant's university and the participant's coded name to make it easier to understand, thereby satisfying the promise of maintaining anonymity and confidentiality (Babbie, 2011) as shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2:   Abbreviated code, meaning and code name of individual participants

Code	Meaning	Code name
LWPFUA Nelly	Lecturer with PhD female university A	Nelly
LWPMUA Benin	Lecturer with PhD male university A	Benin
LWTPFUA Gee	Lecturer without PhD female university A	Gee
LWTPMUA Edo	Lecturer without PhD male university A	Edo
LWPFUB Joshie	Lecturer with PhD male university B	Joshie
LWPMUB Meyer	Lecturer with PhD female university B	Meyer
LWPTMUB Alusi	Lecturer without PhD male university B	Alusi
LWPTFUB Medina	Lecturer without Ph.D., female, university B	Medina
LWPMUC Baron	Lecturer with Ph.D., male, university C	Baron
LWPMUC Bally	Lecturer with Ph.D., male, university C	Bally
LWPTFUC Sandra	Lecturer without Ph.D., female, university C	Sandra
LWPTFUC Nadia	Lecturer with Ph.D., female, university C	Nadia

5.2.2.1   Nelly

Nelly (code name) was a 55-year-old female lecturer and a Christian by religion. She obtained her PhD and was married with children from University A (LWPFUA Nelly). She became a lecturer in University A as a junior lecturer without a doctoral and rose to the position of senior lecturer with a doctoral degree. At present, she engages in several administrative roles. In the past she had also headed several committees set up in the university, Faculty and Department. She was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.2 Benin

Benin (code name) was a 65-year-old male senior lecturer and a Christian by religion. He obtained his PhD, and was married with children from University A (LWPMUA Benin). He obtained his bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees from university A. He became a lecturer at University A and rose to the position of senior lecturer. He engaged in several administrative roles and he had additional administrative responsibilities. He was also a member of the numerous committees inside and outside the institution. He was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.3 Gee

Gee (code name) was a 45-year-old female lecturer and a Christian by religion; she did not obtain her PhD from University A (LWTPFUA Gee). She was married with children and obtained her first degree and master's in University A. She enrolled as doctoral student in a Nigerian university. She had unclassified additional responsibilities and claimed she was called upon to do any job that no senior lecturer was willing to perform. Her husband was from one of the tribes of South-South Nigeria, but she was from South-East, Nigeria by birth.

5.2.2.4 Edo

Edo (code name) was a 55-year-old male senior lecturer and a Muslim by religion. He was without a PhD and was married with children from University A (LWTPMUA Edo). He obtained his degree and master's from University A and became a registered doctoral student at University A. He was a member of different committees with extra additional responsibilities. He was from one of the tribes in South-West, Nigeria.

5.2.2.5 Joshie

Joshie (code name) was a 60-year-old male senior lecturer and a Christian by religion. He obtained his PhD, and was married with children from University B (LWPMUB Joshie). He had lectured at several universities across the country for over thirty years, but joined University B since its inception. In his former university, he was head of department for many years and

organised and chaired many committees. He was a member of different committees with extra additional responsibilities. He was from one of the tribe in South-South, Nigeria. He was as it could have changed

5.2.2.6 Meyer

Meyer (code name) was a 45-year-old female lecturer and a Christian by religion. She had a PhD and was married with children from University B (LWPFUB Meyer). She became a lecturer in University B as a junior lecturer without doctoral degree and rose to the position of senior lecturer with doctoral degree. She engaged in several administrative roles. She was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.7 Alusi

Alusi (code name) was a 48-year-old male senior lecturer and a Christian by religion. He was without a PhD, and was married with children from University B (LWTPMUB Alusi). He was a member of different committees with extra additional responsibilities such as administrative work. He was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.8 Medina

Medina (code name) was a 43-year-old female junior lecturer and a Christian by religion. She was without PhD and married with children from University B (LWTPFUB Medina). She obtained her first degree and master's at University A. She enrolled as doctoral student at a Nigerian university. She had unclassified additional responsibilities and she was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.9 Baron

Baron (code name) was older than 70 years. He was a male senior lecturer and a Christian by religion. He was with PhD, and was married with children from University C (LWPMUC Baron). He had lectured in several universities across the country for over thirty-five years, but joined University C on its inception. In his former university, he had been head of department for many years and organised and chaired many committees. He was a member of different committees with additional responsibilities. He was from one of the tribe in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.10 Bally

Bally (code name) was a male older than 60. He was a senior lecturer and a Christian by religion with PhD, and married with children from University C (LWPMUC Bally). He had lectured in several universities in different countries for over thirty-five years, but joined University C since its inception. At his former university, he had been head of department for many years and organised and chaired many committees. He was a member of different committees with extra additional responsibilities. He was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria.

5.2.2.11 Sandra

Sandra (code name) was a 40-year-old female junior lecturer and a Christian by religion. She was without PhD and married with children from University C (LWTPFUC Sandra). She obtained her first degree and master's in another University in Nigeria. She had enrolled as doctoral student in a Nigerian university. She had unclassified additional responsibilities and she was from one of the tribes in South-West, Nigeria.

5.2.2.12 Nadia

Nadia (code name) was a 50-year-old female lecturer and a Christian by religion. She was with PhD and married with children from University A (LWPFUC Nadia). She came in as senior lecturer in University C. She engaged in several administrative roles, both classified and unclassified. In the past she had also headed several committees of the university, the faculty of humanities and department. She was from one of the tribes in South-South, Nigeria. In order to ensure the ethical issues were not raised, the researcher coded the participants' institutions and participants' names. The next section presents data analysis, themes and categories.

5.3   DATA ANALYSIS: THEMES AND CATEGORIES

Spencer, Ritchie and O' Connor (2012) maintain that data analysis involves managing and organising the transcribed data in a way that enables meaning-making after interpreting the data. Creswell (2012) adds that data organisation is important in qualitative research to ensure gathered information is not misinterpreted. Creswell (2012:239) explains that organising the data helps in data transcription because it is "labour intensive". He describes data transcription as a process of converting audiotape recording into text data". Spencer et al. (2012) further affirm that data analysis demands systematic thoroughness in transcribing the interviews and reflecting on the field notes to make meaning from them. Creswell (2012) and also Nieuwenhuis (2012) point out that the analysis of qualitative data can take any form.

In this study, information from the semi-structured interview was transcribed and analysed. The data analysis starts with coding of data into categories and modifying the categories to attain

organised manageable information (Seale et al., 2004:475). This idea is supported by the findings of Merriam (1998:11), which state that the analysis of data "usually results in the identification of recurring patterns that cut through the data or into the delineation of a process".

McMillian and Schumacher (2001) support that comparing and contrasting each part of the transcribed data help to identify statements in the collected data that is relevant to the study. The researcher further followed this approach until the same identified problems kept emerging again (Somekh & Lewin, 2005). Bryman (2012) goes on to describe coding as a process of reviewing the transcribed data, field notes and giving it names that were culturally and morally correct.

Subsequently, I began the coding of the transcribed data, following Charmaz's (2006) suggestion that, it is better to engage in detailed initial coding before selective coding to ensure that salient themes are not neglected. Thus, after initial coding, I engaged in selective coding, considering the resulting themes, grouping them in categories and sub-categories. From the groupings I developed three themes such as perception of professional, academic and institutional challenges, the coping strategies and the impact on emotions as shown in Table 5.3. Each of these themes has categories and the purpose of the sub-categories was to ensure there would be meaning in the discussion. Table 5.3 illustrates the themes and categories.

Table 5.3:   Themes, categories and sub-categories

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
Theme 1: **Perception of challenges**	Professional challenges	Funding Teaching resources
	Academic challenges	Research and publication Work overload
	Institutional challenges	Institutional environment Managerial style Discriminatory attitude Trade union strikes
Theme 2 **Coping strategies**	Group coping strategy	Trade union response Informal group support
	Personal coping strategy	Spiritual resilience Emotional resilience
Theme 3: **Impact on emotions**	Positive emotions	Cognitive motivation Affective connection Relationship reciprocation
	Negative emotions	Cognitive frustration Affective disconnection Professional delinquency Emotional history intrusion

5.4   THEME 1: THE PERCEPTION OF CHALLENGES

According to Weiten (2013) and Hargrove (2013) perception determines the way an individual identifies, understands, selects, organises and interprets circumstances. Perception is fundamental in understanding the intensity of the challenges, lecturers' response and the influence on the way they function within the system (Mofreh, Ghafar & Omar, 2013). The semi-structured interviews conducted to examine the lecturers' perception to challenges were transcribed, analysed and coded. The findings revealed three themes viz.: professional challenges, academic challenges and institutional challenges. The findings further revealed that in each of the themes there were resulting categories. In order to report the findings on the way the lecturer perceived challenges, the three themes and resulting categories were presented as theme 1: perception of challenges:

5.4.1   PROFESSIONAL CHALLENGES

The findings which were gathered on professional challenges were taken from the narratives of participants in this study. Funding and teaching resources were identified as the major professional challenges impacting on the perception, experiences, belief and functioning of the lecturers within the system. The findings revealed that funding and teaching resources continued to increase the lecturers' experience of professional challenges, thereby limiting the application of professional skills in improving teaching, research and community engagement (Cambridge, 2011). The findings further revealed that challenges on funding and teaching resources forced lecturers to implement educational programmes poorly resulting in poor quality in service delivery and productivity in education. The analysis of the data using the narratives of participants was presented in 5.4.1.1 and 5.4.1.2.

5.4.1.1   Funding

Funding was mentioned as major limitation to the application and demonstration of professional skills in teaching and research in tertiary education. The findings revealed that inadequate funding posed a major limitation in the dynamic management and implementation of educational programmes furthering constraint in the daily administration of the institutions.

Most of the participants gave wide-ranging diverse answers during semi-structured interviews with regards to the magnitude of inadequate funding of tertiary education. Most of the participants reported that inadequate funding lowered implementation of educational programmes and management of university. A participant known as Nelly commented on funding of tertiary education:

> *There are barely any funds to run the activities of the universities. You send in your proposal, but the university management cannot attend to it because there are no funds. Funding determines the way institutions formulate, implement and manage their daily activities.*

A participant Edo provided details on the way inadequate funding continued to impact on tertiary institutions:

> *Poor funding causes disorganised institutional plans; we cannot plan strategically to implement quality educational programmes.*

Another participant Gee confirmed the implication of inadequate funding on success in recruitment, planning and implementation of educational programmes:

The institution cannot recruit neither qualified lecturers nor plan and implement successful educational programmes without proper funding.

Another participant Meyer stated the causes of inadequate funding to the economic situation in the country:

...the economic situation in which we found ourselves in Nigeria, where certain things were not provided like in lecturers offices you are supposed to have all the facilities that are needed. You don't have them and when you make a request for them, they are not provided; you just feel that this problem does not give you the satisfaction you think it should.

Joshie elaborated by saying that the insufficient budgetary allocation to universities is partly the cause of inadequate funding:

Although, we have the general problem of funding, you know that it is influenced by the budgetary allocation to the university education.

Alusi agreed with Joshie but pinpointed the actual cause as funding policy of tertiary education:

The government funding policy on education is failing to meet the demand for tertiary education and globalisation because it is outdated.

Another participant Medina assigned the policy problems of inadequate funding to the government:

The federal, state and local governments have no policy on specific contribution of each sector to the universities within their locality.

A participant Nadia summed up by stating categorically that funding remained a professional challenge, because it put constraints on professional performance:

That's a major professional challenge. And then fund is the main major constraints.

A large number of the participants unexpectedly reported inadequate funding as the major cause of poor planning, poor implementation of educational programmes, an inability to recruit the required number of lecturers and low quality in service. The analysis also revealed that most of the participants attributed the causes of inadequate funding to the economic situation in the country, the process of budgetary allocation to tertiary education, outdated funding policy and poor financial commitment from the three-tiers of government in Nigeria.

These findings obviously are an indication that the participating lecturers were exposed to vulnerability, because of inadequate funding which impacted on management of the institutions

and allocation of funds to faculty and department. The poor allocation of funds to faculties and departments in turn limits the lecturers' ability to function properly. The narratives of the participants revealed that inadequate funding was a complete limitation that shaped the experience, perception and behaviour of lecturers. This also revealed that funding impacted on pragmatic readiness of the university management to take appropriate action to handle challenges within the system. On the other hand, inadequate funding was identified by the participants as the key factor in insufficient teaching resources and allocation to faculties and departments.

5.4.1.2 Teaching resources

Teaching resources were mentioned as major limitations to bring abstract concepts into concrete form to enable students to understand and learn. The findings revealed that inadequate funding limited the ability of the university management, faculties and departments from providing prerequisite teaching resources to strengthen and enhance learning objectives. Most of the participants gave answers during semi-structured interviews with regards to the magnitude of insufficient teaching resources in tertiary education institutions. Most of the participants reported that insufficient teaching resources were implicated as challenges increasing the quality of education through quality of service delivery. Most of the participants recognised a lack of teaching resources as a constraint in faculties and departments. A participant Nelly commented on teaching resources in tertiary education institution:

> *Managing teaching resources is a bigger issue; equipment for teaching and research is lacking.*

Another participant Benin gave details on the way teaching continued to impact on different faculties and departments in tertiary institutions:

> *A lack of facilities is very serious in the sciences and engineering; those areas need modern facilities to teach and function….in the science class you find out that the labs are empty lacking required chemicals.*

Another participant Gee confirmed the existence of insufficient teaching resources and the magnitude and implication to work in such conditions:

> *The laboratories are actually empty, old-fashioned and barely a place of motivation.*

Nadia reinforced the comments of Gee by reporting the magnitude of insufficient teaching resources:

> *You don't have enough of the facilities around; those are major academic challenges.*

Another participant Meyer confirmed the lack of teaching resources, the magnitude thereof and how they battled to acquire teaching resources. Meyer reported that her department bought, borrowed or collaborated with students to buy their basic teaching equipment themselves voluntarily:

> *Some of the things you will need to enhance your teaching and learning processes are not usually readily available. You could find it sometimes but not always. You don't have them. It mars your spirit. At times we have to borrow and sometimes you have to tell the students, why you don't get this and that. The students in unanimously agree and buy equipment.*

Another participant Baron confirmed Meyer's assertions and suggested the possible solution to insufficient teaching resources was investment:

> *We need to spend more on equipment for teaching and research. There is need for more investment in both the private and public institutions.*

A participant Joshie provided more substantial evidence on the way the department handled insufficient resources to reduce the negative experiences of lecturers. Joshie reported that his department generated funds internally to acquire the basic teaching materials they needed:

> *That was initially when we started the department we had to quickly adapt to the challenge of a lack of facility. Okay the way we did it was that we organised to generate internal revenue and to use the so generated internal revenue to get the equipment and construct the facilities we needed.*

Another participant Alusi argued that teaching without the required resources impacted on the lecturers' emotional state. According to Alusi:

> *Lives of lecturers in many Nigerian universities are characterised with tension because we don't have the necessary teaching resources.*

A participant Edo described the perceived intrapersonal impact:

> *Teaching is a challenge to me; my course demands more practical skills than theory. Most of the time, I am psychologically distressed. I feel anxious and barely sleep. It is frustrating.*

A participant Bally summed up by categorically likening teaching resources to straw and bricks for building, because of the constraints on professional performance:

> *You cannot make bricks without straw.*

The analysis of data on insufficient teaching resources as professional challenge revealed there was impact on services, quality of productivity and lecturers' emotions. Most of the participants attributed insufficient teaching resources to psychological distress, anxiety and difficulties in sleeping some lecturers' experienced, particularly to those in science faculties and departments. Most of the participants linked lack of teaching resources to poor quality of service delivery resulting in poor performance in teaching.

These findings obviously are an indication that the lecturers who participated were exposed to unfair working conditions, because of insufficient teaching resources which impacted on the organisation of the teaching pedagogy and allocation of instruments for practical tasks within the faculty and department. The insufficient teaching resources within the faculty and department in turn limit lecturers' ability to teach effectively, particularly abstract courses. The narratives of the participants revealed that insufficient teaching resources were a definite limitation that shaped the experience, perception and behaviour of lecturers and impacted them negatively. This also revealed that teaching resources impacted on pragmatic readiness of the lecturers to teach appropriately. On the other hand, most of the participants linked professional challenges to academic challenges, which are discussed and presented in the next section.

5.4.2 ACADEMIC CHALLENGES

Research and publication as well as work overload were identified as the major academic challenges impacting on the perception, experiences, belief and behaviour of the lecturers in the system. The findings revealed that research and publication funding and work overload continued to increase the lecturers' experience of academic challenges impacting on the application of acquired skills to improve research and publication teaching, in order to increase the rating of Nigeria tertiary education institution in academic world. The findings further revealed that the work overload of lecturers exerted an influence on lecturers' poor engagement in innovative research, publication in accredited journals and increased the risk of mental health challenges. The analysis of data using the narratives of participants was presented in 5.4.2.1 and 5.4.2.2.

5.4.2.1   Research and publication

Research and publication were mentioned as major factors promoting and advancing academic challenges in tertiary education. The findings revealed that research and publication posed a major threat to the lecturers' professional and personal success, because it determined individual lecturers' promotion within the system. This exacerbated lecturers' struggle to balance teaching and research as well as publication the institutions.

Most of the participants gave diverse answers during semi-structured interviews with regards to the magnitude of challenges resulting from research and publication in tertiary education institutions. Most of the participants reported that multiple role research and publication played a profound role in the life of the academic staff such as personal and professional promotion as well as institutional faculties and departmental rating was very important. Although they were crucial for professional progress, research and publication were reported as academic challenges and were a source of emotional experience. Across the board, most participants had a negative perception of research and publication, as to most participants it was a major source of promotion of unfairness, exploitation and exposure to feelings of anxiety and frustration. A participant Nelly commented on research and publication in tertiary education institutions:

> *There is too much focus on research and publication for promotion. It undermines the importance of teaching.*

Another participant Edo gave details on the way research and publication increased emotional demands on lecturers:

> *I have consistently struggled to balance teaching and research, it is too demanding.*

Another participant Gee confirmed the existence and implication of research and publication:

> *The policy of publish or perish is unfair to lecturers. First, some lecturers don't have time to prepare lecture notes; they focus on research and some lecturers make sacrifices, produce quality lecture notes of international standard which is very time-consuming but they are not appreciated. Even when you want to carry out vigorous innovative research, my concern is the lecturers who are never in the class to lecture, these absentee lecturer are promoted because of their publication.*

Another participant Benin elaborated on the implication and suggested that institutions must ensure that the amount of time lecturers put into teaching, research and publication are equal before promoting the academe only:

I remember some students reported to me that a lecturer comes one day in a semester to teach two syllabuses and go away. You understand those are the ones that become professors easily, so that's the biggest issue.

Another participant Meyer reported that family-changing roles and having children often affect research and publication. Meyer noted that apart from family changes, research and publication helped lecturers to keep abreast with what was happening in the world of education.

Yes! It's a very challenging thing, especially initially; I did not see it as anything. It was my hobby, but it was just that I got married and had a set of twins so handling them and writing were not easy so it was really so hard. I had to slow down in between but apart from that, it makes lecturers to be on their toes, now if you don't publish you perish, if you don't keep abreast of the things that are happening, get to conferences, get to workshops to know that this is no longer the thing that something new has come out and that it will make you to be an old wine in a new keg.

Another participant Alusi reported that emphasis on research and publication as means of promotion were making huge demands on lecturers. According to Alusi:

Whenever I think of research and teaching; Ehmmm! One always cheats the other, it is very saddling the way the policy emphasises on research.

Medina reinforced the comments of Alusi by reporting that a lack of mentors for academic writing, particularly, for junior lecturers caused difficulty with adaptations, adjustments and coping:

I had no mentor for academic writing so I went through what I can only describe as hell. For a long time all my papers were rejected.

Another participant Baron confirmed the lack of equipment for research was forcing lecturers to carry out innovative research outside the country:

My major problem is that most institutions in the country lack the required equipment for my course so most of my research is done outside the country.

A participant Sandra reported the magnitude of a lack of research equipment and how it was difficult to engage in research in some departments and suggested raising of funds for research and publication, particularly in the provision of prerequisite equipment:

Academic research is important but I can't afford the kind of research I want to carry out. I cannot afford it.

Nadia further affirmed Sandra's call for funding research and publication by saying that:

We don't really get international grant for research; the process is time consuming judging with our workload.

Nadia summed up the findings on research and publication with the report that a lack of research equipment was limiting lecturers from engaging in ground-breaking research. The analysis of data on research and publication as academic challenge revealed there was an impact on quality of research production and lecturers' emotions. Most of the participants attributed demands on research and publication to psychological distress, anxiety and difficulties in sleeping. Most of the participants linked a lack of equipment in research and publication as well as a low quality of produced research to research and publication. On the other hand, most of the participants linked research and publication to workload, which is discussed and presented in the next section.

5.4.2.2   Workload

Most of the participants in this study reported that lecturers performed multiple roles with limited resources. Some participants reported that the government, general public and university management expected and demanded too much from lecturers, thereby putting unnecessary pressure on them. Some of the participants reported that the workload was too much and emotionally draining. Others reported that the inability to recruit lecturers needed, made the workload even more demanding. Most of the participants provided comprehensive information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to workload as one of the causes of academic challenges amongst lecturers. Most of the participants regarded the issue of workload as an emotional experience and an aspect which needed critical planning and good timing, because of additional administrative responsibilities. A participant Benin commented on the workload in tertiary education institution:

> *For one person to teach over five hundred students especially the scripts and all that is too much…. In core subjects you can have like a thousand five hundred students, one person, one lecturer, hmmm!*

Benin's statement was further affirmed by Nelly, who stated:

> *The students are too many, particularly in lower level like 100 and 200, even worst in core courses. I have to mark many scripts from assignments and examination.*

Another participant Alusi elaborated on the kind of roles lecturers performed coupled with the traditional roles:

The workload, it is there, you see it and you feel it. You move from being a lecturer to course adviser, counsellor, coach and mentor. I am playing all the roles coupled with other administrative responsibilities.

Another participant Nadia further elaborated on the magnitude of the workload:

We are short of staff so now we are taking heavier loads than necessary. There was a semester when I had to teach 5-7 courses; that's a lot. You have to prepare your lecture notes. It is like that throughout the week from Monday to Friday. You are having lectures constantly. Coupled with the administrative work roles, it is a lot. I still teach seven courses.

Meyer pointed out that a lack of infrastructure contributed to the increase of the number of tasks as part of the workload because occasionally there would be no time and space for the postponed lecture. Meyer noted that shifting lecture time because of lack of space piles up the jobs:

At times when you find okay now we have eight classrooms, sometimes you have lectures, you find that all the classrooms are occupied and it will make you change your time. It makes the lecturer to have crash lectures because they might have another lecture scheduled for the time they changed to. This makes the workload to pile up.

Another participant Sandra reported that the workload was too much compared to the pay:

There is a need for more lecturers. The workload is too much compared to the pay. You keep having jobs piling up, no matter how hard you try.

Another participant Bally reported that the increase in the workload was appalling and unfair:

Appalling! Very bad ehmmm! Well here it is a little bit different compared to Nigerian universities. On the whole it is very bad compared to what ought to be happening, well ....we are understaffed and insufficiently funded.

Another participant Edo reported that the emotional demands associated with increasing the workload weighed the lecturers down and lecturers were sometimes burdened with responsibilities they could not cope with:

The workload is extremely demanding and put you off sometimes. We are forced to accept roles and responsibilities we are not trained for.

The analysis of data on workload as academic challenge revealed there was an impact on the quality of research production and lecturers' emotions. Most of the participants reported that the workload was extremely demanding creating psychological distress, anxiety and difficulties

in rejecting additional roles as well as problems in time management. Most of the participants linked workload to interference from additional and unclassified roles resulting in unpleasant emotions and demotivation. The findings further revealed that lecturers had a negative perception of workload. For most of the participants, there was an increase in unpaid workload resulting from unclassified jobs. These unclassified jobs not only increased emotional demands, but also added to the mental health challenges resulting from emotional, psychological and physical pressure. On the other hand, most of the participants linked academic challenges to institutional challenges, which is discussed in the next section.

5.4.3 INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES

Institutional success is hinged on proper funding, planning, good management style and strategic implementation of educational programmes. This is because the teaching and research functions of the lecturers contribute to development of high-level manpower in the public and private sectors of the economy to foster national and international development (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004). In this regard, the researcher reports the findings from the narratives of participants in this study on institutional challenges in this section. The institutional environment, managerial style, discriminatory attitude and trade union strikes were identified as the major institutional challenges impacting on the perception, experiences, behaviour and functioning of the lecturers within the system. The findings revealed that the institutional environment, managerial style, discriminatory attitude and trade union strikes continued to increase the lecturers' experience of institutional challenges thereby creating an emotionally intense work environment. The findings further revealed that institutional challenges were implicated in low quality in service delivery and productivity in education. The analysis of the data using the narratives of participants was presented in 5.4.3.1, 5.4.3.2, 5.4.3.3 and 5.4.3.4.

5.4.3.1 Institutional environment

Some of the participants reported that the institutional environment was characterised by a lack of resources for effective and well-organised running and management of daily activities of the institutions. Some participants reported that some academic staff had changed over the year because of increased institutional challenges resulting in low generations of skills and knowledge needed for institutional continued existence and provisions (Omolewa, 2001). Most of the participants reported that the conditions in which the lecturers carried out their daily duties were awful and lacked empathy, irrespective of the ownership structure and geopolitical zone. Some of the participants reported that in most institutions, lecturers were using the chalkboard to teach. A participant Benin commented on the institutional environment in tertiary education:

We are still engaged in the chalk and talk method (laughter), that old-fashioned method that all of us are trained in. We are still using here, that's about it.

Another participant Nelly commented on institutional environments and then identified the magnitude of the appalling condition in most institutions:

Go to the classes; the windows are falling and the toilets are disgusting, it's because there are no of funds to purchase new ones or repair the old ones.

A participant Joshie gave details of the sources of the problem promoting awful work conditions as a lack of funds to maintain the existing facilities to construct or acquire new facilities:

You know and then you give them a pittance and you not only give a pittance, you make it impossible for them to have an environment that is suitable for them to work in.

Meyer reinforced Joshie's comment by elaborating on the dangers of limited infrastructures and implications to the lecturers' efforts:

We have eight classrooms; sometimes you have lectures and you find that all the classrooms are occupied. It will make you change your time and it makes the lecturer to have crash lectures, because they might have another lecture scheduled for the time you changed to. This makes the workload to pile up.

Another participant Bally reported that the environment of most institutions was characterised with infrastructural deficiencies impacting on quality of service delivery:

The infrastructural deficiencies, obviously can take a big toll on the performance, because it is an input into output or necessarily the output. Ehmmm! We don't have all we need to perform the job.

Medina further confirmed the statement of Bally and Meyer and elaborated on the conditions of the existing structures:

It is openly visible, existing facilities are not maintained or repainted. The laboratories and libraries, lack modern equipment and new books.

Sandra summed up the report by identifying the root of the problem as governmental neglect and lack of political will to invest in quality facilities thereby making the work conditions of the lecturers unpleasant:

Nigeria has the capacity to respond to teaching needs of the universities. The government should help....

The analysis of data on institutional environment as institutional challenge revealed the work environment of most tertiary education institutions was appalling lacking modern infrastructures and renovation of existing facilities Most of the participants reported that work conditions were negatively perceived resulting in psychological distress, anxiety and mental health challenges. Most of the participants linked poor conditions of the institutional environment to governmental neglect and lack of political will to invest in quality education. This inaction resulted in poorly maintained infrastructures, unpleasant emotions and discouragement which in turn lowered the commitment level of some lecturers. The findings further revealed that some lecturers perceived the institutional environment as a source of emotional pressure which impacted on the way of functioning. On the other hand, most of the participants linked institutional challenges to the managerial style, which was discussed in the next section.

5.4.3.2 Managerial style

Most of the participants in this study reported that the managerial style on most institutions contributed to lecturers' experience of institutional challenges. Some participants reported that some university managements ironically expected a lack of managerial skills needed to create enabling environments and to be in order. This apathy contributed to the unnecessary pressure on lecturers. Some of the participants reported that the workload was too much and emotionally draining. Others reported that the inability to recruit needed lecturers was making the workload more demanding. Most of the participants provided comprehensive information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the managerial style and pinpointed that some institutions lacked committed leaders.

Ojudu (2012) goes on to say that managing Nigerian University entails a leader that has commitment and a character conducive towards the development of teaching, research and community engagement. A leader that is focus-oriented and capable of generating its resources for financial growth of the institution is a recommendation. Managing the institutional environment demands a leader that focuses on curtailing the socio-emotional pressure on lecturers.

Most of the participants reported that managerial style was a sources of emotional experiences, because a lack of administrative commitment to responsibilities and handling challenges added to lecturers' concerns. Some of the participants provided a broad range of information during the semi-structured interviews concerning managerial style of most university management. Some of the participants attributed managerial style to a lack of commitment in planning with available resources. A participant Medina commented on managerial style of most university management in tertiary institutions:

The university management lacks commitment in planning with available resources. That is the problem. It is no longer news that the federal government is not funding tertiary education as they ought to.

Another participant Alusi identified the sources of the problem as managerial style because of the behaviour of university management during accreditation:

All we get is there are no funds; then when it is time for accreditation, the equipment is provided. I asked myself, where they got the funds or if the government budget had special funds when delegates were coming for accreditation.

Nadia confirmed the assertion of Alusi and elaborated on the managerial style and its impact in the challenges lecturers experienced.

Another time we had accreditation, when they said the delegates were coming most of the facilities were given and then it eased the trouble to teach a large class without shouting and we had some of the things that would aid learning and it made us feel more like coping. In some of the offices we had some of the things needed. Some of the things like fans, carpets and other things were provided and that looked more impressive.

A participant Joshie insisted that managerial style determined how institutional challenges were handled:

It was initially challenging when we started the departments; we had to quickly adapt to the challenge of lack of facility. Okay, what we did was that we organised to generate internal revenue and to use the so generated internal revenue to get the equipment and construct the facilities we needed.

Joshie's report showed that the university management could initiate plans to help reduce the emotional experiences of lecturers by providing sources for funds.

The analysis of data on managerial style as institutional challenge revealed that university management of most tertiary institutions created problems for lecturers through the style of managing the institution. Most of the participants reported that managerial style was negatively perceived because some university managements failed to provide basic resources the academic staff required for proper functioning causing emotional distress, anxiety and mental health challenges. Most of the participants linked managerial style to university management neglect and lack of pragmatic readiness to invest in basic requirement, because they only provided such requirements during accreditation. The sudden provision of basic teaching resources during accreditation created unpleasant emotions and discouragement which in turn lowered the

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commitment level of some lecturers. They felt that it was a fake representation of the true state of affairs. The findings further revealed that lecturers were exposed to vulnerable conditions, because they were expected to achieve quality with limited resources. On the other hand, most of the participants linked managerial style to discriminatory behaviour that exist within most institutions, which is discussed in the next section.

5.4.3.3   Discriminatory attitude

Most of the participants reported that the institutional environment was deeply rooted in tribal discrimination which had far-reaching implications for the quality of people employed as lecturers. Some of the participants reported that most institutions were renowned for their discriminatory attitudes and poor treatment of other people, reducing their ability to flourish and survive. Some participants reported that some institutions had changed over the year as far as the process of recruitment of staff was concerned. This change increased employment of certain people even when they were not qualified to be in the position. Most of the participants reported that this institutional attitude had been implicated in relationship behaviour of lecturers who survived the discrimination: such as intrapersonal and interpersonal disconnection, except on strictly official duties. Some of the participants blamed the government and the trade unions for not intervening in discriminatory attitude in most institutions, particularly, tribal employment. A significant number of participants that reported discriminatory attitudes were a prominent aspect in staff employment and promotion. A participant Nelly commented on discriminatory attitudes in tertiary institutions:

> *I think ASSU should also focus on the attitude and behaviour of its members and university management in the area of employment and promotion to curb discrimination that is destroying the quality education, they are fighting for. I am facing discrimination.*

Another participant Edo commented on the magnitude of the discriminatory attitude:

> *The discrimination in the system is beyond imagination*

Another participant Gee suggested possible solutions through the intervention of trade unions.

> *ASSU is fighting a good battle to increase the quality of life of the members and the quality of productivity in tertiary education. I will be very grateful if ASSU should look inwards to reduce tribal discrimination in the various institutions.*

A participant Edo reported his experience of discrimination before employment:

> *After graduation, I applied for employment; I attended many interviews but people that did not apply, did not attend the interview and were not qualified for the job. It*

caused unqualified people to be employed because I am from a different geopolitical zone, but I was one of their best students. I am still hurting.

Another participant Gee reported that the trade union should ensure that the recruitment of academic staff were on merit:

> *I think the federal government and ASSU must revisit the pattern of recruiting academic staff. The employment of people from the same locality reduces quality and puts pressure on the qualified lecturers.*

A participant Alusi further echoed Gee's comment that the federal government should review the process of recruiting academic staff and trade unions to ensure that quality was achieved:

> *The universities need to employ more lecturers from diverse cultures and should not select from their own locality. It increases institutional politicising and creates a tense environment.*

A participant Baron pinpointed the sources of discriminatory attitude as resulting from individual misjudgement which led to outright dislike without offence:

> *There are people, you see, whom you just don't like them, yes you just don't like them for no reason.*

Nadia pointed out discrimination affects colleagues negatively, because they were not promoted when due for promotion:

> *Some of us are not happy; it is demoralising because they worked hard for it, so they merit it.*

The analysis of data on discriminatory attitude as institutional challenge revealed that university management of most tertiary institutions engaged in discrimination in recruitment of lecturers. Most of the participants reported that discrimination was negatively perceived, because it affected the promotion of hardworking lecturers resulting in emotional distress, unforgiving attitudes and relationship challenges. Most of the participants linked discriminatory attitudes to quality of academic staff within some departments resulting in poor quality in service delivery, poorly trained students and a disappointing quality of research and publication from the departments. Some participants reported that these above-mentioned aspects created unpleasant emotions and personal and social disconnections amongst lecturers that experienced discrimination. The findings further revealed that lecturers exposed to discrimination were emotionally vulnerable and subsequently responded to such attitudes with self-alienation. Most of the participants reported that discriminatory attitudes had taken a toll on lecturers impacting on their relationships and interaction within the system. On the other hand, most of the

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participants reported the existence of trade unions within most institutions, which is discussed in the next section.

5.4.3.4   Trade union strikes

Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the causes of disruptiveness as institutional challenges in most institutions. Most of the participants ascribed trade union calls for strikes disruptive. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned consistent calls for strikes as a major cause of disruptiveness in institutions. They also attributed disruptiveness to coming late to class by some students which disorganised the class as they tried to settle down. A participant Benin commented on trade union strikes in tertiary institutions:

> *Of course, when we talk of strikes we are talking of war, academic war. In any war there are casualties. It will affect everybody. Sometimes it is so disruptive, you think you can do some time but you won't even be coordinated to even carry out research, once the students are all gone, as a teacher your passion is gone. It's like you have no job. It is very frustrating and then the students themselves who were supposed to spend three years will end up spending five to six years. You see these are issues. Some of the students are even running into trouble.*

Benin reported that academic war between the government and trade unions was disruptive, because after the strike, the lecturers struggled to cover the previous and present semester depending on the length of the strike. A participant Benin commented on trade union strikes:

> *Those who cannot cope with the uncomfortable nature of the classes becomes disruptive. You must understand that university house diverse students, from diverse backgrounds, I mean socio-economic status. Don't forget that some students have never experienced overcrowded environments, so they tend to react in various ways, which affects the lecture, consuming time and leaving most courses inadequately covered. It is disruptive as you have to cover your course unit for the semester and struggling to cover the units is very frustrating.*

Another participant Joshie identified the implications of trade union strikes to lecturers' emotions and coping style.

> *Yeah, you see, strike is a major stressor, ehmmm and not everybody has the same coping ability.*

Joshie reported that disruption added pressure to the academe's life. Meyer confirmed that trade union strike was disruptive:

Yes! Yes like you see the strike is a disruption. You see the government and ASSU members are yet to reach consent due to the mayhem that erupted to the signing of the 2009 agreement.

Meyer reported that both the actions by the trade union and the students' behaviour were disruptive, because they made lecturers engage in clash programmes to cover the course unit for the semester leading to work overload. Another participant Baron attributed disruptiveness to students coming late to classes:

That is very frustrating, it is frustrating and it is in both private and public university. The student have missed one hour lecture he cannot catch up with where you are and in an attempt to catch up, it disturb colleague.

Baron reported that coming late to classes was disruptive and very frustrating, but after years of experience, he had become more flexible in handling problems than in his early days of lecturing.

The analysis of data on trade union strikes as institutional challenge revealed that lecturers perceived strikes as disruptive. Most of the participants reported that trade unions' call for strike was negatively perceived, because it increased the workload of lecturers after the strikes. Most of the participants linked trade union strikes to better quality of life the academic staff enjoyed at present. Some participants reported that, although, strikes created unpleasant emotions, it had remained the only way to bring the government to listen to the plight of the academic staff. The findings further revealed that strikes exposed lecturers to emotionally vulnerable conditions. On the other hand, most of the participants reported the existence of trade unions within most institutions had helped tertiary education to make visible progress. However, there were lecturers with coping strategies and there were lecturers who struggled to cope. Coping strategies are discussed in the next section.

5.5 THEME 2: COPING STRATEGIES

The individual or group's ability to handle challenges is hinged on coping strategies always used to master, modify, manage, moderate and withstand the challenges (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2010). This is because the coping strategies of the lecturers contributed to their ability to persist and withstand professional, academic and institutional challenges that impact on physical, psychological and emotional stability.

In this regard, the researcher arrived at the findings from the narratives of participants in this study on coping strategies and these are discussed next. Group and personal coping strategies were identified as the major coping strategies lecturers were applying in handling professional,

academic and institutional challenges within the system. The findings reveal that group coping and personal coping enabled the lecturers to modify, manage, moderate and survive the challenges. The findings further reveal that coping strategies were implicated in the way the lecturers survived the challenges. The findings further illuminate the emotions in Figure 5.1 as resulting key emotions. The analysis of data using the narratives of participants is presented in 5.5.1 and 5.4.2.
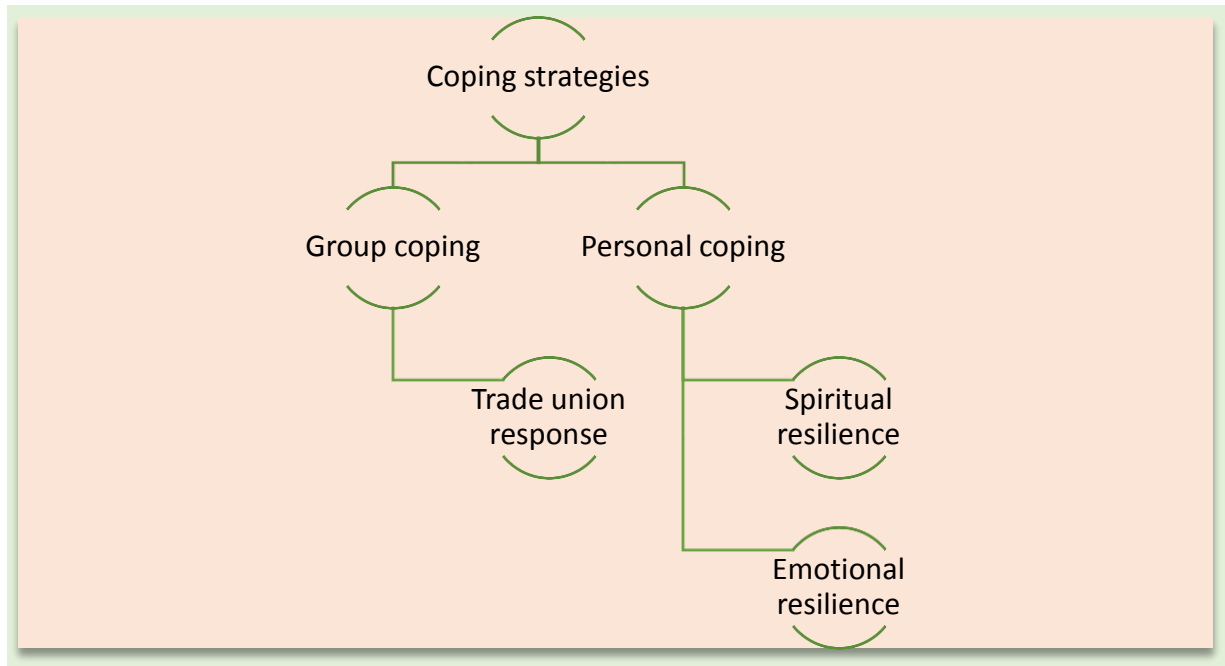
Figure 5.1:   Coping strategies for the challenges

5.5.1   GROUP COPING STRATEGY

Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way group coping strategies helped the academic staff to be able to adjust and withstand challenges in most institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned a consistent call for strike as a major step to take a break and group coping as part of tactics. They also attributed the trade union's timely response and support as an approach to manage challenges to limit its disruption of official interaction and relationships within the system. Group coping strategies are discussed in 5.5.1.1.

5.5.1.1   Trade union response

The professional structure of academic staff demands compulsory membership in trade union. Research on trade unionism shows that at present, the federal and state universities are the two categories that at present permit trade unions (Onyeonoru, 2001). The major aim of the academic trade unions is to engage the government in series of bargain, dialogue and signing

of agreement to ensure implementation. However, each time the government fails to keep to their promise, the trade union calls for indefinite strikes (see 2.4.2: Table 2.1). This call for strike has its controversies, despite the differences; the lecturers perceive the timely response of the trade union as a coping strategy. In this study, most of the participants described their relationship with trade union as psychological and emotionally calming, because the trade union was caring, supportive and created a sense of belonging. A participant Edo commented on group coping strategies in tertiary institutions:

> *We belong to ASSU and you know its compulsory but its objectives are simply to protect academic staff from vulnerability, to ensure adequate funding of tertiary education, improvement of condition of services and achievement of university autonomy. ASSU responds on our behalf….we can't do it individually.*

A participant Gee agreed with Edo's comments by confirming that the consistent intervention of the trade union reduced emotions of pains and helplessness, and built hope for better working conditions:

> *The trade union focuses on the betterment of the lecturers and tertiary education, both in federal and state universities. The union is making sure that lecturers have better working conditions and it is psychologically calming to know that the trade union is standing up for its members.*

Another participant Benin further affirmed that the trade union had helped the lecturers in achieving a certain level of comfort:

> *The lecturers are poorly paid compare to other worker even to civil servants, so these are the issues and the one major contention that has been within the university. ASSU is fighting that.*

Another participant Nadia further affirmed that the trade union helped the lecturers in achieving a certain level of comfort:

> *ASSU is asking for adequate funding of the university. What the lecturers were receiving was so poor. I mean it was eye opening when they had this slogan of 'our take home day cannot take us home.' It was then the government looked into their grievances and increased their salary. If not the lecturers would have been receiving peanuts as a salary.*

Nadia reported that the trade union cared about the quality of life of the lecturer. Another participant Bally confirmed Nadia's assertion by saying:

I was in the university when it is more than worse; the slogan was then 'my take home pay cannot take me home' but now the take home pay can take them anywhere.

Bally reported that lecturers' quality of life had improved compared to his days as young lecturer, because of the trade union's intervention. A participant Baron further affirmed the assertion of Nadia and Bally by saying:

If ASSU had not been going on strike, the salary of the university lecturers would have been peanuts, yet now it is not the best…. Though, the private university does not have trade union now it is matter of time. You cannot trample on people's right, the rights of association it is only a question of time.

Another participant, Meyer expressed confidence in the trade union's ability to ensure that the lecturers enjoy fair working conditions like the politicians:

The ASSU is actually agitating for good funding in education… ASSU is on the right track in that they are trying to push forward the funds. Some of the things we are drawing into politics, at least a chunk thereof, should be given to education.

Another participant Joshie pinpointed the reason the lecturers perceived the trade union as grouping coping strategy:

Strike for the improvement of the system, of the educational system in this country, that is funding, the funds are not coming and the legislators are getting all the money.

The analysis of data on group coping strategies reveals that lecturers perceived the trade union intervention as very beneficial to the academic staff. Most of the participants reported that trade union calls for strikes focused on the improvement of tertiary education and better life for the lectures. The findings further reveal that the work conditions in most tertiary institutions exposed lecturers to emotional vulnerability without the hope of governmental intervention. It is also clear from studying the findings that some of the participants perceived the trade union as the only way to bring the government to listen to the plights the academic staff. Most of the participants were optimistic that getting the government to increase financial investment in education would improve the quality of education. On the other hand, most of the participants reported the existence of trade unions had helped tertiary education to make visible progress and promote emotional stability. It was very clear that the lecturers were happy that the trade union helped them to handle professional, academic and institutional challenges. It can also be deduced from the findings that the temporary intervention of trade unions helped the academic staff to take a break to moderate emotional burdens and the resulting mental frustration.

5.5.2 PERSONAL COPING STRATEGIES

Personal coping strategies describe the approach individual participants adopted in handling professional, academic and institutional challenges. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way personal coping strategies helped the academic staff to adjust and endure challenges in most institutions. Most participants' recognised personal coping strategies as an individual surviving approach, which was consistently viable in managing perceived challenges, while some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned that in personal coping strategies, individuals could apply dual strategies such as spiritual resilience and emotional resilience. These strategies are discussed in 5.5.2.1 and 5.5.2.2.

5.5.2.1 Spiritual resilience

According to Negley (2014:1) "Spiritual resilience is defined as the ability to sustain an individual's sense of oneself and purpose through a set of beliefs, principles or values." Marley (2014) elaborates further saying that spiritual resilience builds, deepens and strengthens the ability to handle challenges. In this study, most of the participants identify spiritual resilience as source of strength, motivation and encouragement. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way spiritual resilience helped to sustain the emotional experiences associated with professional, academic and institutional challenges in most institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned reading from the holy Bible for the Christians and the holy Koran for the Muslims as source of encouragement and motivation to persist in the face of challenges. The participants attributed spiritual resilience to emotional and psychological calmness they experienced. A participant Gee commented the following on spiritual resilience in tertiary institution:

> *As human being, we tend to focus more on our challenges not on God's word in our life. 1st Peter 2:20b says: but if when you do well and suffer for it, you endure, this is gracious thing in the sight of God. I have broken down many times, I have been hospitalised many times but I always come back better than before.*

Gee reported that the word of God from the Bible addressed her situation and enabled her to recover fast from emotional breakdown, which in turn curtailed her visits to the hospitals. Joshie reported that he developed spiritual resilience with the word of God. A participant Joshie added detail on the way spiritual resilience encouraged him:

> *I developed this I can do spirit that enables me to meet up to that challenge. The challenge brought out in me the: I can do spirit, you know, the need to overcome. Yes that was what happened.*

Joshie felt the challenges helped to bring out the "I can do spirit" in him. This new spirit was empowering him to endure and overcome challenges. Another participant Medina reported that she engaged the word of God in the Bible as sources of strength and personal encouragement:

> Then I feel this calmness within me. I always memorized some verse in the bible and my favourite is psalm 43:3 and it says "send out your light and your truth, let them guide me. Let them lead me to your holy mountain, to the place where you live.

Medina also reported that apart from seeking spiritual guidance from the word of God, she also memorised Psalm 43:3 which she recited to calm herself down. Another participant Nadia proposed that spiritual resilience had contributed to her coping ability:

> We use to have prayer meetings every week. Every (Tuesday) morning we pray, it is for all staff for just two hours, that is actually a forum where staff come together so we see each other and interact and encourage each other with the word of God. Some people may be getting discouraged but when they hear the words of encouragement from the Bible they are inspired. But as an individual, I will say that my religious background to a large extent moderates my emotional reaction to issues.

Nadia perceived prayer meeting as sources of hope for the hopeless. Another participant Edo commented that the word of God from the Koran helped him in handling challenges:

> When the demands and expectations from this job is too much, I get angry and frustrated as a human, but I always go back to God and ask for forgiveness. As Muslim, the Quran (3:134) teaches us that 'Those who spend (in God's Cause) in prosperity and in adversity, who repress anger, and who pardon the people; verily, God loves the good-doers.' We were also warned not to be like those who forsake Allah, so he made them forsake their own souls. To avoid irrationality, I spend time with God. When I feel such intense moments from emotional breakdown, Surah Al Nisa 4:103 says 'for prayers are enjoined on believers at stated time'. Praying five times a day keeps me spiritually, physically and emotionally calm. It gives me great sanity and focus. But each time I forsake the teaching of Allah, I feel the pressure.

The analysis of data on spiritual resilience revealed the way it helped lecturers to handle challenges individually. Most of the participants mentioned that spiritual resilience increased the feeling of spiritual, emotional and physical calmness at emotional demanding moments. The findings further revealed that spiritual resilience enabled some lecturers to endure emotional vulnerability and make personal adjust. The findings also revealed that some of the participants perceived spiritual resilience as powerful, because God is all forgiving which helps in recovering fast from emotional breakdowns, particularly, after display of anger and

frustration towards other people. The findings revealed that spiritual resilience is strengthened by the belief that God is the only source of hope for the hopeless. The findings further revealed that some participants believed to achieve the connection with God was through reading, memorising and reciting the Words of God that speak to the situation. The finding also revealed that some participants joined with friends and colleagues in reading and praying to achieve personal emotional stability and emotionally literate the institutional environment. On the other hand, most of the participants mentioned that emotional resilience was not easily achieved, so they struggled in application of the word on a daily basis. This was an indication of the need to learn and master the competence of spiritual resilience to enable translation to practical life to achieve success. The findings also revealed that some participants engaged in emotional resilience.

5.5.2.2 Emotional resilience

Most of the participants revealed that emotional resilience was another major source of personal coping strategies. Bharwaney (2014:xxv) describes emotional resilience as "the ability to continually choose the feelings, thoughts and actions that help you achieve results and perform at your best at personal, team and organizational levels". Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way emotional resilience helped to sustain the emotional experiences resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges in most institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned that years of experience, fear of not being promoted at the right time, self-determination, the desire to realise personal dreams, people's expectations and positive change orientation to be building blocks towards self-recovery after challenges. The participants attributed their quick recovery from emotional experiences and consequential challenges to emotional resilience. A participant Edo commented on emotional resilience in tertiary institutions:

> *I went through trauma. I was really stuck emotionally and psychologically. But one day, I went to bed and when I woke up, I made up my mind, that enough is enough, I moved on and I am still moving on.*

Another participant Gee gave details of emotional implication of the challenges and pinpointed that emotional resilience contributed to personal survival:

> *Lecturing without the needed resources is emotionally draining, cognitively demanding and completely tasking. This makes me to engage in negative thinking, making it more difficult for me to handle the chaos in the system.*

Another participant Nelly reported that she was struggling to cope, although emotional resilience helped her recover:

> Sometimes it becomes extremely demanding and frustrating, one reacts irrationally. I have always bounced back from my emotional experiences. I struggle to cope with the way I feel.

Another participant Meyer reported that fear of losing promotion helped in building emotional resilience:

> You have your ups and downs, if you fail to meet the requirements, you will not be recognised, if you're set, your contemporary group are ahead of you and you feel so demoralised. So when you think of the challenges ahead of you and when you are not yet a senior lecturer and you are still lecturer one, you will always work hard. Do you understand? Then you will know that in the environment people look up to you but you are still in the process of learning.

Meyer pointed out that the desire to be promoted in line with colleagues builds emotional resilience. She also attributed fear of failure and fear of not being promoted to building emotional resilience. Meyer also reported that expectations and demands from family members, university and society built the motivation to recover fast from professional, academic and institutional challenges. Another participant Medina commented on emotional resilience:

> As a doctoral student struggling with my studies coupled with job roles, it can be emotionally draining and cognitively frustrating….Cognitive frustration limits your ability to think smart, sharp and straight as well as to read with understanding. This makes coping very difficult. You can't make the right decision. You become an emotional roller coaster. If you can, you bounce back but it takes time to master the act of bouncing back.

Medina reported that the need to obtain her doctoral degree coupled with the professional, academic and institutional challenges was frustrating her leading to her inability to read, understand and making meaning out of people's statements without misunderstanding them. Medina was struggling with emotional resilience and might benefit from such training or models. Another participant reported years of experience as a source of emotional resilience:

> I am not affected emotionally because of my years of experience. I cannot feel depressed. I find ways out of the situations. I have to find ways to solve the problems.

Baron reported that years of experience built his ability to remain emotionally resilient. Baron pointed out that over the years he had learnt ways of overcoming professional, academic and

institutional challenges and disappointments. Baron had confidence that with emotional resilience, he could not experience depression.

Another participant called Nadia commented on emotional resilience:

> *I feel sad and frustrated but sometimes I have to encourage myself because when I feel frustrated, the tendency is for me to give up. When I give up that's not the solution.*

Nadia reported that sometimes she was overwhelmed with sadness and frustration. She encouraged herself, because resigning to professional, academic and institutional challenges was not an option for her.

Another participant Sandra mentioned that younger staff members were not prepared to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges; however, she recovered fast from her emotional roller coaster:

> *With lack of professional training and retraining, as well as mentors, for junior lecturers it is more frustrating because it is very difficult to get over some feelings, but when you remember you begged to apply.*

The analysis of data on emotional resilience revealed the way it helped lecturers to handle challenges individually and why it helped. Some of the participants mentioned that the fear of failure and fear of not being promoted built emotional resilience. The findings also revealed that some lecturers' thoughts on expectations and demands from family members, university and society built the motivation to recover fast from professional, academic and institutional challenges. The findings further revealed that some participants mentioned that the need to balance the job demands and obtain doctoral degrees encouraged them. Some participants also revealed that the application of emotional resilience was not easy and might benefit from such training or models. Despite the identification of groups and personal coping strategies, most of the participants reported that professional, academic and institutional challenges had an impact on their emotions.

5.6   THEME 3: IMPACT ON EMOTIONS

The findings obtained from analysing the narratives of participants in this study on impact on emotions of lecturers resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges are discussed next. Positive and negative emotions were identified as the main emotions impacting on lecturers changing their experiences, perceptions, beliefs and behaviour. The findings revealed that positive and negative emotions continued to increase the lecturers' experience of challenges within the system leading to dual emotional experiences and impact. The positive emotions resulted from personal promotions or publication in a desired journal, student

performance, and trade union activities rather than work conditions. The negative emotions were caused by unfavourable work conditions especially working with limited resources and a work environment which was unconducive to learning. The emotions from participants' responses to professional, academic and institutional challenges were identified labelled and listed in Figure 5.1. Line 1 shows the professional, academic and institutional challenges as main themes. Line two shows positive emotions connected with the experience of professional, academic and institutional challenges as identified and labelled by the participants. The third line shows negative emotions resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges identified and labelled from the participants' responses. The impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges was presented according to universities in the next section.

Professionl, academic and institutional challenges	Positive Emotions	Negative Emotions
	Happiness	Anger
	Patience	Disappointment
	Persistence	Disgust
	Hope	Anxiety
	Humility	Frustration
	Warmth	Aggression
	Optimism	Despair
	Determination	Pessimism
	Empathy	Insincerity
	Passion	Sadness
	Excitement	Anguish
	Encouragement	Pain
		Distress
		Sadness
		Tension
		Inability to feel happy

Figure 5.2: Emotions resulting from professional, academic and institutional challenges

5.6.1   POSITIVE EMOTIONS

Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way positive emotions occurred in most institutions, despite the experience of challenges. Most of the participants revealed that they experienced positive emotions because of achievement and promotion at work leading to motivation to make more commitments in the field of teaching and research. According to Marques (2007) positive emotions impact on individuals, changing behaviour and strategies for handling challenges. Gardner and Stough (2002) and Goleman (2004) go further by saying that change in behaviour leads to commitment and better performance at work. Some of the participants linked positive emotions to cognitive motivation, affective connection and reciprocal relationships. These concepts were discussed in 5.6.1.1, 5.6.1.2 and 5.6.1.3.

5.6.1.1 Cognitive motivation

Most of the participants revealed that cognitive motivation was another major source of positive emotions impacting on lecturers. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way cognitive motivation influenced lecturers in most institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned that positive emotions occurred when students performed well. It built the hope and instilled commitment that achieving success was possible notwithstanding limited resources. The participants further attributed cognitive motivation to personal promotion at work and publication of research in a desired journal. Some participants reported that research and publication created positive emotions because it made lecturers to be knowledgeable with innovations in the world of education and world of work. A participant Nadia commented on cognitive motivation amongst lecturers in tertiary institutions:

> *As a lecturer, you feel happy when you see your students doing quite well. There are some students that actually excite and encourage you by their performance.*

Another participants Meyer further supported Nadia's comments on cognitive motivation and explained:

> *It makes lecturers to be on their toes. If you don't publish you perish and if you don't keep abreast of the things that are happening and attend conferences and workshops to know that this is no longer the thing that something new has come out and that it will make you to be old wine in a new keg.*

Meyer reported that research and publication helped lecturers to keep abreast with what was happening in the field of education.

The analysis of data on cognitive motivation revealed that the lecturers derived positive emotions from students' academic performance, personal promotion and publication in a desired journal. The findings also revealed that positive emotions inspired lecturers to remain committed to quality in service delivery in the midst of limited resources. The findings further revealed that some participants mentioned that the need to remain current with new knowledge in the academic world kept them cognitively motivated. The findings of this study revealed that most of the participants were able to identify and label experienced emotions which suggested that they were self-aware of their emotions and other people's emotions. Despite the identification of cognitive motivation, most of the participants mentioned affective connection.

5.6.1.2 Affective connection

Most of the participants revealed that affective connections were another major source of positive emotions impacting on lecturers. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way affective connection occurred within the institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned that there was an increase in affective connection between lecturers and students' lecturers and departments because of students and lecturers' high performance. Most of the participants reported that it builds the institutional and students' confidence to confide in their lecturers. Some participants also mentioned that low negative competition built affective connection. A participant Joshie commented on affective connections amongst lecturers in tertiary institutions:

> *The students have learnt to confide in their lecturers. In fact, when they even committed crimes, you know the students still confided in their lecturers so that is it. It's very encouraging, very encouraging indeed.*

Some participants also reported a lack of spirit of negative competition, because of an increase in affective connections. Prominent among the comments was the comment by Nadia, who stated that:

> *I will also say that spirit of competition, I mean competition in the negative sense where people aspire to outwit each other is uncommon.*

Some participants reported that affective connections increased collaboration with colleagues. This is evident in the comment of Joshie, who stated:

> *Okay the way we did it was that we organised to generate internal revenue and to use the so generated internal revenue to get the equipment and construct the facilities we needed.*

Other participants reported that affective connections increased collaboration with the students. One of the significant comments was from Meyer:

> *A times we have to borrow and sometimes you have to tell the students, why you don't get this and that. The students unanimously agree and get one.*

The analysis of data on affective connections revealed that connection occurred with student academic performance, collaboration with colleagues and low negative competition amongst lecturers. The findings also revealed that positive emotions inspired reciprocal interaction and relationships amongst lecturers, students and other university members. The findings of this study revealed that most of the participants were able to identify and label experienced emotions

and the impact of the emotions on personal and professional success. Most of the participants in this study mentioned that affective connection promoted care, support and empathic lecturers and students acting in harmony within the institutions. Despite the identification of affective connections, most of the participants mentioned relationship reciprocation.

5.6.1.3 Relationship reciprocation

Most of the participants revealed that relationship reciprocation was another major source of positive emotions impacting on lecturers. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way relationship reciprocation occurred within the institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned that relationship reciprocation was an outcome of cognitive motivation and affective connection between lecturers and students' lecturers and colleagues. Most of the participants reported that positive emotions gave rise to reciprocal relationship which enhanced the functionality of tertiary education, because most of the activities in the institutions involved human interaction. A participant Nelly commented on affective connections amongst lecturers in tertiary institutions:

> *I have good lifelong friends… You know lecturers…. some of them are friendly.*

Another participant Joshie confirmed what Nelly said and explained:

> *Yes... a singular reputation of cordial student lecturer and lecturer-lecturer relationship.*

Another participant Nadia gave details on the sources of relationship reciprocation:

> *We used to have prayer meetings every week. Every (Tuesday) morning we prayed, it is for all staff for just two hours. That is actually a forum where staff comes together so we see each other and interact and encourage each other with the word of God.*

The analysis of data on relationship reciprocation revealed that connections occurred as a result of an increase in cognitive motivation and affective connections, leading to relationship reciprocation. The findings also revealed that relationship reciprocation amongst lecturers, students and other university members strengthened bonds, teamwork, empathy and harmony within the system. Despite the identification of positive emotions and impact on lecturers and institutional harmony, most of the participants identified negative emotions and influences.

5.6.2 NEGATIVE EMOTIONS

Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way negative emotions occurred in most institutions when facing challenges. Most of the participants revealed that they experienced negative emotions as a result government and university management's attitude towards professional, academic and institutional challenges, work conditions and discriminatory attitudes within the system. Most participants linked negative emotions to the experiences of cognitive frustration, affective disconnection, professional delinquency and emotional history intrusion. These concepts are discussed in 5.6.2.1, 5.6.2.2, 5.6.2.3 and 5.6.2.4.

5.6.2.1 Cognitive frustration

Most of the participants revealed that cognitive frustration was a result of negative emotions. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way cognitive frustration builds and occurs within the institutions. Some of the participants unexpectedly mentioned that cognitive frustration resulted from the way they reacted towards the challenges and the attitudes of the government as well as university management. These perceptions increased emotions of frustration. A participant Edo commented on cognitive frustration amongst lecturers in tertiary institutions:

> *It makes me feel angry and frustrated. It is unjust and unfair for the government to treat the academic staff that way and makes us work in distress and anguish.*

Another participant Nelly confirmed that government was the source of cognitive frustration:

> *I cannot feel happy, in fact, I am disappointed with the government and the university management they are exposing lecturers to danger. It is really very sad and disappointing.*

A participant Joshie reported the emotions of other lecturers:

> *Lecturers feel sad, angry and frustrated; you don't expect us to carry placards to know some of us are very sad with the working conditions.*

Another participant Benin identified the sources of negative attitudes towards the government:

> *It is painful, yes! Painful but it's just that we have government that does not learn especially when it comes to trade unions; the government has very little knowledge of the understanding of how to handle it. It's unfortunate as I said before it might be a political plan.*

A participants Baron mentioned inability to give the profession the best:

> *I do not feel happy because I am not giving my best in my profession. I do not feel happy because of a lack of sufficient equipment and you cannot teach students without the right equipment and get the best results.*

There were participants that linked cognitive frustration to emotional burdens because of multiple roles and additional jobs without required resources. Prominent among the participants was Gee that commented:

> *It is cognitively demanding, psychologically tasking and emotionally draining, especially, if you are a lecturer without a PhD. Too much thinking makes it more difficult for me to handle the confusion in the system.*

Another participants Medina had this to say:

> *As a doctoral student struggling with my studies…., it can be emotionally draining, cognitively frustrating... It limits your ability to think smart, sharp and straight... you can't make the right decision, you are emotionally severely affected and suffer excruciating pain.*

A participant Sandra affirmed that cognitive frustration was more on some junior lecturers without a mentor:

> *For junior lecturers it is more frustrating, because it is very difficult to get over some feelings, but when you remember like we use you begged to apply.*

On the other hand, some participants reported that the demand and special focus on research and publication as yardstick for promotion were major sources of cognitive frustration. This surfaced explicitly in the comments of most participants. Nelly said:

> *There is too much focus on research and publication for promotion. It undermines the importance of teaching.*

This is further reinforced by the comment of Gee, who stated:

> *The policy of publish or perish is unfair to some lecturers… some lecturers make sacrifices…they are not appreciated.*

Another participant Edo from personal perspective stated:

> *I consistently struggle to balance teaching and research, it is too demanding.*

Another participant Bally summed up by saying that committed lecturers experienced cognitive frustration:

Committed lecturers feel bad and non-committed lecturers don't feel anything.

The analysis of data on cognitive frustration revealed that it ensued from the government and university management's attitudes, which made it hard to perform professional roles. The findings also revealed that working with limited resources was cognitively demanding resulting in psychological and emotional drain. The findings further revealed that reflective and committed lecturers experienced greater cognitive frustration leading to self-condemnation, self-doubt and moral guilt. The findings reported a difference in the degree of experience of cognitive frustration. Doctoral students mentioned that they experienced intense cognitive frustration because of the strivings to balance the work role with academics. Most doctoral participants mentioned that they were struggling because of cognitive frustration which created mental obstruction. This statement aligns with Michelon (2006:1) who asserts that cognitive frustration interrupts the use of intellectual capacity as the foundation for achieving appropriate professional and personal life expectations. Bernstein, Penner, Clarke-Stewart and Roy (2002) elaborate by saying that cognitive frustration disrupts any activities that motivate intelligent decision and solving problems. Gray et al. (2002) maintain that thinking reflectively to understand and process emotional information for good decision-making demands cognitive and emotional stability. Regardless of cognitive frustration, most of the participants identified affective disconnection as outcome of negative emotions.

5.6.2.2   Affective disconnection

Most of the participants revealed that affective disconnection occurred because of experiencing negative emotions. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way affective disconnection builds and occurs within the institutions. Some of the participants surprisingly mentioned that affective disconnection resulted from the way they felt towards discriminator's attitude, unbearable attitudes of some lecturers and a lack of empathy. A participant Gee commented on affective disconnection amongst lecturers in tertiary institutions:

I will be very grateful, if ASSU should look inward to curb the tribal discrimination in various institutions, it is affecting the kind of relationship we have; we don't like each other.

Some of the participants reported that inability to endure negative emotions caused affective disconnection from individuals creating negative emotions. One of the significant comments from Nelly follows next:

I don't think I will forget and relate well with them.

Some participants also reported that a lack of empathy created affective disconnection between lecturers and university management. This was evident in the comments of Meyer, who stated:

If somebody is working under you, you take total liability of the person, the household and the family so the health scheme is not wonderful for me.

Some participants reported that negative emotions were furthering relationship problems. This is evident from the report one of the participants Edo, who stated:

Actually I don't feel happy with the way I social and interact with people sometimes.

Another participant Alusi mentioned self-doubt:

When you cannot get what you need to perform your job, it affects how you feel and the way you view the institution. Sometimes you develop self-doubt, moral guilt and emotional issues because; you are giving your best to the students.

A participant Gee, reported that some lecturers' attitudes contributed to affective disconnection because they never completed their job on time:

Lecturers can create problems that affect relationship within the departments.

The analysis of data on affective disconnection revealed that it occurred from the negative perception of discriminatory attitudes within the system, attitudes of some lecturers towards their job and the increase in self-doubt. Government and university management made it hard to perform professional roles. The findings also revealed that working with limited resources increased self-doubt and moral guilt resulting in self and affective disconnection. Most participants reported that the government and institutional lack of empathy towards the plight of the lecturers would continue to build and enhance affective disconnection amongst the lecturers and other members of university. Regardless of affective disconnection, most of the participants identified professional delinquency as an outcome of negative emotions.

5.6.2.3   Professional delinquency

Most of the participants revealed that professional delinquency was caused by negative emotions. Most of the participants provided a wide variety of information during the semi-structured interviews with regard to the way professional delinquency manifested within the institutions. Some of the participants surprisingly mentioned that government and institutional lack of empathy towards the plight of the lecturers promoted professional delinquency. Most of the participants mentioned that professional delinquency increased nonconformity, wrongdoing

and negligence of roles and responsibility such as absence from lectures. A participant Benin commented on professional delinquency amongst lecturers in tertiary institutions:

> *I remember some students reported to me that a lecturer comes one day in a semester to teach two syllabuses and go away.*

Another participant Bally went further, saying that professional delinquent lecturers were further characterised with lack of commitment to professional assigned roles:

> *I have been around; I have seen what universities are and what they are supposed to be. Comparatively we are still very low… delinquency among the younger staff is very high, there is no commitment any longer. Once the old generation phases out, one begins to wonder what will become of Nigerian universities, so I am not very optimistic that the quality of performance can be maintained. Now there is in short a very drastic change particularly to money but in creating a working culture that makes people feel they have something to put into the system. The younger people are not doing it at all; they are just there so my impression is that we need a lot of improvement in the university system.*

Another participant Medina commented on professional delinquency:

> *Some lecturers are not just. Some used to be active but now they hardly come to work. They come once in a while.*

The analysis of data on professional delinquency revealed that the historical nature of the challenges and neglect had altered the attitude of some lecturers making them less committed to their job role. The findings also revealed that working with limited resources forced some lecturers to modify their attitude negatively, culminating in professional delinquency. Most participants revealed that the experience of challenges forced some lecturers to modify their attitude in a negative manner causing professional delinquency. As a final point, professional delinquency moved attention to the intense emotions lecturers experienced and their desire for solution. This study also highlighted that professional delinquency put intense pressure on committed lecturers leading to deterioration in relationships in spite of professional delinquency, most of the participants identified emotional history intrusion as outcome of negative emotions.

5.6.2.4　Emotional history intrusion

Emotional history is derived from the merging of emotions and history. According to Coetzee and Jansen (2007:12):

> *"An emotion is an energy in motion (e-motion=emotion). Emotion is what you do with the feelings you have. A feeling is simply a thought one has, whereas an emotion is an eruption, an expression of that thought in a particular way. Emotion makes the thought real by putting it into action."*

The concept of history defines the "knowledge of the way people lived and acted" (Anyanwu, 1991:23) that left an indelible impression in the lives of individuals or groups. Hence, emotional history is the record of emotional events with significant mark resulting from interactions, relationship and emotional experiences from other activities on emotional brain. History ensures these significant emotional events are stored in emotional brain, in order to reproduce it in future to motivate action. The fundamental of emotional history is to record and store the results of interaction, relationships and other activities with emotional significance in emotional brain and reproduce the stored information for actions. Reproduction of stored information is from the viewpoint of avoidance of repeated experiences or ways to relate with the actors in the events that created the emotional history in the first place.

Emotional history is conceptualised from the perspective of its ability to encourage or discourage the application of emotional intelligence in daily life. The decision to combine emotions with history focused mostly on the participants' comment on inability to forget the past events that caused them pains in professional environment. This revealed that past event with emotional significant could disrupt application of emotional intelligence depending on the extent of emotional knowledge and practice. The focus of scholars on emotion and history has been neglected in the search for better ways to encourage living emotionally intelligent daily life. It is important to point out that emotional history should not be confused with history of emotions (origins of emotions) (Munslow, 2001; Evan 2001). Emotional history must be understood in the context of storage of significant lived experiences in the emotional brain. This agrees with the findings of Goleman (2004) also Nelson and Low (2011) that events with indelible impression are of the greatest value to the individual and very difficult to forget. Emotional history could be pleasant or unpleasant, and however, its recollection has the ability to create emotional happiness or unhappiness.

Pleasant emotional history refers to storing of events that bring joy to the individual in the emotional brain and using the information to relate well in future. Unpleasant emotional history refers to storing of events with painful experiences in the emotional brain and using the

information to determine pattern of relationships, interaction and communication once the actors in the creation of the unpleasant experiences are identified. Neutral emotional history as derived from the refers to lack of information on the emotional brain regarding an individual because, either, it is first meeting or in previous meeting actual interaction to promote emotional recording did not take place.

A participant Nelly commented on emotional history amongst lecturers in tertiary institution:

> *I suffered for years applying in this institution, I was trained, and I saw people from other Faculties being employed in my own department and I got better grade than them. Eventually, I got employed but I can never forget that experience.*

The view of Nelly was supported with the comment of Edo:

> *After my graduation, it took years before I got employment in this department… Imagine the people I graduated the same year with but from different Faculty got employed in my department. It pained me.*

The findings also revealed that contributing to Faculty or departmental meetings as minor and major disagreement in these meetings led to outright hatred and an emotional history. This is evident in the comment of Baron:

> *Then there are some either you get on because you are working together or you have conflict at say departmental meetings or the way you respond when people raise issues in a meeting can make people fall apart.*

The Sandra identified the implications because individual lecturers who were rejected would react overtly or covertly:

> *Discrimination is not good. It is blurring the success of the university, tasking the qualified academic staff and creating generational hatred.*

This made Gee to further identify the implications and linked it with an emotional history such as a lack of forgiveness:

> *It is affecting the kind of relationships in the institution; we don't like each other, selective employment, demeaning politicking and outright show of hatred is common. Most departments are barely functioning because of hatred and lack of forgiveness.*

However, some participants identified that attitudes that created and caused an emotional history made the system difficult to handle. This is evident in the comment of Joshie:

> *These kind of things cripple the system.*

This was reinforced by Nadia who said:

> *Some of us are not happy, it is demoralising.*

Notwithstanding, the use of spiritual and emotional resilience, most participants reported that the emotional history interrupted their effort to apply intelligence when controlling emotions.

The analysis of data revealed that the historical nature of the challenges and neglect had altered the attitude of some lecturers making them less committed to their job role. The findings also revealed that working with limited resources had forced some lecturers to modify their attitude negatively resulting in professional delinquency. As a final point, professional delinquency moved attention of the lecturer to other activities resulting in conflict with the committed lecturer. The intense pressure added from these experiences impacted on behaviour altering and deteriorating relationships. Most of the participants reported that the lecturer that could not cope, forgot and forgave but the stored information sometimes interfered. Another important part was that the findings of this study reveal that emotional history was created and enhanced by discriminatory attitudes, feelings of exploitation, minor and major disagreement in faculty and departmental meetings, false perception of an individual leading to mistreatment of such individuals or groups. The findings revealed that discriminatory attitudes promoted an emotional history, because of emotional pains associated with such attitude which was difficult to forget.

5.7   DATA INTERPRETATION

The interpretation of data involves constructing meaning from the analysed data to draw evidence, establish relationships with existing literature and present salient points resulting from the empirical study (Kathleen & Goldfeder, 2002; Pawson, Wong & Owen, 2011; Creswell, 2012). The essence of constructing meaning from the analysed data is to identify the possible answers to the research question in order to find solutions for the problem under study and disseminate the information (Maree, 2012; Creswell, 2012). Elliott and Timulak (2005) elaborate by saying that the qualitative data interpretation helps to reveal motivating and stimulating findings that bring valuable and usable results to ensure objective solutions.

In this study, the interpretation of data enabled the researcher to reflect and construct deeper meaning that would shape the findings of this study, answer research questions and make objective recommendations. The data interpretation also helped in examination of the research findings to establish the relationships with existing literature or contrast the findings in some existing literature. The data interpretation helped to answer research questions, contribute to existing knowledge, and identify limitations and newer areas for further research (Elliott & Timulak, 2005).

To achieve the benefits of data interpretation Goleman's framework for emotional competence was used to order the interpretation and discuss key findings. Goleman (1998b:24) defines emotional competence as "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work". The emotional competences have undergone changes, modification and mergence since its inception in 1998 as a result of series of researchers revealing newer knowledge and better insight (Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee, 2000). Hence, this study used the year 2000's improved versions of Goleman's framework for emotional competences comprising of four domains such as self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000). The emotional competences have been tested in many workplaces in enhancing workers potentials for the achievement of professional and personal success (Goleman, 2011). The success of the emotional competences lies in its learnable character which provides each lecturer the opportunity to master and translate knowledge into job success with managed emotions (Goleman, 1998). The success in application is from the fact that mastering basic abilities within a domain leads to success in the main domain, implying that learning and mastering the skill of emotional self-awareness translates to success in practising self-awareness (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000). The domains of the emotional competences are grouped into two major clusters viz.: recognition and regulation as shown in Figure 5.3 below.
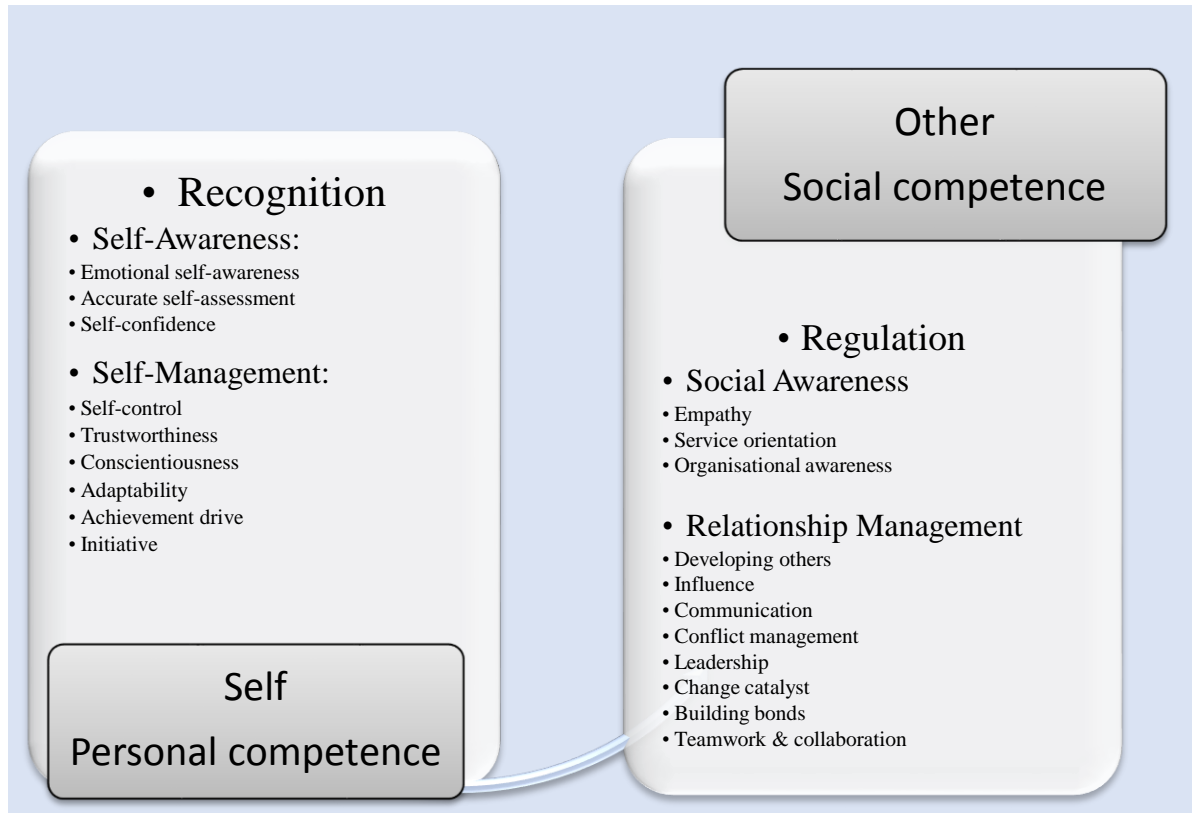
Figure 5.3: Showing Goleman's framework of emotional competences (Goleman 2004)

Goleman's framework of emotional competence as shown in Figure 5.3 comprises two modes such as personal competence for recognising personal emotions and social competences for regulating others emotions. The major domains for personal competences are self-awareness and self-management. The social competences are social awareness and relationship-management. The clusters in Figure 5.3 have been extensively discussed in Chapter 3 of this study (see 3.5; also 3.5.1). It is important to mention that Goleman's framework for emotional competence is the first in the mixed model of emotional intelligence to be used to determine workers' potential to learn and master the use of the skills to achieve success. The mixed model of emotional intelligence has been widely accepted by researchers as learnable (Nelson & Low, 2011), which encourages practical application to everyday life (Blake, Smeyers, Smith & Standish et al., 2008; also Jack Mayer; 2012). The learnable nature and the mastering to apply to everyday life is one of the major motivations for the use of Goleman's emotional competence. This is further supported by researches done in the field, Hein (2006) provides evidence that the human race needs more than intellectual abilities to achieve success.

Although Goleman's emotional competence framework has been critiqued for incorporating many cognitive features that are unrelated theoretically and scientifically, it is known for recognising psychological abilities, as well as generalisations (Salovey & Caruso; 2000; Mayer et al, 2000; McCrae 2000 also Prins, Niekerk & Weyers, 2011). The concept of "mixed" defines: consisting or made up of a variety of different entities. This study sees the beauty of Goleman's emotional competence in consisting of elements that are not of the same kind or nature which provide the individual the opportunity to tap into this uniqueness to dig deeper into the perspectives of lecturers to understand their experiences of challenges.

Notwithstanding, the critique raised to the Goleman framework of emotional competences (see 3.5.6) the researcher aimed at ensuring that the uniqueness of the emotional competence was tapped into in this study and there was a favourable response and credible result. The researcher aligned Goleman's framework for emotional competences with core tenets of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory, to further identify, highlight and merge the points of coming together and differing. The researcher adapted Dochy's (2011) guideline for building training and development programmes with recent theories to suit the context of this study. She set the following questions in search for relevance for using Goleman's framework to study lecturers within Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological system:

- What was the fundamental focus of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory (progress)?

- What kind of progress are the major focuses (lecturers and institution)?

- What are the progress needs (funding, working resources, reciprocal interaction as well as relationship)?

- What are the perceived key elements for driving (the progress needs, warmness and reciprocal interaction)?

- Can emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management ensure that progress is achieved and sustained; within the Bronfenbrenner's (1979) five systems namely: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem?

The search for relevance with Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological system and Goleman framework's for emotional intelligence aims at interpreting the data in ways that create dialogue to enable the two concepts that work cooperatively to provide deeper knowledge on the way lecturers use emotional intelligence to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges.

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory
&
Goleman's framework for emotional intelligence

Fundamental focuses:

1. System interaction and relationship causes progress

2. Reciprocal relationship is important for the progess to occur

3. Institutional warmness is vital for reciprocal relationship

4. System progress fosters individual progress

Progress focus:

1. System progress fosters individual progress

2. Lecturers' progress fosters system progress

Progress needs focuses:

1. Institution.

2. Lecturers' professional progress

3. Lecturers' personal progress

4. Family progress

5. Community/ societal progress

Progress process focuses:

Managing challenges with emotional intelligence:

1. Self- awareness

2. Self-management

3. Social awareness

4. Relationship management

Figure 5.4:   Showing the relevance of the Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1979)

Having presented the fundamental elements of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory and Goleman's framework for emotional competences to establish their relevance to this study, I went to interpret the key findings of emotional intelligence within Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1979). With regard to Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, the findings of this study provide evidence that professional, academic and institutional challenges are historically-oriented (see 2.4.2: Table 2:1). The chronosystem revealed the chronology of the trade union called for strikes and reason behind the strikes (Table 2.1) which negatively increased lecturers' distrust of the federal government's pragmatic readiness to attend to challenges facing tertiary education.

The challenges were further enhanced by the government's consistent breaking of mutual agreement signed with the trade unions causing the enthronement of culture of strikes and norms of the trade unions (see Table 2.1). The supremacy of trade unions and takeover of the culture of strikes made the National University Commission (2013) state that strikes are negative with huge negative implications for the institutions and the lecturers such as disruption of academic calendars, increase in the workload and it exposes the lecturer to emotional pressure.

This aligns with the finding of Onyeonoru (2001) that lecturers suffer emotional and physical loss which is evident in the emotional and physical trauma undergone by the families of lecturers that were sacked at the University of Ilorin for engaging in strikes. Egbochuku (2012) continues further saying that there is an increase in emotional paralysis, physical helplessness and psychological vulnerability reflected in obvious traumatic behaviour. Shaw and Ward (2014) go further to state that systems are engulfed with a culture of acceptance and silence because people think challenges are normal; expose it members to mental health issues. Normalisation of challenges is subject to coping capacity of individual lecturers and facilities available to enhance the abilities.

A careful examination of the ecosystemic environment in which the lecturers function, revealed that challenges frustrated the lecturers, delayed authentic progress and exposed the weakness of the institutions such as financial problems, managerial problems and a lack of modern technological facilities for teaching and research (see 2.10). The strength of the participating universities lay in its capacity to meet both financial and working resources needed of the lecturers (see 2.9.3.5). The faculty, department and lecturers did not function properly with limited resources as reflected in the ecosystemic environment of the lecturers (see 2.9.3.6).

Further examination of the ecosystemic environment of the lecturers revealed that working with limited resources revealed that a lack of funds impacted on the managerial style creating problems in employment of lecturers to match the ration of enrolled students, lack of space for lecturers' offices and performance of other activities for lecturers (see 2.10). These challenges overburdened the lecturers' emotions, altering their perception; attitude and behaviour (see 2.4.1). The change in behaviour had been linked to low quality in services delivery and productivity in tertiary education (see 2.4; 2.6; 2.8.1.2). Behavioural modification indicated the intensity of experienced emotions in the microsystem. The key factors driving the change in behaviour were carefully examined and arranged within the domains of Goleman's emotional intelligence (see Figure 5.3). Goleman (2004) notes that identifying and labelling emotional competences help in identifying problem areas to ensure that learning was properly directed. The findings were placed in themes and categories as derived from the narratives of the participants of this study. The first line of the table comprised the themes and the categories. Under the themes there are four domains of Goleman's emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship-management (see 3.2). On the right side of the table categories appear that emerged for each of the four domains. The themes and categories are presented and discussed subsequently.

Table 5.4: **Findings according to Goleman's framework for emotional competences**

Themes	Categories
Self-Awareness	Emotional self-awareness Emotional assessment Emotional trend awareness Emotional history awareness
Self-management	Emotional self-management Procrastination management Emotional history management Family management
Social awareness	Social, emotional management Social assertiveness People management Teamwork management Empathy
Relationship management	Selective relationship Aggressive communication Emotional history Self-disconnection

Table for Domain one: Self-awareness

DOMAIN ONE
SELF-AWARENESS

CATEGORIES

❖ Emotional self-awareness
❖ Emotional assessment
❖ Emotional trend awareness
❖ Emotional history awareness

5.7.1   SELF-AWARENESS

Self-awareness is the name given to one of Goleman's emotional competences and it is the first in the competence and regarded as the keystone of emotional intelligence (Goleman 1998a:46) because self-awareness provides honest information on individual emotions which forms that basis for subsequent action (see 3.5.1). Self-awareness provides deeper information about the lecturers' personal insight into the challenges (see 1.9.1; 3.2.1), bringing to light personal character, emotions, motives and desires that could help to strengthen or mar coping with

In character, self-awareness highlights the lecturer's available personal strength which was needed for handling the perceived challenges (see 3.2.5; 3.5.1.2). In emotions, self-awareness highlights the lecturers' emotions and the particular challenge creating the emotions (see 3.5.1.1; 3.5.1.2). In motives, the emotional assessment enables the lecturer to gain deeper insight into the reason why she could or could not handle the challenge (see 3.3.1; 3.3.3; 3.3.4). In this study, self-awareness, according to the narratives of the participants provides insight on both physical, biological (experience of pain due to striving with challenges) and emotional pain that could hinder coping with emotional intelligence.

Consequently, careful examination of data revealed that lecturers were self-aware of the challenges and sources of the challenges (see 2.5.1; Table 2.1; 2.7.1; 2.7.1.1, 2.7.1.2; 2.7.1.3), though some lecturers mentioned that they trivialised such information (see Table 5.3: theme 1; 2.9.3.2). Lecturers were self-aware of the government that lacked: pragmatic readiness to intervene and curb the plight of lecturers and tertiary education (see Table 2.1; 2.9.3.2); managerial style that lacked empathy and appreciation and provided working resources only during accreditation (see 2.9.3.1; 5.4.3.2).

Lecturers were personally aware of the impact of the perceived challenges on performance of their jobs, quality of service delivery and productivity in education (see 2.9.3.5; 2.9.3.6). Lecturers were also personally aware that the interaction of the government, university management and trade union could be very complex and made decisions that a lack pragmatic readiness to act on the part of the government (see 2.1). Lecturers were aware of ecosystemic emotions and extreme differences and difficulties in handling them without life skills, hence the use of diverse coping strategies.

These findings further highlight the importance of faculty and department in diversifying and integrating programmes such as emotional intelligence to enable lecturers to cushion the effects of managerial style. It should also help institutions to build lecturers' awareness in the use of self-awareness information to curb emotions that led to indecisiveness in navigating challenges within the microsystem. The findings therefore indicate that the chronosystem developed in the course of time, and modified and magnified the challenges. The macrosystem, exosystem and the microsystem were characterised with low pragmatic readiness to act (see 2.5.1; 2.6; 2.7; 5.4.3.4), which opens the lecturers to vulnerability and emotional exploitation (see 5.6; 5.6.2). This raises the concern about the extent to which lecturers possess emotional self-awareness, emotional assessment, emotional trend-awareness and emotional history-awareness for enhanced information to ensure coping.

5.7.1.1 Emotional-self-awareness

Emotional self-awareness defines the skills to identify personal emotions and the interferences with interaction and relationship within the system. Emotional self-awareness revealed that most participants were aware of the experienced emotions resulting from the challenges. Most of the participants mentioned that they could successfully identify and label felt emotions but many reported that they failed to use the information because of a lack of emotional intelligence skills. Some participants mentioned that they could have reacted in an emotionally intelligent way, if only they knew what it entailed and were aware of ways to apply it (see 5.6.2.5).

The fact resulting from these findings is that lecturers were able to discern emotion that depicted helplessness towards handling the challenges with information derived from emotional self-awareness (see 5.6.2.1; 5.6.2.2; 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4). This low application of emotional information deters the use of emotional intelligence to handle challenges (see 5.6.2.4). Although, this study identified poor application of emotional information, the findings revealed that it was because of diverse reasons; some participants identified felt emotions and made an effort to handle it; some adopted the avoidance strategy by trying to create alternative emotions and some did not know ways to handle the emotions because their weakness overpowers their strength. The findings further revealed that some lecturers had an interest in acquisition of emotional intelligence competences. The findings highlight the need for emotional intelligence to ensure lecturers' resilience and develop, strengthen and enhance their competence to help in the use of emotional knowledge of strength and weakness to handle challenges.

5.7.1.2 Emotional assessment

Emotional assessment defines the skills to identify personal strengths and weaknesses correctly so as to translate into better interaction and relationship within the system and increase performance (Goleman, 2001). The findings of this study reveal that most participants identified the fact that they had the skill to assess personal emotions (see 5.6). Most participants were aware of the nature and quality of the experienced emotions as well as emotional ability to interrupt personal function (see 5.6.1.1; 5.6.1.2; 5.6.1.3). Although, some of the participants were able to regulate the emotional interference in interaction and relationships within the system (see 5.6.2.1; 5.6.2.2; 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4); but some lecturers took positive action (see 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4). Some, however, acted indifferently (see 5.6.2.5). Based on these findings, it is obvious that lecturers' ability to use emotional strength and weakness to advance job success had remained low and unclear. This is evident in the comment of some participants but a significant comment was from Sandra who stated: "*It is very difficult to get over some feelings.*" This persistent low usage of emotional knowledge revealed a weak link between emotional knowledge and pragmatic application and it further reveals the need for strengthening and enhancing the emotional competence of lecturers.

5.7.1.3 Emotional trend awareness

Emotional trend awareness is the name given to an emerging component of emotional competence in this study. According to the findings of this study, emotional trend awareness was linked with the ability to identify the general direction in which personal emotions developed and changed to ensure pragmatic application of emotional knowledge (see 5.5.2.2). The findings of this study further revealed that awareness of emotional trends helped pin down the changes in emotions and the development of such emotional changes, specifically negative emotions before it took over behaviour and disrupted interactions required to achieve success (see 5.6). Some participants further revealed that some lecturers lacked the ability to pin down changes and trends of such emotional change. This was evident in the comment of Edo:

> *Some lecturers don't know how to control their emotions because they fail to listen to themselves. You see, emotions develop gradually before they overpower you.*

Other participants reported that personal conversations started calmly and could suddenly result in emotional outbursts for no reason. However, some participants mentioned that they had been able to pin down emotional changes and tendency of such changes. One of the significant comments was from Nelly:

> *Over the years, I know what gets me upset and how I feel before I get really upset.*

Based on the findings, emotional trend awareness translates into better emotional knowledge and control for better handling of challenges. It therefore implies that in emotional trend awareness attention should be given to emotions to observe the changes, causes of the changes such as tone of voice, body language, communication processes and choice of words. These variables might be the most common trigger for emotional changes and reaction. This was evident in the comment of one of the participants who said: "S*ome colleagues…. react violently."* This indicates emotional trend awareness was a predictor of emotional control as revealed in this study.

5.7.1.4 Emotional history awareness

Emotional history awareness is the name given to the emerging component of emotional competence in this study. According to the findings of this study, emotional history awareness is the ability to explore the emotional mind to identify and understand the past event influencing present behaviour. The findings of this revealed that engaging in emotional history awareness helped in identification of hidden joys or pains in the emotional brain. Lecturers who engaged in emotional trend awareness understood the information stored in the emotional mind, which caused and impact on personal emotions. The findings also reveal that engaging in emotional

history awareness led to deeper insight that built patience and realistic composure in challenging moments. The deeper insight was about what happened in the past (see 5.4.3.3; 5.6.2.3). This indicates the ability of emotional history to influence and alter behaviour and over time become part of institutional relationship culture for interaction and relationship. Emotional history could help individuals to achieve it, because it provided selective information and individuals with poor emotional intelligence used it to justify their behaviour and to build an avoidance strategy in relating with certain colleagues thereby shaping relationship within the microsystem negatively.

Some lecturers used emotional history to decide, disrupt and disorganise the culture of relationship within the microsystem. Decisions involved making choices on who to relate with and extent of the relationships. Disruptiveness stemmed from the fact that functional relationships required for effective and effective interaction to produce quality in service and productivity in education was altered leading to affective disconnection or selective relationship. Disorganisation resulted from the fact that both affective disconnection and selective relationship impacted on productivity lowering the rating of the institution and delaying the progress of lecturers and the system. Given the ability of emotional history to alter behaviour, influence and disorganise relationship, institutional engagement of emotional intelligence could be the only to train lecturers to master ways to forgive, forget and relate within the system. This finding further indicates that self-management could contribute to the way emotional history information is understood, interpreted and harnessed for effective application. It is important to note that emotional history was not considered in the literature of this study, its inclusion is because of the consistent reference to the past events that were imprinted on their minds and influenced their behaviour.

Table for Domain Two: Self-management

**DOMAIN: TWO
SELF-MANAGEMENT**

CATEGORIES

❖ Emotional self-management
❖ Procrastination management
❖ Emotional history management
❖ Family management

5.7.2 SELF-MANAGEMENT

Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory stipulates that human interaction and relationships that are warm and cordial promote individual and institutional growth (see 2.3; 2.4). Self-management builds human capacity that ensures proper interaction within the system (see 3.5.2). Moreover, Goleman's emotional intelligence theory of performance stipulates that self-awareness provides the individual with information that enhances self-management, which translates into better performance (see 3.5.1). The findings of this study reveal that lecturers that self-managed facilitated calmness and calculative reasoning for quality decision on ways to handle challenges (see 3.2.2.3). The findings of this study reveal that self-management was expected to help lecturers adapt, change or sustain themselves in handling challenges within the system; hence, some participants reported that experience of positive emotions resulted from students' performance, job promotion and research publication in a desire journal. This helped them to self-manage weaknesses and emotions which revealed that they were real emotions (see 5.6.1). The participants who experienced negative emotions experienced problems with self-management causing cognitive frustration, affective disconnection, professional delinquency and emotional history intrusion, which disrupted relationships and interactional processes (see 5.6.2.).

Consequently, lecturers who were able to self-manage make balanced decisions that helped shape the institutional environment constructively through building emotional intelligence and relationships directly or indirectly (see 3.3.4). Self-management was important to adapt, sustain, and change culture of selective relationships or affective disconnection through proper understanding and control of emotional self-management, procrastination management, emotional history management and family management.

5.7.2.1 Emotional self-management

Emotional self-management is the ability to handle challenges as they emerge. Managing personal emotions as reported by the participants of this study depended on the challenge (see Table 5.3, theme 1), person involved (see 5.7.1.4) and the desired outcome for engaging in self-management (see 3.2.4; 3.2.5; 3.2.6). Empirical evidence indicates that some lecturers could engage in emotional self-management, when they understood the emotional intelligence competences, impact on thoughts and logical reasoning (see 3.3.2; 3.3.3; 3.3.4; 5.6.2). The findings of this study also reveal that some lecturers engaged emotional self-management as tool for handling challenges when they were emotional (see 3.5.2.2). The lecturers who lacked knowledge of the concept of emotional intelligence could unknowingly engage in emotional self-management in handling challenges (see 5.5.2.1; 5.5.2.2). There are lecturers that engage in emotional self-management through the support of trade unions by indirectly exhibiting emotional intelligence competences of optimism in support of trade union quests for better tertiary education (see Table 2.1; 5.5.1.1). Some lecturers mentioned that years of experience equipped them with skills to self-manage (see 5.5.2.2). The findings reveal that some lecturers lacked the ability to engage in emotional self-management which resulted in diverse unethical behaviour such as affective disconnection and professional delinquency (see 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4).

On the other hand, most participants mentioned that positive emotional experience increased their ability to self-manage (see 5.6.1, 5.6.1.1; 5.6.1.2; 5.6.1.3). While some participants mentioned that negative emotional experiences lowered their ability to self-manage, because it increased self-doubt leading to negative behavioural change (see 5.6.2). This finding exposes the differences in emotional knowledge, motives and application of derived emotional knowledge to handle challenges. This indicates the need for education and training to enable lecturers' applied competences that were congruent with emotional intelligence for professional and personal success.

5.7.2.2 Procrastination management

Procrastination is a name given to consistent postponement of role performance and taking needed action to handle challenges by participants in this study (see 5.4.3.2). Procrastination is one of the common factors that increases workload through lack of planning and plan without determination to stick to plans. The lack of planning of activities is a driver of procrastination and planning without the will power to stick to planned activities leads to confusion. Striving without planning causes anxiety and frustration. The finding of this study revealed that it was not every lecturer that had the ability to plan and follow through with the plan until evidence-based results were achieved. Most participants revealed that most lecturers engaged in procrastination because of attending to additional roles (see 2.9.3.5) unclassified roles (see

5.4.3.2) and a lack of teaching resources (see 2.9.1.1; 5.4.1.2). Lecturers that faced these challenges were more likely to experience challenges to increase the workload (see 2.9.3.5) and emotions of anxiety and frustration giving rise to consistent visits to health centres (see 5.6; 5.5.2.2). This raised the concern about the extent the university provided facilities that reduced anxiety and frustration. This means that the frequency to visit health care providers could result in lecturers' performing poorly and a lowered quality of service delivery furthering poor productivity in education. However, educating and training lecturers with emotional intelligence could improve the capacity to make appropriate decisions and follow through irrespective of distraction and additional roles.

5.7.2.3   Emotional history management

Emotional history management consists of putting together information derived from all the components of emotional history to formulate strategic pragmatic plans to curb emotional history intrusion (see Figure 5.1; 5.6.2.1, 5.6.2.2, 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4.). Emotional history management therefore entails examination and organisation of information derived from emotional history awareness and emotional trend awareness, analysing and observing the trends of intrusion so as to apply pragmatic readiness to regulate the emotional history intrusion (see 5.7.1.1; 5.7.1.3; 5.7.1.4). The management of emotional history entails the merging of derived information to formulate strategic approaches to curb emotional history intrusion to ensure professional and personal success. This finding was not considered in the literature in Chapter 3; however, its inclusion was as a result of the consistent mention of past events associated with painful emotions by the participants that necessitated the inclusion. This raised the concern not only for self-belief of lecturers concerning forgiveness and forgetting but also the need to educate lecturers on the use of emotional history information to navigate challenges in an emotionally intelligent way.

5.7.2.4   Family management

Family management according to the findings this study involved organising and handling job roles in ways that limited it from affecting family roles. This study also recognised that the most lecturers battled with self-management, particularly in the area of managing personal emotions, time, and striking a balance with managing family and work activities. This aligns with the finding of Goleman (2004) and also Nelson and Low (2011) that change orientation was vital in self-management, which in turn improved family management. The findings suggest that both female and male lecturers across the three universities mentioned that challenges impacted on their ability to interact and relate properly with the immediate and extended family (see 2.9.3.5; 2.9.3.6). The findings consistently show that lecturers with young children were highly affected, while those with matured children mentioned they went through the same experience.

Thus, most lecturers experienced partial disconnection with the children at the stage that interaction and activities fostered authentic growth. This indicates that challenges hindered most participating lecturers from engaging their children in developmental activities at the earliest stage of growth, a fact which Bronfenbrenner (1979) alludes to for proper support, care and development. These findings revealed that family management should be included in the content of emotional intelligence because it should promote psychological, emotional and social well-being (Brown & Schutte, 2006; Salovey & Grewal 2005; Nelson & Low, 2011) for the child, parents and family.

Table for Domain Three: Social awareness

DOMAIN: THREE
SOCIAL AWARENESS

CATEGORIES

- ❖ Social, emotional management
- ❖ Social assertiveness
- ❖ People management
- ❖ Teamwork management
- ❖ Empathy

5.7.3   SOCIAL AWARENESS

Social awareness is relatively one of Goleman's emotional competences and was important in promoting social emotional intelligence in an institutional environment. Social awareness is valuable to the institutional environment, because it leads to the understanding of social-emotional cues within the system. Institutions that are socially aware of the emotional cues of its members experience reduced an academic war (see Table 2.1) and experience increased loyalty of its members instead of loyalty to trade unions (see 5.4.3.4; 5.5.1.1). Social awareness in this study is best understood when linked with the context of Bronfenbrenner's (1997) systems, which state that in any social environment, events and challenges that are pervasive disrupt individual and system development. Individual lecturer growth is underpinned by the fact that the professional contribution drives the quality of service that increases productivity for institutional growth. This means that lecturers who make professional progress automatically increases institutional progress (see 2.7.1.4).

Social awareness provides information that promotes and advances an emotional, literate environment to ensure consistent progress for both the lecturer and the individual. Hence, a lack

of social awareness promotes the social environment characterised by a culture of strikes and conflicts furthered social disruption, and emotional pressures. Again increased social-awareness would increase focus on listening and doing skills of government and university management. At the university level, there was a need for university management to acquire education and training on emotional intelligence. The focus of the education and training should be on understanding social emotional clues for preventing and handling challenges. Social-awareness of this study comprises social-emotional management, people management, social assertiveness, teamwork management and empathy. Each component is presented and discourse in the next section.

5.7.3.1   Social-emotional management

Social-emotional management is the name given to one of the emerging components of emotional competence in this study. Social-emotional management entails understanding the emotional cues of a social group and using the information to handle the challenges within the group as deduced from the narratives of the participants (5.4.3.1, 5.4.3.2, 5.4.3.3 and 5.4.3.4). The findings on social-emotional management revealed that challenges on the institutional environment had an impact on lecturers creating mixed emotions. Some of the participants consistently mentioned more negative emotions than positive emotions, indicating that the emotional impact was observable physically. Most participants reported that lecturers described the social environment as characterised with lecturers that felt intense emotions and lecturers that lacked emotional feelings because of their coping strategies (see 5.6.2). The findings reveal that the social environment of the universities was characterised by having two types of lecturers, viz.: committed lecturers and uncommitted lecturers (see 5.6.2.1.). The committed lecturers experienced intense emotions, while the uncommitted lecturers did not experience emotions (see 5.6.2.). Most of the participants mentioned that establishment of centre for emotional intelligence should enable the lecturers cope because it would consistently formulate and implement emotional intelligence programmes (see 5.4.3.4). Social group emotional cues identify problem areas that need to be addressed (Segal & Smith, 2013) by the centre for emotional intelligence to develop learning, mastering and application to reality, to enhance coping competences of lecturers in order to reduce emotional pressure leading to vulnerability to mental well-being concerns (see 5.6.2).

Vulnerability to mental health manifests in increased frequency of more lecturers to health centres or teaching hospitals for high blood pressure or heart related diseases (see 2.8.1). These health conditions have become subtle epidemics for the lecturers who are overwhelmed by a culture of acceptance and silence (see 2.8.1). Most participants perceived the neglect of lecturers' condition as appalling because of the increase in cognitive frustration, affective

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disconnection; professional delinquency and emotional history development (see 5.6.2). These variables further exposed the lecturers to emotional suppression to prevent colleagues from knowing personal challenges.

5.7.3.2   Social assertiveness

Social assertiveness is the name given to one of the emerging components of emotional competence in this study. Social assertiveness is considered as honest and emotional thoughts expressed in ways that communicate respect to the other people in the social group (see 2.10). Findings on social assertiveness revealed that honest expression of personal opinion was often detested by some lecturers. Most of the participants reported that the social assertiveness was barely tolerated from junior lecturers. Some of the participants consistently mentioned junior lecturers that were socially assertive created enmity for themselves, irrespective of the high level of honesty expressed in such communication. Most participants reported that lecturers described faculty and departmental meetings as the major environment that detested social assertiveness (see 5.4.3.3; 5.5.2.2), particularly for lecturers without doctoral degrees, because it was viewed as disrespectful to senior colleagues. Some participants reported that social assertiveness was honest emotional and thought expression which could be considered disrespectful towards the other people in the social group (see 5.6.2.5). Most participants of this study reported that challenges encouraged most lecturers to stand up for their rights through honest expression of emotions with the trade union. The trade unions and few individuals remained socially assertive irrespective of the consequences (see Table 2.1.; 5.4.3.4). The lecturers irrespective of position depended on the social assertiveness of the trade union to make professional progress.

The trade unions' assertiveness over the years was contributing to the improvement of tertiary education and betterment of lecturers (see Table 2.1). The trade unions was perceived as sources of group coping by lecturers, because they stood up consistently to speak up for lecturers. The trade union's assertiveness had lowered lecturers' obedience to the government and university management thereby positioning the trade union as significant authority to be respected and listened to. The trade union had not allowed the government to cajole them into keeping calm when there was failure in the implementation of signed agreement with (see 5.4.1) or in mistreatment of lecturers which was evident in consistent call for strike for reinstatement of dismissed lecturers at the University of Ilorin. This consistent academic war between the government and the trade union had made the trade union a force to reckon with the affairs of the lecturers and in the decision to offer or withdraw services irrespective of the instruction or threats of the government and university management. However, individual lecturers' social assertiveness is often made the rule in selective relationships and self-disconnection (see

5.7.5.1; 5.7.5.4), because they knew ways to make personal opinions, values and needs known without hurting the emotions of other people.

5.7.3.3   People management

People management is the name given to one of the emerging components of emotional competence in this study (5.4.3.3; 5.4.3.4; 5.5.1.1). People management is made more complex because of the lecturers' low regard of the university management for not making basic teaching and research resources available and high regard for the trade union for standing up for the betterment of the lecturers and tertiary education (see 2.4.2: Table 2.1). Most of the participants in this study mentioned that managerial style that enhanced the lack of teaching and research resources was associated with a lower regard of university management, because most participants mentioned that university management made basic resources available only during accreditation. Some participants saw the attitude of making basic resources available only during accreditation as a lack of empathy for the strivings of lecturers to teach with limited resources. Some participants pinpointed that this was not resulting from government failure to provide adequate funding but university management's inability to plan with available resources. This aligns with comments of Alusi and Medina that questioned the university management sources of funds used to acquire basic requirements during accreditation but could not raise the funds from the same sources to provide the prerequisites for teaching and research (see 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.4.3). Furthermore, some participants mentioned that this attitude which most university management had increased cognitive frustration the lecturers experienced leading to professional delinquency which the university management had not curbed. Unlike the committed lecturers, uncommitted lecturers engaged in professional delinquency (see 5.6.2.3) because of inability to cope so they needed emotional competence to learn and master, coping with emotional intelligence.

Some participants mentioned that discriminatory attitudes in recruitment of academic staff and job distribution promoted unpleasant emotional history; hence they wanted employment of people from diverse backgrounds to curb the impact of emotions resulting from inability to cope despite the application of diverse coping strategies (see 5.5). Apart from discriminatory attitudes, some participants mentioned a lack of coaching and mentoring of junior lecturers on academic writing and ways of coping with emotions because of the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges. Furthermore, some lecturers revealed that teaching was less valued in promotion policy thereby making ghost lecturers to be promoted ahead of lecturers committed to job roles, but without skills in time management to coordinate teaching, research and publication (see 5.4.1; 5.4.2.1). Most participants mentioned that absentee lecturers caused committed lecturers to be unhappy, because the committed lecturers were

always present culminating in overburdening due to additional tasks (Maree, 2010) and unclassified roles (see 5.4.2.2) furthering negative emotions (see 5.6.2). The narratives of some participants in this study revealed that there were three emerging types of lecturers' attitudes causing the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges and poor emotional competence. These types include committed lecturers ever-present and dedicated with pragmatic readiness to act; non-committed lecturers lacking the personal desire and pragmatic readiness and the ghost lecturers that were present once in a semester to teach a whole course module in a day but got promoted because of personal ability to write and publish. This implies that emotional competence skills were required to increase pragmatic readiness to act appropriately with emotional intelligence thereby increasing quality in service delivery and production in tertiary education, without emotional impact on lecturers.

The attitude of the university management and some lecturers reflected poor emotional intelligence due to a lack of emotional competences. University management in most institutions lacked emotional competence to handle both human and material resources. One participant Bally described the situation as "…*appalling, very bad! Well here it is a little bit different compared to other Nigerian universities.* This is making lecturers without emotional intelligence to react negatively (see 5.6.2.2; 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4). The literature further indicates that a lack of emotional intelligence leads to low performance and poor quality of products.

5.7.3.4 Teamwork management

Teamwork management is one of Goleman's components of emotional competence. Teamwork is part institutional means of achieving professional success and common goals because institutional functioning involves organisational structure that must collaborate to achieve set goals (see 2.8.3). The findings of this study reveal that teamwork was distorted because of professional challenges. This aligns with the findings of Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2012) that dysfunctionality in any unit interferes with the proper functioning of the whole system, because teamwork promotes the achievement of common goals. Based on this assumption teamwork management ought to provide good ground for the handling of challenges, however, most participants in this study mentioned that professional, academic and institutional challenges have emotional impact on the teamwork management and performance of lecturers in most tertiary education institutions. The challenges impact on relationships required to ensure appropriate functioning of the institution.

The impact of challenges on lecturers resulted in selective relationships, affective disconnection and self-disconnection which in turn impacted on teamwork functioning, management and performance. This was further made difficult with aggressive communication; emotional history and affective disconnection from active participants in institutional activities as evident

in the involvement of committed and ghost lecturers (see 5.7.4.3). This negates the findings of Cloud (2009) that one of the most important factors in professional life is the way an individual has been able to work cooperatively with others to achieve professional and personal success. Some of the participants mentioned that this distortion in relationships had a greater impact on lecturers' emotions, while some participants pinpointed emotional history as having greater a serious impact on teamwork dysfunctionality (see 5.7.5.3; 5.6.2.4), because of accumulated emotions from past painful interactions and relationships.

Emotional history altered the attitude of some of the participating lecturers making them highly uncooperative and difficult to handle and a lack of emotional competence had furthered the complexity of the attitude. A lack of emotional trend awareness, emotional history awareness and emotional history management increased the emotional history intrusion, sometimes leaving some lecturers helpless without an option than to act with emotional history information. Emotional intrusion impacted on many lecturers irrespective of the educational background, gender and position as found in this study. Although, emotional history distorted teamwork, some participants mentioned that teamwork management occurred with emotional intelligence leadership as evident in some participants (see 5.4.1; 5.4.3.2) who initiated strategies and generated internal revenue to acquire basic teaching and research resources to reduce the emotional experiences lecturers in the department went through in teaching with limited resources. It was further evident in some participants that collaborated with students to acquire needed teaching equipment (see 5.4.1.1; 5.4.1.2) to ensure experiments were carried out in practical classes to ensure quality products in education.

Despite the efforts of some lecturers with emotional intelligence, most participants pinpointed that emotional history management was required for teamwork to be effective and successful to be attained with less conflict and silent enmity. Some participants mentioned that teamwork management was highly influenced by emotional history and to build effective and efficient team group demands teaching and mastering emotional trend awareness, emotional history awareness, and emotional history management. In fact, most participants pinpointed curbing emotional history as the easiest way to ensure translation of emotional competence in pragmatic application to achieve successful teamwork management.

5.7.3.5 Empathy

Empathy is one of Goleman's components of emotional competence. Most participants of this study reported that empathy was lacking in most institutional environments. Most participants mentioned that most institutions did not prioritise display of empathy towards lecturers as the important goal in achieving higher job performance and increased productivity in the midst of working with limited resources.(see 2.4.2: Table 2.1). Most participants reported that the quality

of education was failing because most lecturers felt unappreciated, despite the use of personal resources to enhance teaching and learning. Empathy was made more difficult, because university management blamed the government instead of sources for resources to better the situations of the lecturers and tertiary education. Apart from sources for teaching and research resources, most of the participants in this study mentioned that the health scheme did not favour lecturers with large families thereby exclusively preferring lecturers with smaller families. This not only increased the challenges lecturers faced in financing ailment of their children but created feelings in the children of not being wanted by the society (see 3.5.3; 3.5.3.1; 3.5.3.4).

The findings further revealed that the health scheme model of caring and supporting of certain illnesses was bad because some lecturers were not aware that they would develop or contact such disease in life. Some of the participants attributed the exclusive nature of the health scheme to an increase in the death toll of the lecturers without financial capacity to fund such illness. Some participants attributed it to an increase in emotional experiences of most lecturers and the families, because of the pressure associated with coping with such illness without resources (see 5.6.2.1, 5.6.2.2, 5.6.2.3 and 5.6.2.4). Some participants revealed that a lack of empathy on the part of the lecturers turned most of them into business consultants because the fear that the present financial commitment of the university and health scheme might not favour as they aged in the profession and developed certain ailments. Some participants saw lack of empathy as the reason for engaging in professional delinquency by some lecturers which caused poor performance and poor quality of students furthering unemployment of graduate students which in turn increased societal problems. This aligns with the findings of Goleman (2005) that cognitive intelligence must merge with emotional intelligence to promote professional and personal success. Some participants pinpointed that this was resulting in poor relationships and interactional models within the system.

Finally, the literature further indicates that a lack of empathy indicated a lack of active attention to social emotional clues of the lecturers resulting in the government and university management's inability to identify professional and personal needs expressed through professional delinquency and relentless obedience to trade unions' instructions. The literature provides evidence that empathy ensured that decisions made concerning a social group, considered the thoughts and plights of lecturers irrespective of the social standards and assumed ability to adjustments to challenges (3.5. 3.1; 3.5. 3.2). Based on little empathy, there was a need to teach emotional competence of empathy to enable both the university management and the lecturers to develop, strengthen and enhance pragmatic readiness to apply and encourage the government to support the betterment of the tertiary education. Emotional intelligence became a pragmatic emotional competence to ensure there were understanding of professional,

academic and institutional challenges and influences on lecturers' professional and personal success which in turn impacted on quality tertiary education.

Table for Domain Four: Relationship Management

DOMAIN: FOUR
RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

CATEGORIES

❖ Selective relationship
❖ Aggressive communication
❖ Emotional history
❖ Self-disconnection

5.7.4   RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Bronfenbrenner (1979) posits that reciprocal relationships promote cordial interaction and communication required for the systems to function properly as indicated in his theoretical framework (see 1.8.2). The chronosystem revealed that the historical nature of the challenges altered experiences, perceptions, beliefs and behaviour of the lecturers and the trade union culture of strike and a culture of conflict. These influenced the process of relationships between the university management and lecturers and lecturers and colleagues. In the mesosystem, the interaction of systems could be conducive to experiences that could constructively shape the professional progress of lecturers (see 2.8; 2.8.1), however, the findings of this study reveal that the relationships between the government, university management and lecturers, lecturers and lecturers were not shaped for achievement of the goals of tertiary education (Table 2.1). This is because the formulation and implementation of the nation of educational progress was influenced by their actions, which had been marred by consistent disagreement and strikes (Table 2.1). Hence, the findings of this study revealed that despite application of various coping strategies, most lecturers still battled with diverse emotions, which were in turn impacting on their relationship process (see 2.5.1).

The microsystem of this study revealed that relationships between lecturers and the management were not close. The finding was in line with existing literature that managerial style of most institutions was altering and amicable relationships were required to increase quality of service delivery in the institutions (see Okebukola, 2004; Olagboye, 2004; Akpan, 2009). The empirical data disclosed that most institutions lacked empathy for the lecturers (see 5.6.2) resulting in affective disconnection, professional delinquency and emotional history

furthering deterioration of relationships (see Table 5.3: theme 3). Given that the lecturers were adults applying those communication skills that displayed cognisance of the fact that assertiveness with respect built a sense of belongingness, self-confidence, and self-determination to persist in working with limited resources, the lack of empathy was a topic of concern. This was one of the most important concerns of Medina, who pinpointed that that lecturers were committed to trade unions more than the university that employed them because of the respect the trade unions commanded (see 5.4.3.4; 5.6.2.3, 5.6.2.4). There was empirical evidence of emerging type of relationships within the microsystem, such as selective relationships, aggressive communication, emotional history and self-disconnection.

5.7.4.1 Selective relationships

Selective relationships were one of the emerging components of emotional competence in this study (see 5.5.1; 5.5.1.1). Most participants of this study reported that selective relationships were a devised survival strategy practiced by lecturers in most institutional environments (see see 5.6.2.3; 5.6.2.4; 5.6.2.5). Most participants in this study reported that selective relationships helped curbing cognitive frustration, a repeat of unpleasant past emotional experiences and unfriendly aggressive lecturers (see 5.7.5.3). Some participants in this study reported that selective relationship resulted from an increase in forming cliques according to attraction to avoid non-conformism. Most participants of this study mentioned that selective relationships were implicated in case of poor quality of service delivery and productivity in education, because it could alienate lecturers with potential. Most participants of this study reported that selective relationship made coping very effective with reduced emotional impact because cliques were always supportive. Some participants of this study reported that some clique increased rivalry, negative competition and protected members that engaged in professional delinquency (5.6.2.1, 5.6.2.2, 5.6.2.3 and 5.6.2.4).

Devoid of hesitation, the impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on lectures altered the relationship model thereby making it more clique-oriented that increased negative competition with anti-professional and personal success. Apart from forming cliques, most participants mentioned an increase in professional delinquency which the university management and trade made little effort to control, which in turn increased the emotionally experienced committed lecturers to face self-disconnection and an increased accumulation of emotional history (5.6.2.4). Some participants mentioned that silence of the university management and the trade union on the increase on professional delinquency increased selective relationships furthering disunity and low quality in service delivery (see 5.6.2.3).

5.7.4.2 Aggressive communication

Aggressive communication is one of the emerging components of emotional competence in this study. Most participants of this study reported that some lecturers were aggressive communicators. Some participants in this study reported that aggressive communication was prominent among lecturers engulfed with negative emotions (5.6.2.1, 5.6.2.2, 5.6.2.3 and 5.6.2.4); because positive emotions impacted on lecturers differently (see 5.6.1.1, 5.6.1.2 and 5.6.1.3). Some participants in this study reported that some lecturers talked to others as they were addressing animals, because of the level of disrespectful words they used. Most participants in this study reported that the professional reputation of some lecturers was at the lowest level, because of verbal abuse (see 5.6.2.1). Most participants reported that some lecturers' attitudes were so unwelcoming and the treatment you get in their office raised more concerns. Some participants revealed that the unnecessary use of abusive words and aggressive behaviour were making relationships strictly official as it lacked friendliness (5.6.2.2). Aggressive communication to most participants was a display of lack of respect to others and encouraged disconnection, because it hurt emotionally and was very difficult to forget (see 5.6.2.4).

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory stipulated that an environment characterised with warmness was relevant for the growth of individuals and the system because it encouraged assertive yet respectful communication. Communication in a social environment like a tertiary education especially the university was crucial for proper functioning as most activities involved human interaction. As shown in Chapter 3 of this study, communication helps the system to exchange accepted wisdom, principles, point of view, emotional state and interests in achieving common goals (Miller, 2008). This further aligns with Goleman (2007) who claims that communication guided with emotional intelligence is characterised with encouragement and bonding relationships that help in teamwork to overcome challenges. However, the findings of this study reveal that professional, academic and institutional challenges had increased aggressive communication within the system leading to engagement in affective disconnection by some lecturers (see 5.6.1.2). Aggressive communication destroyed relationships needed to achieve professional and personal success and aggression also indicated the need for restructuring of approaches to manage anger (see 3.5.4.3).

With regard to this study, most of the participants revealed that the impact of challenges was reflected in the level of aggression in communication within the microsystem. Some participants revealed that unnecessary use of abusive words and aggression was making relationships more strictly official as it lacked friendliness (see 5.6.2.2). Aggressive communication to most participants was a display of lack of respect to others and encouraged disconnection because it hurt emotionally and was very difficult to forget (see 5.6.2.4).

Moreover, the presence of aggressive communication in the microsystem means there is minor and major conflict which reflects a lack of emotional intelligence competence (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2012) and there is need for the management to rekindle motivation and encourage to emotional intelligence environment to increase synergy in relationships in the microsystem, build bonds to lead changes in readiness to handle challenge (see 3.5.4.5; 3.5.4.6; 3.5.4.7; 3.5.4.8). The aggression in communication could reveal the reason for increase in emotional history and emotional history intrusion in relationship behaviour.

5.7.4.3 Emotional history

The focus of scholars on emotion and history had been neglected in the search for better ways to encourage living emotionally intelligent daily lives. It is important to point out that emotional history should not be confused with history of emotions (origins of emotions) (Munslow, 2001; Evan 2001). Emotional history must be understood in the context of storage of significant lived experiences in the emotional brain. This agrees with the findings of Goleman (2004) also Nelson and Low (2011) that events with indelible impression are of the greatest value to the individual and very difficult to forget. Emotional history could be pleasant or unpleasant, and however, its recollection has ability to create emotional happiness or unhappiness.

Emotional history may be pleasant (this refers to storing of pleasing events to the individual in the emotional brain and using the information to relate well in future). Emotional history may be unpleasant (this refers to the recording and storing of events) with painful experiences in the emotional brain and using the information to determine the pattern of relationships, interaction and communication. Emotional history may be neutral (this refers to where the individual have no storage of information because they are meeting for the first or previous meeting had no actual interaction to promote imprints on emotional brain). The findings reveal that in some individuals, unpleasant emotional history dominated as evident in the report of Nelly and Edo. This domination of emotional history to a greater extent is a key indicator that emotional history was propelled by the value it placed on the events that happened, how it happened and where it happened (Nelson & Low, 2011). The findings of this study reveal that emotional history was created and enhanced by discriminatory attitudes, feeling of exploitation, minor and major disagreement in faculty and departmental meeting, false perception of an individual leading to mistreatment of such individuals or group. The findings reveal that discriminatory attitudes promoted emotional history, because of emotional pains associated with such attitude.

The literature in Chapter 3 did not consider emotional history trend awareness. It is considered important in this study based on the findings of the analysed data. It is created out of consistent mention by the participant. The merging of the concept of emotions and history in this study was guided by ideas of Goleman (2004) and Nelson and Low (2011) that events with significant

emotional impact imprinted on the brain can recalled and serve as information for future action. In this regard, this study derived emotional history, from the merging of emotions and history. To build the concept to align with the narratives of the participants, the definition of Coetzee and Jansen (2007:12) of emotions as *"...A feeling is simply a thought one has, whereas an emotion is an eruption, an expression of that thought in a particular way. Emotion makes the thought real by putting it into action"* was found appropriate.

While the concept of history as defined by Anyanwu (1991:23) as "knowledge of the way people lived and acted" that left an indelible impression in the life of individuals or groups aligns with the narratives of the participants. Merging the two definitions, the study defines emotional history as the recording and retaining of significant emotional events that occurred in the system in the emotional brain with the intention to act with these in mind in the future.

Hence, emotional history is the records of emotional events with significant marks resulting from interactions, relationships and emotional experiences from other activities on the emotional brain. History ensures these significant emotional events are stored in emotional brain, in order to reproduce it in future to motivate action. The fundamentals of emotional history were to record and store the results of interaction, relationships and other activities with emotional significance in the emotional brain and reproduce the stored information for actions. Reproduction of stored information is seen from the viewpoint of avoidance of repeated experience or ways to relate with the actors in the events that created the emotional history in the first place. This revealed that past events with emotional significant could disrupt the application of emotional intelligence depending on the extent of emotional knowledge and practice.

5.7.4.4 Affective disconnection

Affective disconnection is a term coined in this study to represent personal decision to withdraw from interaction and relationships within the microsystem except strictly on official level as revealed by the findings of this study (see 5.6.2.3). According to Cloud (2009) connection is crucial for communication and appropriate interaction for achievement of professional and personal goals. Coetzee (2004) pinpoints that connection enables communication, because if there is no connection, communication to build relationship and interaction to ensure quality in service, delivery and production in education will be missing. This aligns with the findings of this study as many lecturers engaged in affective disconnection led to professional delinquency and low service coordination resulting in poor rating of Nigerian universities globally (Ogu, 2008).

With regard to affective disconnection, there was a need to revisit Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory which postulates that the microsystem is the setting that the developing individuals interact and relate with other individuals on a daily basis (workplace, etc.). Affective disconnection negates the principles of the theory guiding this study (see 2.3). The theory establishes that interaction and relationships are vital for individual and institutional progress, however, disconnectors were found in this study that entailed disconnecting from every interaction and relationships except on a strict official basis to ensure emotional experiences and less of an emotional history. Some participants revealed that some lecturers who disconnected attributed it to avoidance of past experiences. While some participants revealed that disconnection provided them the space to focus on professional performance which reduced unnecessary relationships that ended up in emotional trauma (see 5.6.2.3). This further indicates that the institutional environment is characterised with emotional experiences and is capable of disturbing reciprocal relationships as perceived by most participants of this study. Thus the microsystem of the lecturers required emotional competence to learn and master ways to control challenges instead of engaging in affective disconnection.

5.8   CONCLUDING REMARKS

Emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges is a long overdue research topic, because of the changing nature of tertiary education and the resulting challenges and unexpected impact on lecturers' emotions. It is this mindset that enabled the researcher to go through the rigours of the study, which involved a qualitative research approach that used semi-structured interviews to collect, organise analyse and interpret data. From the analysed data three major themes emerged and they were firmly embedded within Bronfenbrenner's' (1979) ecological system. The analysed data were interpreted within Goleman's (2004) framework for emotional competences with the focus on the four domains of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management.

The results show that lecturers were basically self-aware of the experienced challenges, coping strategies, and the impact on their emotions, quality of service offered and productivity in education. Results further show that lecturers' trivialised information derived from self-awareness and social awareness and never perceived knowledge as useable data to handle present or emerging problems. In this regard, the results were organised around two major factors such as emotional knowledge production (for deeper self-examination to bring into awareness felt emotions, types and reason for the experience as well as to identify the person and social capacities available) and emotional knowledge application (for determination of lecturers' potentials to accurately apply derived emotional information to manage emotions for personal and social success). Emotional knowledge production was the competences that would

help lecturers gain deeper insight into their emotions, their strengths and weakness and the immediate need for change orientation. Emotional knowledge application was the competences that should help the lecturer to handle the produce knowledge through appropriate application. The main aim of this grouping was to direct focus on major and minor cue to identified area for change orientation.

The main aim in this study was to establish if lecturers experienced challenges, why and how the challenges occured and to determine the system responsible for the challenges that impacted on lecturers. Moreover, I had in my mind that Goleman's emotional competence domains could help solve the research problems and might likely replicate the earlier findings, because it had been used in many organisations and reported credible results except with lecturers in the context of this study which was a tertiary institution. However, I considered the use of the qualitative research approach more practical to gain insight to answer the research questions from lecturers' perspectives. I was very careful in selecting the research methodology, because using widely researched Goleman's framework for emotional competence within Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems could be difficult and challenging. At the same time I had confidence that spoken words revealed deeper secrets which figures cannot quantify because it cannot discover it. Then I decided on a qualitative research method. Data collection involved semi-structured interviews to dig deep into the minds of lecturers and discover words that could provide evidence to answer the research questions and propose ways to solve the problems. I selected the indicators for data analysis as Bronfenbrenner's systems and data interpretation as Goleman's emotional competences to gain knowledge on ways the challenges were distributed to understand application strategies viable for each system.

In the use of the Bronfenbrenner systems and Goleman emotional competences, I discovered that all the systems exacted untold pressure on lecturers and lecturers were self-aware but lacked application skills, implying without emotional intelligence education and training lecturers are hijacked, swamped and frustrated. I also discovered that lecturer's emotional impact led to a lowered quality of service delivered and criticised products of education. I discovered that the quick intervention of trade union was temporary, while spiritual and emotional resilience applied by some lecturers could not prevent the subtle penetration of emotions to impact on lecturers.

In this I discovered that my assumptions were partially right and wrong. Partially right because I could establish that lecturers experienced challenges that impacted on their emotions and the impact results from lack of coping structures. I also discovered that I was partially wrong, because Goleman's framework for emotional competence did not completely replicate previous findings, because it produced new domains. This helped to understand the power and benefits

of qualitative semi-structured interviews and the need to develop an emotional intelligence model that incorporated the emerging domains to ensure that emotional knowledge was accurately produced and applied to handle professional, academic and institutional challenges. I, therefore, suggest that emotional intelligence scholars should encourage more qualitative-based research approaches to gain deeper insight into the world of the participants to help reorganise and redefine the emotional intelligence programmes. It was then deduced that emotional knowledge could be applied because qualitative semi-structured interviews awakened the participants to the reality of their emotions, and prepared their mind for pragmatic readiness to act with emotional intelligence.

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CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 5, I presented an interpretation of the findings of the study according to the four themes that emerged throughout the coding to answer the research questions on emotional intelligence in coping with professional academic and institutional challenges facing Nigerian university lecturers with the use of Bronfenbrenner's theoretical framework, Goleman's theory of performance and literature studies. In this chapter, the summary of information gathered throughout this study, commencing with the review of related literature and results will be presented. The results from the data, generated from the twelve participants, summary and recommendation are presented and discussed in this chapter.

The synthesis of the key elements of this study and the conclusion will also be presented and discussed. The main focus of the research problem was to understand how Nigerian university lecturers cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges with emotional intelligence. This means that the main aim of this study was to examine emotional intelligence of Nigerian university lecturers. Recommendations were made with the use of the findings of this study. The domains for further research were established. I concluded the thesis with a reflection on the whole research process, raised a discourse on the strengths and weakness of the study.

In this regard, I present and discuss the inferences and drawn conclusions with the use of the findings from the analysed data in Chapter 5 in this chapter. The findings from analysed and interpreted data helped in providing answers to the questions this research posed (see 1.3.1). This thesis is organised in six chapters, each was designed and presented in ways that connects to aims of the study.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF PREVIOUS CHAPTERS

To ensure proper understanding and flow of this study, I will now provide a brief overview of the previous chapters pointing out the relevance and importance to the study as a whole. This brief overview provides the basic knowledge for the understanding of the discourse in this study and synthesis of the findings and recommendations.

6.2.1 CHAPTER 1

Chapter one of this study formed the background of the research and it comprised the introduction to the study, the rationale for engaging in the study, the problem the study wanted to research on, the research questions guided the study and the objectives as well as the assumptions of the study. In this chapter, I presented the operational definitions of the key words of the study as it related to the context of the study. Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory was introduced with brief discussion on five systems so as to show the relevance to the study. Chapter 1 also discussed in brief the design of the research, the method and criteria for the study. This chapter also mentioned the research design, research methodology, the ethical considerations, and quality criteria for this study.

6.2.2 CHAPTER 2

Chapter 2 presented the literature review on professional, academic and institutional challenges. The review of literature introduced the challenges the academic staff face at global level and narrowed down to Nigerian context with the overview of historical perspective. The chapter explored the historical aspects of the professional, academic and institutional challenges, the government roles and the historical roles of the trade unions interventional strategy. This contextual evidence made available important information for deeper understanding of why emotional intelligence is significant in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges. I also reviewed the literature within the five systems of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory starting with chronosystem, macrosystems, exosystem, mesosystem and ending with microsystem. The literature revealed that professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian universities were historical in nature because of the consistency in neglect by the government of Nigeria. It indicated that poor funding was the major driver of the challenge resulting to frequent strikes and disruptions. Other factors such as lack of teaching and research resources, workload, work condition, overpopulation and research and publication gained major focus in the literature review.

6.2.3 CHAPTER 3

Chapter three of this study focused on review of relevant literature on emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence related literature were greatly reviewed with focus on three major models such as cognitive model, non-cognitive model and mixed model of emotional intelligence, the limitations and possibility for application in tertiary education were presented and discussed. The literature also examined emotional intelligence as conceptualized by Daniel Goleman with regard to his four domains such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship-management. The review of literature also examined the

relationship between of emotional intelligence and Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory (1979). The chapter was summed up with concluding remark.

6.2.4   CHAPTER 4

The chapter four of this study presented and discussed the research methods such as research design, research paradigm and research method of qualitative and how to use semi-structured interview to generate meaningful data that will answer the questions posed in this study. The research type was phenomenological which provided the opportunity to interview participants capable of providing in-depth information required to understand the perception, coping strategy and impact of professional, academic and institutional challenges on lecturers emotions. Interpretative paradigm guided the collecting and analysing of the data for emotional intelligence in coping with professional academic and institutional challenges. The chapter also presented and discussed the sampling and sample size and criteria for selecting the participants, the procedure for data collection and analysis as well as interpretation. The chapter discussed the research site, the strategies to ensure research trustworthiness and credibility. The role of the researcher was established. The chapter summed up the content and was followed by concluding remarks and preview of chapter five

6.2.5   CHAPTER 5

Chapter 5 presented and discussed the procedure for data analysis and interpretation. The biographical data of each participant was presented and discussed and names were coded. The collected data were analysed and presented in a table of themes, categories and sub-categories. The table of themes is to provide meaning and guidelines for interpretation of the findings to answer the questions posed in this study. The data interpretations used quotes from the participants as supporting evidence in the discus of each theme. The chapter also comprises the interpretation and answers to the research questions. The chapter concluded with remarks and a preview of Chapter 6.

6.2.6   CHAPTER 6

Chapter six will present and discuss the summary of the data and interpretation. The conclusions were drawn and recommendations made to ensure proper implementation of the findings.

6.3   SUMMARY OF LITERATURE AND EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

In this section the key findings pertaining to the literature review, as well as my empirical study will be presented.

6.3.1   SUMMARY OF LITERATURE FINDINGS

The overview of the finding of the literature will be presented in this section as presented in chapter two and chapter three of this study.

6.3.1.1   Summary of literature findings on professional challenges

Since 1948, tertiary education in Nigeria had been experiencing professional challenges which emerged into two major factors with consequences. The factors are inadequate fluctuating dwindling budgetary allocation and reduction in acquisition of new working resources and maintenance of existing facilities. Inadequate fluctuating and dwindling funds reduce strategic planning, implementation of educational programmes as well as management of the institutional short term and long term-goals. This lack of ability to plan and implement programmes effectively and efficiently with limited fund manifest in a lack in acquisition and allocation of working resources to faculties and departments. Working with limited resources for the academic staff is obvious in teaching and research.

The existing literature provides evidence that there is a massive lack of teaching and research facilities in many faculties, departments making teaching of some course unit too difficult. The literature further provide evidence that inadequate funding created the lack in acquisition of needed resources furthering limitation in lecturers ability to apply professional standards and skills obtained through years of training. Hence, inadequate funding poses challenges to teaching, research and community engagement with impact on quality of service delivery and productivity in education. This impact critically manifest in quality of input and educational output, which in turn have greater impact on lecturers' emotions and behaviour.

Unfortunately, funding is insufficient leading to low input and poor output. The examination of literature shows that different studies blamed the government for lack of political will to take decisive action and the university management for lack of pragmatic readiness to act towards sourcing for alternative funding. Evidence are rife in the literature that funding is the steering wheel for quality in services offered and results obtained.

Working with limited resources is at the center of low application of innovative pedagogy and high professional emotional pressure lecturers experience in most tertiary institutions. The literature maintains that at the intersection of inadequate funding and lack of working resources lie emotional pressure. Emotional pressure also increases because the federal government lacks pragmatic readiness to take decisive action to reduce professional challenges. Adequate funding is perceived as major determinant of the kind and quality of working resources the institutions are to acquire for which faculty, department and course unit.

Worldwide, literature links inadequate funding to academe low quality of services and output in education. Examination of literature across developing nations reveals that lecturers are striving with limited resources which causes reduction in quality of job performance. Many institutions lack organisational structures that shield lecturers from possible consequences of professional emotional pressure. For many lecturers inability to apply professional standards and skills could be emotionally traumatising furthering health challenges. To many lecturers depending on faculty and department and course unit, it could have personal economic commitment and implications. The economic commitment results from the use of personal funds to purchase basic course material to enhance teaching and learning because it is unavoidable to teach without such materials. The implication is for the lecturer and the family as the opportunity cost for using personal fund is deprivation of family members some basic necessitates of life.

On the other hand, the literature provides evidence on the chronology of strikes by trade union to demand for the betterment of tertiary education and working condition of the academic staff. The trade union consistently calls for strike action against the government to force them to enter into negotiation or fulfil previous agreement. The literature made it clear that a lack of pragmatic readiness on the part of the government and university management to act towards provision of adequate funding to help reduce lecturers' experience of professional emotional pressure, impacts on the quality of students produced in tertiary institutions.

Generally but unfortunately, the existing literature provides evidence that professional challenges are driven by inadequate fluctuating dwindling funds that limit lecturers' ability to apply a professional code of standards and skills acquired through years of training. The information derived from examination of existing literature in this study is that the outcome of professional challenges is dilapidated facilities, brain drain and low rating of Nigerian universities. There is also evidence of lowered quality in service delivery and output in education, as lecturers could not offer standard service, because of a lack of funds to acquire needed working resources. There is also an increase in professional emotional pressures and societal criticism as a result of poor performance of products of tertiary education in job market. Societal expectation and critics also increased emotional pressure lecturers' experience, which has the potential to increase vulnerability. On the whole, professional challenges have further impact on academic and institutional challenges with emotional consequences and impact on job performance because inability to adjust and sustain the individual.

6.3.1.2 Summary of literature findings on academic challenges

Inadequate funding and lack of working resources was identified as critical factor that reduces lecturers' ability to offer professional services and produce quality in education. Factors, such

as an increase in the demand to do research, and publish without basic equipment, and the internationalisation of education have increased diversities amongst lecturers. Diversities among enrolled students was also prominent in literature as a major source of academic challenges.

Research and publication are traditional and culturally accepted as important modes of achieving professional and personal promotion in academic world. Hence inadequate funding and limited resources disorganise and frustrate researchers in their task to do groundbreaking research. The outcome of such frustration is relocation of Nigerian academics to other countries of the world. Another consequences obvious in the literature is increased personal cost for individual lecturers who travel abroad for professionalisation and loss of revenue for the government as the host government earns more.

The literature provides evidence that internationalisation of education increased diversities and culture of enrolled students and employed lecturers. The outcome of institutional diversities is increase in communication challenges, mostly in academic writing as most lecturers were unprepared to cope with diversities in language and writing pattern of international students. Another aspect of the challenges is that working with limited resources increased the lecturers' struggle to teach in ways that ensures inclusion of diverse students' needs. These experiences increased the lecturers' emotional pressure furthering vulnerability to health condition with physical consequences. The consequence most critics identified includes an increase in inability to adapt, adapt and sustain the self in the midst of misjudgment, increased display of unfriendly behaviour and outright rejection. Many lecturers that experience discrimination have increased feelings of rejection leading self-isolation from social activities and other unofficial events.

Generally, the information derived from the examination of existing literature on academic challenges are that it is driven by professional challenges, a lack of funds, inadequate working resources and student and lecturers' diversities. The literature further reveals that lecturers were frustrated with the increase in demand to publish or perish in the academic world despite a lack of research facilities.

6.3.1.3   Summary of literature findings on institutional challenges

The institutional environment of lecturers is governed by set rules and regulations that demand pragmatic readiness to act. Life skills such as emotional intelligence are needed to identify and manage challenges in ways that promote professional and personal success. There is evidence in the literature that most university managements adopt managerial style that negate such rules which increases lecturers experience of challenges such as in the provision of basic working resources. The literature in institutional environments reveals that the working conditions of the lecturers are unfriendly, unappreciative and empathetic of the efforts lecturers make to produce quality with limited resources. This increases the feeling of exploitation resulting in insistent strike actions, which increase lecturers' workload after the strikes.

The literature further reveals that consistent striking indicates a lack of pragmatic readiness to take practical action to handle institutional challenges. These strikes fostered academic war between the government and trade unions. These experiences of academic wars increased disconnection distrust and disregard of government and university management instruction during the strikes. However, it increased warmness and reciprocal relationship towards the trade unions, which earned the association, academic staff undivided loyalty and trust. The literature also reveals that many studies paid little attention to the importance of applying philosophical rules governing the institutions to assist with the lecturers' challenges. Many studies also failed to focus on the lack of pragmatic readiness to act and use life skills such as emotional intelligence to handle interaction with the trade unions to reduce consistency in strike action.

A life skill such as emotional intelligence increases adaptation, adjustment and navigation of challenges with warmness and reciprocal interaction. The literature provides evidence that merging of technical skills, cognitive and non-cognitive skills enhance navigation. There is ample evidence that irrespective of individual differences in managing institutional challenges that the learnable nature of emotional intelligence provides opportunity for lecturers to learn, master and translate knowledge into professional and personal success. Fortunately there are many examples of findings that support that emotional intelligence is the lost key that needs to be found for institutions to manage their challenges.

Generally, the information derived from the review of literature on institutional challenges reveals deeper insight that the succession of committees set up by various governments to find solutions on institutions barely focused on lecturers' emotional experiences, coping strategies and impact. The knowledge gained from examination of institutional challenges highlights the importance of this study in facilitating government, university management and trade unions on the professional emotional challenges lecturers go through, because of a lack of pragmatic

readiness to apply philosophical rules governing institutions to manage the challenges and lecturers.

6.3.1.4   Summary of literature findings on emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a learnable life skill, which combines personal and social competences to handle challenges in any given environment to ensure professional and personal success (see 2.10; 3.1; 3.2). The vivacious benefit reported in emotional intelligence literatures lead to the exploration of three main model of emotional intelligence to find a common ground for this study (see 3.3; 3.4; 3.5). The study settled for a mixed model of emotional intelligence as conceptualised by Daniel Goleman because of its extensive use in workplace to determine the extent it can replicate in the life of the academic staff (see 3.5; 3.6). The literature provides evidence that emotional intelligence could help to navigate the challenges; unfortunately, the literature revealed that not much is researched and written on emotional intelligence in coping with challenges in tertiary education.

For education, particularly, tertiary education to make its contribution to the growth of a nation, it must be able to provide the academe with teaching and research resources and make the work environment comfortable. The literature offers meaningful information on the contribution of scholars in the field of professional, academic and institutional challenges as well as emotional intelligence. Although, professional, academic and institutional challenges have been perceived as pervasive, however, emotional intelligence domain such self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship management could help curtail the pervasiveness as evident in the review of related literature. The review of related literature on emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges provided vital information on the impact of the challenges, the dangers of the impact and possible ways of dealing with the impact and resulting dangers.

6.3.2   SUMMARY OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

The findings of this study provide evidence that professional, academic and institutional challenges are nested within Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems. The complexity of the challenges and the impact on lecturers are observable evident in the chronosystem and proceed through the other systems. In the macrosystem, the government, Ministry of Education, national University Commission and some university management's managerial style that lack pragmatic readiness to find lasting solution for lecturers challenges, significantly affected the culture and norms of the universities, shifting it from an enabling environment to an environment engulfed with consistent academic wars and strikes. In the exosystem, the outdated funding policy created a huge gap between needed fund and available fund, which significantly

affected implementation of educational programmes and increased emotional pressure on lecturers. In the mesosystem, the perception and interpretation of the interaction of the challenges across the systems altered lecturers' experience resulting in change in professional behaviour such as in committed, non-committed and praying lecturers. In the microsystem, the inability of some university management, faculty and departments inability to perceive, identify and interpret the influences of the challenges on lecturers significantly negatively enhanced lecturers' ability to navigate the challenges. This inability to navigate affected majority of the lecturers' perceptual sets, increased self-doubt, moral guilt, social behaviour, quality of services offered and education productivity; furthering emotional pressure as lecturers strive to change, adapt and sustain self without adequate supporting structures .

6.3.2.1   Summary of empirical findings on professional challenges

In professional challenges, there is inadequate funding and teaching resources with observable impact on formulation, implementation and management of institutions which lead to the disorganisation of institutional, faculty and department plans such as recruitment of lecturers and acquisition of prerequisite working resources. There is significant impact on the lecturers such as inability to apply innovative teaching pedagogy due to a lack of working resources, emotional impact such as psychological distress, anxiety, sleep difficulties and low quality in service delivery.

6.3.2.2   Summary of empirical findings on academic challenges

In academic challenges, there are observable differences in impact among faculties and within department which intensify the emotional pressure on lecturers. For instance, there is severe impact in sciences and engineering departments. Some lecturers in faculty of education buy, borrow or collaborate with students to buy prerequisite teaching and research equipment. There is significant evidence that the attention research and publication receives at presents promotes unfairness and exploitation which exposes the majority of lecturers to anxiety and frustration because absentee lecturers get publications and promotions more than committed lecturers who strive with limited working resources. There is impact on junior lecturers because of a lack of mentors and coaching on academic writing. There is evidence of increase on emotional, psychological and physical pressure resulting in frequency in hospital visits.

6.3.2.3   Summary of empirical findings on institutional challenges

In institutional challenges, there is significant observable evidence that the institutional environment was dilapidated, poorly maintained, engulfed with managerial style that practice discrimination in recruitment and promotion furthering emotional history, reflecting a lack of political will and pragmatic readiness to act. This made the participant to suggest changes of outdated funding policies and full financial commitment of the three tiers of government in Nigeria (Federal, State, local government).

Generally in professional, academic and institutional challenges, the study discovered that the organizational structure, working resources, human interaction and relationship across the universities (Federal, State and Private based Universities) were significantly affected. The impact of the challenges was felt more by the lecturers because they are the implementers of educational programmes and need prerequisite working resources to initiate innovative pedagogy to enhance teaching and learning. The challenges motivated some lecturers to adopt observable changes in behaviour that were more negatively expressed because of difficulties and differences in handling emotions and the intensity of the felt emotions.

6.3.2.4   Summary of empirical findings on emotional intelligence

Professional, academic and institutional challenges experienced by lecturers created emotions that had a positive and negatively impact on lecturers' professionalism. The participants identified and labelled the experienced emotions because they were aware of them, the impact of on them and their ability to function effectively. Self-awareness helped lecturers to identify the challenges, understand, admit and accept personal and institutional strength and weaknesses in handling the challenges. Self-awareness is value-laden when it enables lecturers to produce knowledge about their emotions, strengths and weaknesses in engaging appropriate action and reaction to foster self-management. Empirical evidence reveals that self-management is derived from activities of the trade unions, spiritual resilience and emotional resilience. In the trade unions in which membership is compulsory and practised only in the federal as well as state-owned universities' quick response to academic staffs' challenges helped them to self-manage not only as a group but individually. Across three universities emotional and spiritual resilience was significantly practised, however, the spiritual resilience is more prominent in privately-based university because they assigned special days in a week and month for full participation of staff and students.

On the other hand, empirical evidence reveals appropriate self-management strengthened skills to respond to challenges, however, failure in self-management increased self-doubt and self-guilt which resulted in frustration, anxiety, demotivation and procrastination of job description.

Individual lecturers that failed in self-management, struggle to adjust, adapt and sustain self in the social environment. The understanding of the social-emotional cues within the system may become a challenge because the individual lecturer might have difficulties in thinking constructively on ways to interact with colleagues in a shared space. Social awareness becomes very important in an environment that shared connection which should be compulsory because of the nature of the job. Information derived from social awareness is traditionally the cornerstone of understanding the social environment of the university, faculty and department down to the classroom. However, the smooth transition was often interrupted with consistent academic war between the government and the trade unions furthering disruption in academic calendar, increase in workload and created an unconducive work environment.

The findings of this study reveals that deeper insight derived from social awareness was often misapplied by some lecturers with low emotional intelligence altering thinking, emotions and behaviour in ways that affected interaction. Relationship patterns that were the key determinant of effective service delivery were the first to be affected because the emotional lecturers recalled bad experiences and they seemed to remember traumatic events.The findings of this study further reveals that a lack of focus on emotional trend, trivialisation of emotional knowledge produced from engaging in self-awareness leading to emotional intrusion, serious threat to interaction and relationships. The emotional impact furthered the development of three major types of lecturers within the system: committed lecturers; uncommitted lecturers and praying lecturers. Committed lecturers experienced significantly more intense emotions because of the ambition to achieve quality in service delivery and production with limited resources. Uncommitted lecturers experienced barely any emotions because they did not consider quality in service delivery and productivity in education of personal concern. Praying lecturers experienced significant emotions, hence, they put into account their religious belief that God was all-knowing and at His time would make everything perfect. These praying lecturers encouraged, motivated and inspired each other to remain optimistic no matter the opposing challenges.

The findings of this study shows that within the three types of emerging lecturers, the majority engaged in emotional history, made decisions to interact and relate with others with the information derived from emotional history awareness negatively. The use of emotional history promoted judgmental, biased display of behaviours that intensified and furthered relationship problems within the system. Most participants mentioned selective relationships, affective and self-disconnection as prominent relationship problems which promoted and advanced professional discrimination, potential destruction, and performance damage which resulted in criticism of products of tertiary education.

Hence, the majority of the lecturers suggested an establishment of centers for emotional intelligence to enable formulation and implementation of programmes to ensure lecturers adapt, sustain and perform with emotional intelligence. The implication includes an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education model.

6.4   RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

To conclude this study there is need to provide answers to research questions in Chapter 1 (see 1.4) to ensure appropriate credible conclusion. The sequence for answering these research questions begins with the three first sub-questions, then the main research question. The fourth sub-question is addressed in a separate section; because it constitutes the emotional intelligence model, moreover to enable me discuss the core ideas of the model.

The primary research question was as follows:

How do Nigerian university lecturers cope with challenges posed to their emotional intelligence?

The following functioned as secondary research questions:

- How do Nigerian university lecturers perceive professional, academic and institutional challenges?

- What coping strategies do Nigerian university lecturers apply in managing professional, academic and institutional challenges?

- What impact do these professional, academic and institutional challenges have on lecturers' emotions?

- What will the key elements of emotional intelligence model be for Nigerian University lecturers?

6.4.1   SUB-QUESTION 1
How do Nigerian university lecturers perceive professional, academic and institutional challenges?

A conditional factor, decisional factor and pragmatic readiness emerged from the lecturers' perception of professional, academic and institutional challenges. The conditional factor is used to focus attention on prerequisite human and material resources that could enhance functionality and minimise lecturers' experience of challenges and emotions. A conditional factor exerts an influence on institutional structures, which in turn, impact on lecturers' professionalism leading to outright criticism of lecturers' productivity in education because of lowered quality of

services. In this study, participants identified governments' inadequate funding as conditional factors which affected input (human and material resources) and output (quality in service delivery and productivity in education). A conditional factor has been linked to a lack in appropriate decisions to manage available resources to reduce academic and institutional challenges lecturers' experience. This is because the process of achieving quality research and publication as well as reduced workload (academic challenges) is based on availability of needed resources. The lack thereof impacts on institutional environment altering the managerial style, furthering poor working conditions, increasing discriminatory attitudes and an increased call for strikes by trade unions (institutional challenges).

The way government goes about to handle the conditional factor depends solely on decisional factors built on the capacity and capability of the government, university management and trade unions to make objective decisions to handle the challenges. The decisional factor demands formulating plans that are workable, selecting strategies that are doable and durable, promoting and advancing implementation formulae that are outcomes based for documentation and consistent update. To achieve set plans, there is a need for political willingness on the part of the government, national university commission and university management. The participants of this study mentioned that the lack of political will was perceived as the reason for consistent academic war between the government and the trade unions. The participants' perception of a lack in political will made pragmatic readiness an important central factor that could drive the implementation of selected doable strategies to reduce experience of challenges.

Pragmatic readiness in this study made the stakeholders aware of the doable and durable nature of formulated plans and selected strategies because its major element was to drive authentic action towards real application. In this regard, pragmatic readiness brought synergy to the formulated plans and implementation processes by ensuring consistent application, monitoring and follow through to ensure evidence-based results. Pragmatic readiness in my study increased the participants' feelings of empathy and appreciation for the reason that it encouraged, motivated and advanced positive perception of challenges that could be unbearable and frustrating in some faculties and departments in the universities.

Concerning the challenges and the three different universities, there is no difference in the way they perceived the challenges; however there is significant difference in the steps taken to handle the challenges. Similarly, across the three different universities, lecturers reported dual perception of the three domains of challenges. Dual perception implies that lecturers who perceived challenges as creators of negative emotions also perceived them as creators of positive emotions. Dual perception was one finding that aroused my curiosity in this study. The same participants that perceived the challenges as disruptive, psychologically and

emotionally distressful, perceived them as transformational motivating and engaging (see 5.4.1.2). On this justification, it is wise to point out that lecturers across the three universities, irrespective of educational status and gender, had dual perceptions of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

6.4.2 SUB-QUESTION 2
Which coping strategies do Nigerian university lecturers apply in managing professional, academic and institutional challenges?

Group coping is motivated by trade unions' quick response and personal coping driven by spiritual resilience and emotional resilience which emerged as significant in regard to managing professional, academic and institutional challenges. All participating lecturers in federal and state universities were compulsory members of academic trade unions hence they enjoyed the care and support of the trade unions to push their challenges. However the privately-based union did not permit trade unionism but one of the participants Baron pointed out that it was a matter of time. The trade union as coping strategy was expected because membership was compulsory and the trade union stands for common goals which was the betterment of tertiary education and professionalism of academic staff. From the above-mentioned it was important to pinpoint that privately-based universities may be engaging more with personal coping strategies. It is also important to mention that the trade unions provided temporary general support and care which barely helped individual lecturers to handle personal and social problems associated with the experience of challenges.

With regard to spiritual resilience, many of the participants engaged in depending on religious ideologies for selection and framing of the way challenges were managed. This is evident in the use of prayers, mediation and memorisation as well as recitation of the word of God in the Bible by Christians and Koran by the Muslims to gain encouragement, motivation, tranquillity and calmness to manage challenges. The use of the word of God by some Christian lecturers and some Muslim lecturers was not expected, because it was not considered in the literature of the study. However, it reveals the dynamic nature and massive penetration of religious ideologies in guiding and shepherding the perception, behaviour and cognition of lectures towards managing the experience of challenges. The lecturers' spiritual resilience revealed deeper sources of managing challenges that further highlighted the similarities in the religious ideologies, values and behaviour towards managing challenges (see 5.5.2.1). From the above-mentioned it is important to pinpoint that privately-based universities engaged more with spiritual resilience coping strategy because they had days of the week and months for prayers for encouragement and motivation to cope (see 5.5.2.1). This provides evidence that there are

untapped similarities within and among religious groups that emotional intelligence scholars of this study needed to tap and integrate into to enhance real life application.

With regard to emotional resilience, the majority of the participants derived the ability to manage challenges from the years of experience, expectations and purpose. This is evident in the use of years of experience to manage the interaction and relationship within the system and fear of not being promoted with the contemporaries as source of motivation to bounce back after an experience of challenges. I noticed that the use of emotional resilience to manage challenges depended on lecturers' perception of themselves and their capacity to navigate challenges with emotional knowledge, produced through self-awareness. Lecturers who perceived themselves as capable of meeting expectations placed on them, bounced back in emotional resilience. This is evident in the three types of lecturers identified in this study. The committed lecturers perceived themselves as capable of navigating the challenges and creatively innovated strategies to actualise the desire and built the "I-can-do spirit" that transformed their perceptions and attitudes towards challenges (see 5.5.2.1). Some lecturers identified themselves as capable of navigating challenges but with God's divine intervention, some emotional resilience was derived from the word of God. Some lecturers felt that navigation was difficult so they could not manage the challenges; they adopted professional delinquency, affective and self-disconnection.

On the other hand, there were some lecturers who managed the challenges with engagement of selective relationships and emotional history. This was evident in the narratives of some participants that the majority of the lecturers formed cliques with colleagues whom they perceived as having similar perceptions and those colleagues would not emotionally challenge them. While some lecturers managed the challenges with guidance of emotional history to avoid repeat experiences, some used information produced through emotional history awareness to engage self-disconnection or false association (pretence to be nice). This is evident in the kind of interactional and relationships pattern that existed within the system. This raises the concern for the way emotional intelligence is applied to cope with the challenges because most participants consistently mentioned strategies that were not fully emotional or intelligently competent. As a final point, the findings of this study revealed that the lecturers engaged diverse coping strategies indicating the need for life skills such as emotional intelligence.

6.4.3 SUB-QUESTION 3

What impact do these professional, academic and institutional challenges have on lecturers' emotions?

Despite, the application of wide-ranging coping strategies, the participant mentioned and identified that the challenges had a positive and negative impact on lecturers across the different categories of universities. Positive emotions were related to cognitive motivation, affective connection and relationship reciprocation furthering commitment and better performance at work. Cognitive motivation increased useful thinking and intelligent reasoning that helped in making proper decisions before taking action. The existing literature provides evidence that intelligent thinking helped the lecturers in this study in processing information to make functional decisions. Functional decisions helped in emotional connection which in turn, promoted care, support and empathy necessary for non-violent institutional environments. It also signifies harmony and reciprocal relationships for professional and personal growth because of increased self-achievement and self-confidence. The participating lecturers' feeling of self-confidence increased quality in services delivery and productivity in education, because the lecturers who participated in my study believed in personal ability to generate innovative ideas.

Affective connection, with colleagues and students influenced their performance, because according to the evidence gathered from the data emotions were contagious (Goleman, 2004). The affective connections built interaction and relationships, which in turn, built bonds and success in navigation of challenges, because each person's works as part of the team was valued. Good relationships are not characterised with selectivity, which reduces the engagement of diverse potential towards achievement of quality in services offered and productivity in education. This indicates the positive emotions change perceptions, modify behaviour to motivate commitment and optimism despite working in an environment that is emotionally challenging and without structures for coping.

I observed that there was also a negative impact of emotions on the lecturers which was related to cognitive frustration, affective disconnection; professional delinquency and emotional history intrusion (see 5.6). The cognitive frustration increased anxiety and discouragement which in turn led to demotivation resulting from the state of hopelessness which stole the participants' energy resources vital for working memory and they felt that they were exploited (Goleman, 2004). It was also evident that emotions of anxiety reduced the ability to concentrate on their work resulting in unsuccessful completion of the work role. This corresponds with the findings of Bhattacharya and Muruganandam (2003) also Babbel (2010) that emotions of hopelessness increase cortisol, blood sugar and glucose levels leading to cognitive deficits

which in turn lower speed in processing cognitive information (Lee, Glass, McAtee, Wand, Bandeen-Roche, Bolla & Schwartz, 2007).

Some participants reported that emotions of anxiety, frustration and disappointment exploited their immunity and increased their vulnerability to health issues and frequency to health centres and hospitals. The frequency to hospitals was for high blood pressure and other health related check-ups. This agrees with Johnson and Tores (2011) that blood pressure leading to heart problems such as coronary heart disease (CHD), hypertensive disease, cerebrovascular disease and other disorders of the heart and circulatory system are prominent among individual experiencing intense work pressure. This further aligns with the findings of Goleman (2004) that under anxiety, hormones released in the brain shoots up the heart rate, increase blood sugar level and slow down less relevant body functions; continuous triggers and secretion of these hormones may become habits that last for a long time.

This provides evidence that working under a consistent state of anxiety and frustration leads to the decrease in health and the immune system and vitality exposing the individual lecturer to health problems. There is also evidence from the interview conducted that the participating lecturers reported that they visited health centres because of ill health as a result of the pressure they had to handle. The existing literature and empirical evidence affirms that more lecturers were dying because of high blood pressure related illnesses and they felt engulfed by a culture of acceptance and silence.

Affective disconnection is the result of an inability to endure negative emotions manifesting from colleagues' behaviours. Affective disconnection is partly a strategy for avoidance of previous unpleasant emotions or new experience and involves total separation of the individual from colleagues or events likely to increase a repetition of previous experience. The impact is more on reciprocation of interaction and building of relationships crucial for functionality.

Affective disconnection affects commitment negatively because of a lack of involvement which further causes a delay in meeting management deadlines within departments in the faculty. The findings of this study contradicted many assumptions that lecturers are emotionally intelligent. Instead, the findings reveal the importance of the application of emotional knowledge.

Professional delinquency which involves lowered commitment, absenteeism and aggressive communication causes lots of frustrating behaviour because the colleague is absent but never gets queried. Professional delinquency as observed by me promoted disunity within the departments, increased workloads for committed lecturers which in turn resulted in the increase of emotional pressure as the responsible lecturers were seen to make an effort to finish job roles of delinquent lecturers. The result of this compensation for those who did not perform their

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duties, was an increase of moral guilt of committed lecturers and praying lecturers as they battled within themselves to take action. They did not want to report delinquent lecturers and they did not get promotions. They did not have time to do publications as they were busy doing their colleagues' work.

On the other hand, emotional history intrusion defines a situation where significant past information provided by the emotional brain interrupts one's ability to relate and interact with other members of the university, particularly, the actors to the past events stored in the brain. Some of the participants in this study mentioned that some lecturers remembered every detail of past events and acted negatively towards others with the information. Lecturers working under the influence of negative emotional history were less likely to forgive and forget, more likely to engage in acting with assumption and rationalisation to ego-protection self from experienced verbal and psychological abuse. A lecturer without the ability to forgive and act with assertion is more likely to experience frustration. As a researcher I found that those participants who engaged in rationalisation were more likely to see fault in other people furthering self-abuse. These findings indicate that there was need to train academic staff on ways to handle emotional history. Undeniably, the findings of this study reveal that emergence of emotional history was destroying the functional relationships within the institution which frustrated coping for some lecturers.

6.4.4   SUMMATIVE RESEARCH CONCLUSION ON MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

How do Nigerian university lecturers cope with challenges posed to their emotional intelligence?

The striving to handle professional academic and institutional challenges by Nigerian university lecturers led to the application of diverse coping strategies. The coping strategies were driven by the lecturers' perception of challenges and the impact of the experienced emotions on professional and personal success. The findings of this study reveal that some lecturers that perceived challenges positively; adjusted, adapted and sustained themselves with constant motivation and commitment furthering reciprocal relationships with students and colleagues. There were some lecturers who perceived challenges negatively, lowering their ability to adjust, adapt and sustain themselves; they experienced cognitive frustration, and some adopted professional delinquency and self-disconnection or utilised emotional history to guide actions within the system. However, the majority of the participants had dual perceptions (both positive and negative) of professional, academic and institutional challenges based on expectations and outcome. For instance, challenges were perceived as emotional creator and motivator, when the expectations and outcomes were positive, while challenges were perceived as emotional creators and disruptors, when the expectations and outcomes were negative. The implication of

this analysis is that perception determined the way lecturers experienced, adjusted and coped with challenges.

The findings of this study also show that most lecturers engaged in dual coping strategies, which implies that most lecturers applied more than one strategy to handle challenges. However, the coping strategies applied often provided care, support, motivation and encouragement, irrespective of the sources (group or personal). This implies that coping was flexible depending on purpose and application, when the purpose of coping was to handle group issues, grouping coping was adopted; but when the purpose was to handle personal issues, personal coping was applied. The implication of this analysis is that purpose and applicability guided coping strategies applied by Nigerian University lecturers to manage the challenges posed to their emotional intelligence.

The findings of this study show that positive and negative emotions had impacted on lecturers' emotions. The emotional impact on lecturers' manifested through behavioural change and selective applicability, implying that behaviours were changed to adjust, adapt and sustain them in the system. Selective applicability took place when lecturers selected the felt emotions in which the behaviour was applied. Thus behavioural change and selective applicability was often guided by the desire to navigate challenges with motivation and encouragement provided by spiritual resilience and emotional resilience. The implication of this analysis is that behavioural change and selective applicability as well as spiritual resilience and emotional resilience were coping strategies applied by Nigerian university lecturers to manage the challenges posed to their emotional intelligence. From this discourse, it is important to pinpoint that expectations and outcomes, purpose and performability, behavioural change and selective performability; spiritual resilience and emotional resilience emerged from lecturers' narratives as ways Nigerian university lecturers coped with challenges posed to their emotional intelligence:

❖ **Expectations and outcome**

The use of expectations and outcomes as coping strategy by the lecturers was reflected in the dual perception of challenges that occurred in the microsystem, which was the immediate environment for job performance. Lecturers that perceived challenges as emotional creators and motivators pursued their expectations with high self-management and relationship-management, avoiding emotional history and encouraging themselves. Thus when lecturers' experienced challenges in the microsystem, the value placed on the expectation and outcomes became an effective tool for quick recovery (see 5.5.2.2). On the other hand, lecturers who perceived challenges as emotional creators and disruptors were more likely to look at the information provided by the created emotions as disruptive. The perception of emotions as disruptors created a huge difficulty in building willpower to deal with the challenges. This

implies that expectations and outcomes enabled the majority of the lecturers who perceived challenges as emotional creators and motivators to cope better compared to lecturers who perceived challenges as emotional creators and disruptors.

❖ **Purpose and performability**

Coping is found to be flexible depending on purpose and performability. The concept of performability defines the ability to perform reasonably well achieved by certain measures of results with limited resources. Coping with purpose and performability are achieved when success is achieved in performed activities such as personal (publication in desired journal, job promotion and increase in "I-can-do-spirit") and non-personal (student performance, trade union consistent success in bargains for betterment of tertiary education, success in desired relationship pattern adopted within the system). Thus achieving tertiary education goals with limited resources motivated the determination to persist in spite of the challenges because it created the feeling of good performance. This implied that lecturers' coping strategies were predominantly determined by performing activities that led to the achievement of goals.

❖ **Behavioural change and selective applicability**

Another coping strategy identified in this study is behavioural change and selective applicability. The majority of the lecturers coped with changing their behaviour in ways that enabled them to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves within the system. Behavioural change could be positive such as committed and praying lecturers or negative such as in uncommitted lecturers. Selective applicability occurred when a lecturer selected a particular behaviour to apply to a particular context.

❖ **Spiritual resilience and emotional resilience**

The use of spiritual resilience and emotional resilience as coping strategy by the lecturers was reflected in the personal coping that occurred in the microsystem, which was the immediate environment for job performance. Spiritual resilience was applied by Christian (Bible) and Muslim (Koran) as coping strategy and it demonstrates the power of prayer and mediating in the word of God to promote and advance coping in a challenged environment. Lecturers also applied emotional resilience driven by the desire to meet up with the contemporaries, family, institutional and public expectation. Hence effort to handle the challenges and increase in lecturers' coping ability demanded an appropriate emotional intelligence model.

6.5 THE PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF AN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODEL

| Competence Analysed | OBJECTIVES | | | | | | |
	Perception	Understanding	Emotional competence	Application Knowledge	Link to PAIC	Theory	Interpretation
Self-awareness	Recognition	Reason for the emotion(s)	Emotional self-awareness Accurate self-assessment Self-confidence	Assess professional, academic, institutional challenges accurately Associate emotions	Link to the challenges & evidence: How Why Which	System	Perception Coping Impact Key elements
Self-management	Regulation	Strength and weakness in managing emotion(s)	Self-control Trustworthiness Conscientious Achievement drive Initiative	Accurate assessment Adaptability Adjustment Sustenance	Link to the challenges & evidence: How Why Which	System	Perception Coping Impact Key elements
Social awareness	Recognition	Reading group's reason for expressed emotion(s)	Empathy Service orientation Organisational awareness	Accurate assessment Adaptability Adjustment Sustenance	Link to the challenges & evidence: How Why Which	System	Perception Coping Impact Key elements
Relationship management	Regulation	Adaptability Adjustment Sustenance	Developing others Influence Communication Conflict management Leadership Change catalyst Building bonds Teamwork & collaboration	Reciprocal interaction Ethical bonding relationship Sustenance	Link to the challenges & evidence: How Why Which	System	Perception Coping Impact Key elements
Change orientation	Develop Strengthen Enhance	Researcher to identify change need	Researcher's corroboration	Researchers critical thinking with chains of evidence	Link to the challenges & evidence: How Why Which	System	Perception Coping Impact Key elements
Emerging theme	Common words outside Goleman's domains	Researcher's role	Identify Recognise Label Interpret	Analyse in context to research question & consistency or use	Link to the challenges & evidence: How. Why Which	System	Perception Coping Impact Key elements

The table 6.1 presented above is a presentation of how Goleman' emotional competence framework that was used for data analysis, interpretation and subsequent development of an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education. The first line of the table comprises objectives of the table. Underneath are emotional competences of self-awareness and self-management (personal competences) and social awareness and relationship management

(social competences), change orientation and an emerging theme. The objective is to elicit information using perception, understanding , emotional competence clusters used, application analysis of participants' narratives linked to professional, academic and institutional challenges and the theoretical systems involved. These aspects are elucidated next:

- Perception: This focuses on participants' ability to identify and label felt emotions. This refers to the ability of the lecturer to identify personal and institutional strength in regulating felt emotions. It also involves the personal areas that they need to develop, strengthen and enhance resilience;

- Understanding: This focuses attention on participants' ability to identify reason for the felt or expressed emotions in self and other people. It also entails a close look at the ability to understand the emotional message and use previous identified strengths and weaknesses to manage the emotions. The ability of the lecturers to identify ways to use the emotional message to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves was examined;

- Emotional competence clusters used: This focuses on pinpointing the exact emotional clusters to manage the emotions by the participants through noting the commonness in the use of the words;

- Application knoweldge: This focuses on ways the participants applied the emotional competences. This involves rigorous matching of words, the kind of emotional words used, comparing and triangulating, searching for meaning, explanation, description of situations for accurate assessment application knowledge and how it was applied. It also searches for cues of adaptability, adjustment sustenance of the individual to build reciprocal interaction and ethical bonding relationship within the institutional environment;

- Link to professional, academic and institutional challenges: This focuses on extracting words for chains of evidence to establish the link with the challenges and emotional competence application, how it was applied, why and using which system;

- Theoretical system involved: This focuses on the system and in the ability of the lecturer to identify the Bronfenbrenner's ecological system in which the emotional competence was applied and how and why the system was used. This involves critical examination of the five systems to identify the system label by the lecturer, what happened and how it happened; and

- Analysis and interpretation of participant's narratives: In analysis and interpretation, the research puts the resulting common words together, grouping them according to themes and categories through connection of meanings, matching patterns from different research sites and participants to develop the model.

The overall strategy is to build a trustworthy process and develop the best way to decide on the procedure for identification of key elements for an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education in Nigeria. This approach is made simple to ensure that application is likely to produce the result when applied repeatedly.

6.6   AN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODEL

The emotional intelligence model for tertiary education provides a framework to address the challenges posed to lecturers' emotional intelligence. Sub-question four was: What will be the key elements of emotional intelligence model for Nigerian university lecturers? The researcher discovered in her interview with the participants that the key element was the fundamental means for developing, strengthening and enhancing the emotional intelligence. It was also to provide opportunity for other questions to account for the need for emotional intelligence models for tertiary education.

The emotional intelligence model for tertiary education as proposed by me has five components within the bigger text box content. They form the basis for formulation and implementation of the model and were derived from the use of Goleman's emotional intelligence competences as data interpretation guide in this study. The model has one external text box with content as external focus comprising the federal government, ministry of education, national university commission and other agencies with interest to support the centre for emotional intelligence programmes. The emotional intelligence model for tertiary education is designed to address the challenges and areas of change orientation for lecturers and any interest bodies.
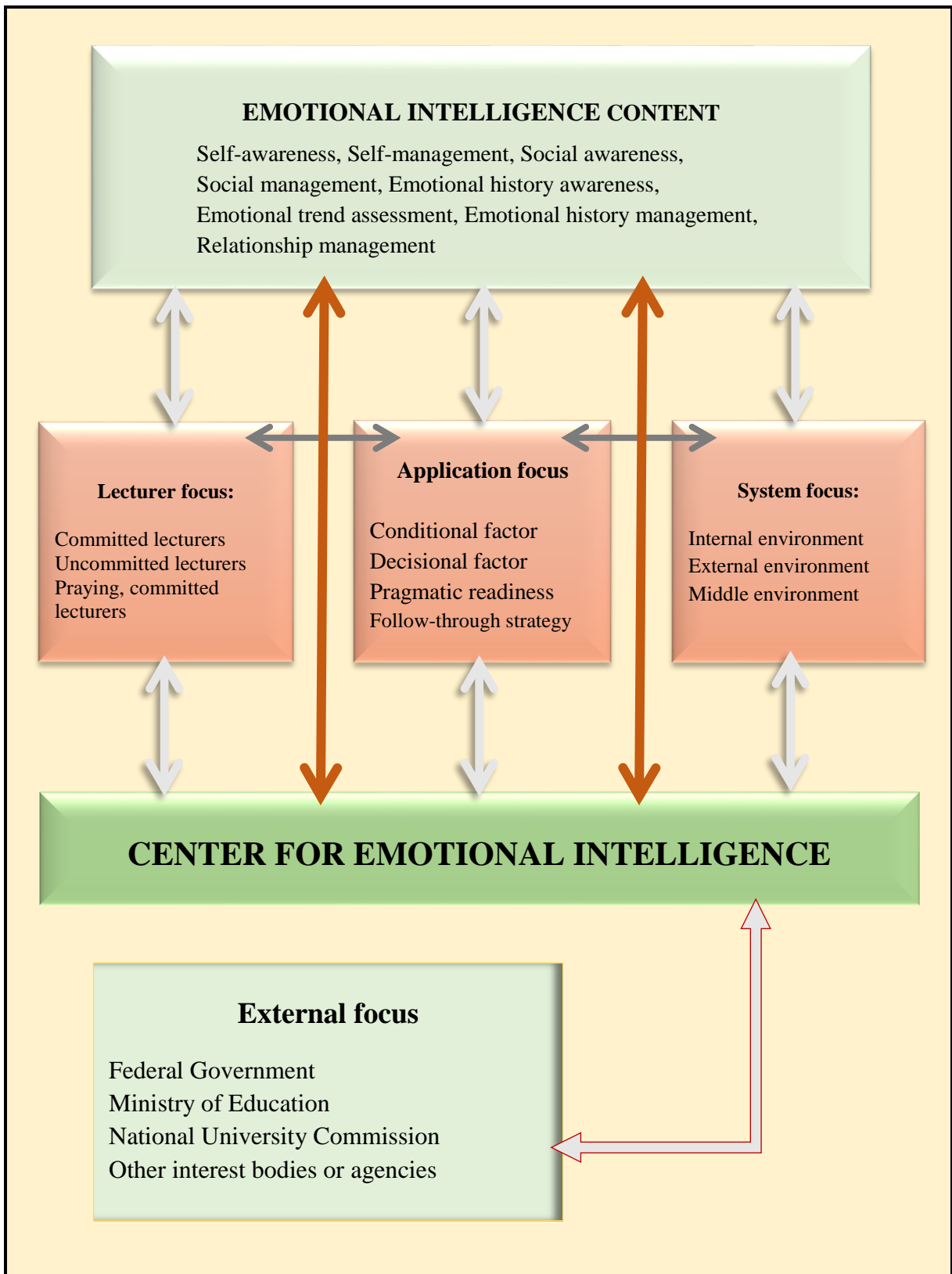
**Figure 6.1:** **Emotional Intelligence model for tertiary educatio**n

Figure 6.1 above comprises six main components, five internal and one external. The five components within the bigger text box content comprise emotional intelligence content focus,

lecturer focus, system focus application focus and centre for emotional intelligence. At the top most is a text box with green, showing emotional intelligence content comprising self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, social management, emotional history awareness, emotional trend assessment, emotional history management and relationship management. The emotional intelligence content is to be used to address the emotional intelligence needs of lecturers depending on the lecturer focus.

The text box on the left side in orange shows the lecturer focus comprising three major types of lecturers that should need emotional intelligence, such as committed lecturers, uncommitted lecturers and praying lecturers. The second text box from the left-side of the larger box in orange shows system focus comprising three major types of environment vital in this study as internal environment, external environment and middle environment. At the extreme of system focus is text box content in orange, showing the application focus comprising conditional factor, decisional factor, pragmatic readiness and follow-through strategy which is a process to ensure appropriate formulation, implementation and application of emotional intelligence.

At the centre of the text box with green, the emotional intelligence is indicated which reveals the major system to drive the formulation and implementation of emotional intelligence programmes within the institutions. The outside environment reveals stakeholders that should provide adequate support to power the effectiveness and efficiency of the centre for emotional intelligence. The colour of the arrows signifies the intensity of expectation and contribution to be made by the components to each other. The connecting process indicates consistent interaction, integration and the relationship between all the components both internally and externally. The aims of the relationship between each component are:

- To contribute to the development and provision of quality services to enhance the structures of each focus;

- To monitor the progress, identify emerging challenges and address it immediately; and

- To improve the managerial style and programme offered with consistent feedback;

The external focus is extremely necessary because to achieve an emotionally literate institutional environment demands more than institutional input. The contribution of the external focus should be used to complement the input of the centre for emotional intelligence. The components of the model are further presented and discussed.

6.6.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE CONTENT

Emotional intelligence has become highly valued as keystone to cushion challenges, perform with reduced stress and achieve professional and personal success. The existing literature and empirical findings of this study reveal that emotional intelligence is central to coping with challenges that increase self-doubt, moral guilt, emotional distress and cognitive frustration. The learnable character of emotional intelligence gives it the edge in the provision of opportunity for every individual irrespective of age, gender, educational background and administrative position to learn, master and translate into job success. Emotional intelligence models for tertiary education are designed to ensure lecturers and other bodies of interest. It involves strategic planning through problem identification, labelling, interpretation and application of produced knowledge. In attempting to interpret the findings of this study, I discovered two key factors that resulted in the use of Goleman emotional competence (2004) as data interpretation framework. They are: emotional knowledge production components and emotional knowledge application components.

In emotional knowledge production, the focus should be on self-awareness, social awareness, emotional history awareness, and emotional history trend assessment to motivate internal and external strengths and weaknesses in having such experiences and handling them. The strategic process for emotional knowledge production consists of the following steps:

- Examine felt-emotions to identify and label;

- Examine the identified and label emotions to pin down the trend in occurrence;

- Assess emotional message without bias and judgemental attitude for deeper insight into the derived information;

- Identify distressing thoughts intervening to frustration the chances of more balanced thoughts and emotional understanding; and

- Identify strengths and weakness in preventing and handling emotions.

In emotional knowledge application, the focuses should be on self-management, social-management, emotional history management, relationship management for development, strengthening and enhancement of ability to apply produced knowledge. The strategic process for emotional knowledge application consists of the following steps:

- Establish the level of awareness of strength and weakness in application of produced knowledge;

- Identify the level of subjectivity and objectivity in identified strength and weakness to increase application strength;

- Identify the emotional intelligence application level of the lecturers to address the specific need;

- Identify the level of pragmatic readiness to act to design suitable follow-through strategy; and

- Identify lecturers and institutional willingness to provide supporting environment and provide the training.

The application components demands strong pragmatic readiness and follow-through strategies to ensure concrete evidence-based outcomes.

6.6.2   LECTURER FOCUS

Lecturer focus deals with the level of each lecturer's emotional intelligence within a particular university at the time of the proposed training. The empirical evidence of this study revealed that some lecturers' exhibited different levels of emotional intelligence, this indicates that some lecturers needed to develop emotional intelligence competence because they lacked knowledge of the concept and potential skills to apply. The findings also reveal that some lecturers had layman's knowledge of emotional intelligence but exhibited some aspects of emotional intelligence, indicating that such lecturers need to be refocused and provided with education and training to strengthen their emotional intelligence. The findings also reveal that some lecturers have knowledge of emotional intelligence but fail to apply it under intense emotional pressure because of their need for ego protection, consistent rationalisation and lack of forgiveness, indicating that the need to strengthen and enhance application of emotional intelligence to ensure professional and personal success. This study also found that some lecturers were emotionally intelligent, hence their need was consistent enhancement of their emotional intelligence.

6.6.3   SYSTEM FOCUS

The system focus is the major determinant of the extent lecturers acquire and use emotional intelligence for professional and personal success. Bronfenbrenner (1979) found that ecological systems promote or mar progress. Several studies that used the systems affirmed his assertion (see 6, 6.1,). In this study, the evidence derived from participants' narrative demonstrated that the systems played major parts in promoting challenges that impacted on lecturers despite their application of diverse coping strategies. Bronfenbrenner (1979) emphasised that systems characterised with warmth and reciprocal interaction and relationships are the actual force that drives progress. However, the findings of this study revealed that the environment in which lecturers functioned was characterised with negative emotions which impacted on their

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perception, change behaviour and promoted disfunctionality. This understanding of the systems will guide the implementation of emotional intelligence model. The system defines the environment of the lecturer and the systems are:

The microsystem is the immediate environment of the lecturer, where the individual and capacities to navigate challenges are tested. In this system lecturers' ability to use self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, social management, emotional history awareness, emotional trend assessment, emotional history management and relationship management enhances personal, social emotional navigation.

The mesosystem is the environment that accumulates the outcome of the experiences of interaction and relationship of other system. In this system the self-management, emotional history management and relationship management abilities of the lecturer are highly tested.

The exosystem is the indirect environment with powerful influence on the lecturers' ability to perform with needed working resources. The ability of lecturers to navigate the challenges with self-awareness of personal strength and weakness helps them to provide quality services and produce quality in education.

The macrosystem deals with the cultural norms of the institution, however, the ability of the lecturers to understand the subtle nature and influence of societal norms in interaction and relationship within the system reduces being professional outcast or ostracised. The ability to navigate the systems demands the emotional knowledge production and emotional knowledge application to navigate the cultural norms and function well.

The chronosystem deals with the historical perspectives of the system and transitional challenges. I consider this system very important because it builds the emotional history that makes transition very difficult and coping unattainable. The ability of the lecturer to apply produced emotional knowledge to intelligently navigate the influence of emotional history reduces the impact on emotion

The five were found to contribute to lecturers challenges in different categories. This led to the grouping of the system into three major systems such as the internal environment, the external environment and the middle environment.

❖   **The internal system**

The internal system defines an environment situated on the inside of the lecturers' immediate environment which contributes and determines the job performance, the quality of the services offered by the lecturer and the quality of the products in education. The internal environment

is defined by the fact that it is the closet environment, comprises the norms and culture that models the lecturers' perception of challenges. Effective application of macrosystem's rules and regulation reflects in reduces negative experiences and enhances lecturers' optimism. Hence the microsystem lacking adequate structures to handle challenges, create negative experience that make the lecturers' internal environment difficult to manage. This indicates the emotional intelligence target for the internal environment must focus on building strong structures guided with supportive philosophical rules and pragmatic readiness. The internal environment is an indicator for performance and coping competence because it is the lecturers' closet system which refers to the lecturer, the individual and his or her capabilities to navigate the experience of challenges and emotions.

❖ The external system

The external system is the exosystem and creates a work environment characterised with a lack of working resources which in turn make lecturers' work conditions unbearable. The external system creates economic hardship that make the microsystem activities to reflect a negative managerial style and the macrosystem norms and culture to lack authentic application furthering negative perception and behaviour. The external system introduces economic hardship that makes planning and implementation and institutional financial planning haphazard. The external system is an indicator for financial capacity and lecturers' experience of emotional pressure. This indicates that emotional intelligence content should not neglect the social emotional environment of the lecturers influenced and driven by the external environmental factor.

❖ The middle system

The middle system is the mesosystem and the chronosystem. The middle system on the average build, accumulate challenges and emotional experiences that impact on lecturers. The mesosystem gathers the outcome of interaction of other systems which the chronosystem builds over time, making transition often very difficult, because of both personal and social emotional history. The middle system reveals the widely shared problems, the historical nature and the intensity of the emotional impact. It encompasses the events of other systems and influences the way the lecturers experience challenges and transit from positive experiences to negative experiences. The middle system plays a dual part, existing in the internal and external environment and influences both the perceptions and reaction of the internal and external environment. The middle system is dual, because it influences the way the lecturers perceive governmental behaviour towards their experience of challenges which forms their lack of trust in government ability to solve tertiary education challenges and consistent trust on trade union. In the same way the chronosystem provides the mesosystem with historical perspectives of the

challenges which provide the lens for viewing the experiences and decisions to change professional behaviour. The middle system is therefore pervasive, subtle and manipulative. It is an indicator for emotional history because the historical nature of challenges and the accumulation of the unpleasant emotional experiences reveal the reason for selective relationship, affective and self-disconnection, professional delinquency as against the experiences of cognitive motivation, affective connection and reciprocal relationship. Emotional intelligence content in the middle system should focus on building, strengthening and enhancing lecturers' ability to transit from unpleasant emotional history to pleasant emotional intelligence.

6.6.4   APPLICATION FOCUS

The strategies for ensuring model success are presented and discussed as:

❖   **Pragmatic readiness and follow-through strategies**

Pragmatic readiness involves consistent willingness to apply the emotional knowledge produced from self-awareness, social awareness and emotional history awareness to challenges, reduce the impacts on lecturers and the systems. Follow-through is a monitoring device to ensure thorough implementation of planned programmes and documentation of outcomes. It involves designing of emotional intelligence competences with objectives to motivate and inspire accurate production and praticalisation of produced emotional knowledge to achieve emotional intelligence. Pragmatic readiness ensures that the tenets, principles, ideas built into emotional intelligence domains and clusters are truly put into practice in daily activities and actions. Pragmatic readiness is an indicator that emotional intelligence model is likely to be applied, if the lecturers display skills of thinking in a self-motivating, realistic and optimistic style.

Pragmatic readiness in an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education commands practicability with prudence, perseverance and unapologetic calm, response to emotional outrage of colleagues. Follow-through strategies support and increase pragmatic readiness on the part of lecturers, university management, government and the trade union. Follow-through strategies will encompass set plans to ensure connection between the three tiers of authority driving the activities of academic staff through consistent redesigning, monitoring and documentation of evidence-based results.

❖ **Conditional factor**

The conditional factor from external environment influences the decision to acquire prerequisite working resources to strengthen and enhance teaching and learning with reduced emotional pressures for lecturers (for example inadequate funding limits implementation of educational programmes). The centre must collaborate with the national university commission to sensitise and educate the stakeholders on the importance of handling conditional factors in an emotionally intelligent manner to improve quality service delivery and productivity in education.

❖ **Decisional factor**

The decisional factor forms the internal environment that influences the ability to generate internal revenue to acquire prerequisite equipment and facilities required for effective implementation and management of the institution. Equipment and implementation strategies must be reviewed. The need to make decisions on inadequate funding and creating coping structures for lecturers have become important. Decisional factors in the model imply that ensuring success through the centre for emotional intelligence demands practical decisions capable of driving formulation and implementation of programmes without obstacles. The centre for emotional intelligence must identify the programme, system focus and lecturer focus to enable identification of human and material resources required, the duration of the programme, the timing and cost involved to ensure that the funders understand their involvement.

❖ **Stakeholders**

The stakeholder refers to parties interested in activities of tertiary education and centres for emotional intelligence in particular such as the federal government, federal ministry of education, the national university commission and university management. Stakeholders do not include funding agencies and business organisations with practical interest.

❖ **Centre for emotional intelligence**

The need for a centre for emotional intelligence originated from the suggestions of the participants, who mentioned that establishment of an emotional intelligence centre, could help solve social and personal problems of not only lecturers but other members of the university. The centre will provide universities with emotional intelligence competence as yardstick for recruiting and retaining staff to curb the growing deteriorating mental health. The centre should be able to design approaches to work with figures and words on the emotional state of the institution to prevent strikes and students unrest. The centre should further promote and advance

emotional intelligence for academic staff, other prospective clients and the institutions to curb the influence of emotional history in the personal and social life of institutions.

❖ **External focus**

The application of emotional intelligence in tertiary institutions may demand more than just establishment of a centre for emotional intelligence. It requires authentic support to ensure a full focus on lecturers and the environment with high pragmatic readiness to reduce conditional factor likely to posed obstacles through increase in decision-making.

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents the recommendations emanating from the study with the focus on the emotional intelligence of lecturers to enable them to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges. The key empirical findings of this study guided the recommendations because it reveals my judgement of potential guiding principles and line of action to target the improvement of emotional intelligence of lecturers, reduction of challenges and improvement of tertiary education. In this regard, the recommendation for this study draws carefully and interestingly from a collection of key empirical findings that resulted from this research. It also draws from identified gaps in existing literature in Chapters 2-3 that guided the aims of the study.

6.7.1 RECOMMENDATION 1

Addressing emotional intelligence needs of academic staff through the establishment of a centre for emotional intelligence in tertiary institutions:

The establishment of a centre for emotional intelligence is a way of developing, strengthening and improving academic staff's emotional intelligence levels. The proposed centre is expected to facilitate formulation, implementation of an emotional intelligence model and follow-through. The idea is to ensure that programmes are monitored and outcomes properly documented for future review. Since this study perceived the establishment of a centre for emotional intelligence as a major strategy to manage professional, academic and institutional challenges, *this study recommends* that university management should be responsible for:

- Provision of working office and facilities for the set-up of the centre for emotional intelligence;

- Employment of emotional intelligence personnel and administrators to ensure the quality programme, design, services offered and programme implementation are monitored and documented;

- Establishment of mini centres at faculty and departmental level to ensure consistency in programme and implementation standards as well as adherence to ethical rules of the institutions;

- Faculties should liaise with centres constantly to ensure information on upcoming events is well communicated to the lecturers to increase coordination and cooperation of lecturers in the use of the centre facilities; and

- Ensure departments organise, motivate and mobilise lecturers to participate in the programmes.

6.7.2   RECOMMENDATION 2
Promoting and advancing lecturers' participation through increase need focus

The major aim for the establishment of the centre is to provide emotionally intelligent education and training programmes for better understanding of ways to manage challenges. Lecturers' utilisation of the services offered by the centre will empower their decisions to apply emotional knowledge through pragmatic readiness to act. Hence, to promote and advance lecturers' full participation, *this study recommends that* the centre for emotional intelligence should:

- Liaise with the faculties and departments to generate data from the lecturers to identify and place them in appropriate levels to ensure that the emotional intelligence model content addresses their self-perceived needs. This is because the three types of lecturers identified in this study demand different emotional intelligence competences;

- Use the information derived from the faculties and department to accurately select and place lecturers in appropriate levels to ensure the model effectively address lecturers' needs; and

- Provide lecturers to run the departments with accurate emotional information willingly to ensure that programmes are effectively designed and efficiently implemented.

In this regard, *this study further recommends* that the faculty and departments should plan ahead to accommodate programmes to ensure lecturers' full participation.

6.7.3   RECOMMENDATION 3
Targeting each system to ensure that pragmatic readiness to act towards learning, mastering and applying emotional intelligence content is strengthened

Empirical evidence shows that the systems group under internal, external and middle environment drives the challenges which lecturers experience in various degrees. The study recommends that the centre for emotional intelligence should launch national programmes to ensure that pragmatic readiness to act is increased amongst systems. The aim must be awareness building and gap bridging through the understanding of the impact of challenges on lecturers' emotions and mental health to attend to lecturers' prerequisite needs and lessen insistent strikes.

6.7.4   RECOMMENDATION 4
Branding and marketing emotional intelligence programmes to agencies, private and public sectors of the economy to promote and advance emotional intelligence implementation and outcomes

The review of literature and empirical evidence shows that the conditional factor, decisional factor and low pragmatic readiness to act lessen strategic implementation of good programmes. This study recommends a centre for emotional intelligence should brand and market programmes to private and public sectors of the economy as well as to agencies within and outside the country to promote and advance the realities that demands, emotional intelligence. *This study recommends the following*:

- The federal government in collaboration with the federal Ministry of Education and National University Commission should advise and authorise voluntary participation of interested agencies in promotion of emotional intelligence programmes; and

- The university management should ensure that the agencies, private and public sector contribute within the government, prescribe limits to ensure quality control in input and output.

6.7.5   RECOMMENDATION 5
Addressing policy needs of emotional intelligence

The empirical evidence showed the three types of lecturers that emerged in this study. The lecturers within their types experience further challenges that complicate adaptation and adjustment as they strive to sustain themselves within the system. Promoting and advancing an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education demands policy support to provide guidelines to compel substantial sustainable development. Policy support for emotional intelligence is important because emotions are contagious and social issues impact on lecturers and functioning systems. In this regard*, this study recommends:*

- The federal government should establish a task force comprising emotional intelligence personal, administrators and professionals, and legislators for the formulation of emotional intelligence policy;

- The Ministry of Education, National University Commission and university management should ensure policy adoption to further strategic implementation of an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education.

6.7.6   RECOMMENDATION 6
The funding policy of the government relating to higher education needs to be adjusted

To meet the professional needs of the academic staff, the National University Commission in collaboration with the Federal Ministry of Education should review funding policy as related to tertiary education at present to ensure adequate funding and availability of teaching resources. ***This study recommends*** that the funding policy review should consider the following:

- The number of youths that are of university age;

- The number of lecturers' ratio to the identified youth at university age;

- The number of students enrolled at each university;

- The number of available lecturers across the three categories of universities in Nigeria;

- The facilities required and available in structures and space within each category of universities;

- The conditions of existing facilities, and needs for renovation in the university, faculty and department; and

- The modern teaching resources available in each faculty and department, for each course model targeting diverse profiles of enrolled students.

The consideration of the above guidelines is to align funding policy with the realities on the ground. It is also to reduce the stress of the academic staff's experience in service delivery in tertiary education. The National University Commission needs to include this information in a proposal for upgrading funding in tertiary education. The guideline listed above will ensure that government addresses the funding needs of tertiary education thereby addressing the lack of teaching resources in tertiary education.

6.7.7　RECOMMENDATION 7
Ensuring the availability of facilities to engage in research

One of the major functions of the lecturers is to engage in research and publication for professional and personal success. The academic staff produces the human capacity needs of the nation through quality teaching, research and engaging in communities. To offer quality in service delivery and achieve quality in produced products, the National University Commission and the university management existence should ensure that lecturers' have facilities to engage in innovative teaching, research and publication. The National University Commission in collaboration with the federal ministry of education should review the policy that placed research and publication as the major yardstick for promotion. *This study recommends the following:*

- Take statistics of the teaching, research and community engagement needs of the tertiary education;

- Take statistics of the modern teaching and research equipment required to produce quality education without pressure;

- Define the identified needs in terms of faculty, department and course module;

- Establish the faculty, department and course model that have more demand for complex and expensive technology for teaching and research.

6.8　RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The concept of emotional intelligence in coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges with regard to the academe in tertiary education is comparatively a new concept in the emotional intelligence research domain, probably in other developing or developed nations. This has underscored contextualisation and conceptualisation of emotional intelligence for tertiary education in African context. However, based on empirical evidence I recommend the following for further research:

There is a need to explore the emotional intelligence model for tertiary education to standardise it and improve the credibility for formal application in tertiary education across other institutions. Moreover, it will contribute to deeper understanding of the ways it can be applied in diverse contexts.

There is a need to establish the role of emotional history as possible obstacle to the application of emotional intelligence for personal and social success. To date emotional intelligence

scholars have neglected the role of emotional history in directing actions and reactions in any given social environment.

There is also need to examine the role of religious ideologies and norms of Christianity, Islam and African tradition in spiritual resilience. It could reveal the dynamic nature and massive permeation of religious ideologies in guiding and shepherding the perception, behaviour and cognition of lectures in professional and personal success. Testing spiritual resilience within the three religious organisations could reveal deeper sources of emotional competence for living an emotionally intelligent day-to-day life.

There is need to explore emotional resilience with regard to the use of expectations and purpose to establish the what, how and why it should be devoid of anxiety and frustration, because inappropriate use of emotional resilience could further emotions problems.

The researcher therefore recommends that further research in the above-mentioned domains is important, urgent and demands immediate attention.

6.9   LIMITATIONS

The limitation of the study was the selection of two out of the six geo-political zones in Nigeria. This selection was based on the violence that characterises some part of Nigeria at the time of this research which does not guarantee the safety of the researcher and the research participants.

6.10   EPISTEMOLOGICAL   UNDERSTANDING   ON   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN COPING WITH CHALLENGES AMONG NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

The concept of epistemology and epistemological understanding on the findings of the case study in relation to the issue of emotional intelligence and coping with challenges among lecturers in Nigerian universities constitute an important aspect of this study. Epistemological understanding is directed towards appropriateness of the procedures applied to generate data and responsive application of such procedure in data analysis, interpretation and knowledge construction. The term epistemology, according to Schwandt (2001:7) is concerned with the study of the nature of knowledge, justification and limitation. Adequacy of knowledge and justification of the process of producing the knowledge are crucial for quality criteria of the qualitative research (Carter & Little, 2007:2). The process of producing knowledge defines the way research should be analysed within the fundamental paradigm serving as the foundation for constructing knowledge and a specific method of investigation (Schwandt 2001) such as a

case study. Epistemology modifies the methodology and justifies the produced knowledge (Kitcher, 2000, Schwandt 2001; Moser, 2002).

In this study, case study research design proved valuable in the sampling of the research sites and participants, processes of data analysis, interpretation and shaping of knowledge construction. The approaches described in this study are case study oriented such as a research paradigm situated within case study research, case study design, multiple case study analysis and case study data interpretation procedures. Hence, the case study is very relevant to exploring emotional intelligence of lecturers, the way lecturers used it to adapt, changed or sustained themselves in coping with professional, academic an institutional challenges in Nigerian universities. As a result, a case study influences the findings of this study through its processes and practices (Yin, 2003; Stake, 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) such as the purposeful selection of three different categories of universities with a different ownership structure and a purposive selection of four lecturers from each of the universities.

The dynamic qualities of a case study ensure focus on a theoretical framework, applied to enrich the data gathering, scrutiny and knowledge construction (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003). The use of multiple case studies analysis added value to the understanding of issues of emotional intelligence and lecturers coping from the fact that emotions are a highly personal subjective experience. In this regard, the researcher relies on participants' self-verbal reports of experience of emotions (Weiten, 2013:404). Self-verbalisation helps participants to narrate automatic reactions that are difficult to control (Otman & Wiers, 2003; Winklelman & Bridge, 2004). Self-verbalisation of felt emotions reveals the way the individual perceives the challenges causing that emotions and the impact (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Ferguson & Bargh, 2004; Clore & Ortonyi, 2008). The value of self-report formed the motivation to use semi-structured interviews to dig into participants' physiological and psychological state for felt emotions (Janig, 2003; Keltner et al, 2003; Tracy & Robins, 2008; David, Matsumoto and Bob Willingham, 2009) to understand the way they adapted, changed or sustained themselves in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

To gather rich deep information on emotional intelligence demands multiple case study analysis to help unravel the tricky hidden nature of emotions in perception, thinking and expression (Mesquita, 2003; Mesquita & Leu, 2007). Multiple case study analysis revealed the similarities and differences in patterns of adaptation, change or sustenance with emotional intelligence amongst the participants of the three universities. The approaches of matching patterns to align with Goleman's emotional competences and noting the emerging competences, triangulation with chains of evidence and corroboration from the three universities helped in understanding issues of emotional intelligence in coping with challenges. The triangulation also showed the

way in which sense can be made out of the analysed and interpreted data to attach emotional meaning to it, basically because meanings can be found in expressed intentions. Meaning making in epistemological understanding of ways in which lecturers' emotional intelligence focuses on the way lecturers perceive and interpret their lived experience of challenges, the impact on emotions, behaviours, perspectives and the core influence on the quality of services offered. I reflected on the whole context of this study. I realised that lecturers need for professional and self-identity, theoretical diversity and spiritual culture guided the process of adaptation, change or sustenance in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges. I also discovered the importance of the clarification of meaning of emotional intelligence, fundamental core beliefs and assumptions such as important expectations and value situations to improve beliefs that emotional intelligence is worthwhile for coping with challenges in any given environment.

Reflecting on lecturers' adaptation, changed or sustained self with emotional intelligence, the issues of professional and self-identity surfaced. The care and support derived from trade unionism built professional and self-identity of lecturers which helped them to assert themselves amidst challenges. Professional and self-identity are derived from the trade unions' consistent fight for quality education with much emphasis on funds for educational equipment and technology that should increase the teaching of transferable skills of vocational values for immediate application (Travers, 2008.) I reflected on what quality higher education entails, which according to UNICEF (2002) defines working conditions that provide infrastructure and working resources, manageable class size, and good salary as well as support which promote quality education. Drawing from UNICEF (2002), I argue that Nigerian higher education has failed to meet the criteria for quality education. This made the trade union's emphasis on strikes after failure of the government to keep to an agreement made at the negotiation table even more prominent. Strike is an indication of the need for the government to contribute meaningfully for higher education quality. To arrive at this conclusion I interpreted the activities of trade unions through participants' comments in this study.

I applied hermeneutics, interpretations, varying emphasis concerning the repeated words that affirmed the notion of professional and self-identity as mode of adaptation and self-sustenance, aiming to approach saturation of available meaning to obtain the most culturally appropriate term for academic environment (Darke et al., 1998; Klein & Myers, 1999). I went on to connect envisioned meanings and understandings of verbal and non-verbal words (this is where the field notes became very vital) (Baškarada & Koronios, 2013). I interpreted meaning with regard to participants' trade union reports of care, support and empathy; I created new meaning from preserved truth (Chandler, 2007; Beynon-Davies, 2009). I analysed the non-verbal signs such as "hummm" to (meaning deep, unexplainable pain) "eeehhhhmmm" (hesitant to disclose),

which prompted the drive for probing questions bearing in mind my ethical obligations to create a harmless climate during and after the interviews. I linked the interpreted meaning to the social-cultural environment of each participant to ensure the accuracy of my interpretation. This idea is supported by Beynon-Davies (2007) that societal actions are situated and reinforced by verbal and non-verbal signs.

In using the tools of hermeneutic interpretations, I became the outsider-insider; the outsider, because only the participants experienced the professional, academic and institutional challenges and could identify the emotions and the importance of trade union contributions in calming the emotions. At the same I became an insider, because of better understanding of the experiences, labelled emotions and impact as well as the position of trade unions in helping the lecturers to build a professional identity through an improved sense of belonging. This idea gave me the opportunity to reflect on the complexity of resolving the trade union versus the government's lack of pragmatic readiness to act towards alleviating lecturers' vulnerability to pressure. It also provided better understanding of the reason for an unbroken bond between lecturers and trade unions over time. However, trade unionism in building professional and self-identify is not relevant in the context of privately-based universities, because at present the trade union is not permitted. Thus, it is obvious that one cannot assume that the trade unionism in building professional and self-identity of academic staff is applicable to privately-based universities.

With regard to theoretical diversities, the three concepts "to adapt, change or sustain self" are shaped by interpretation each participant gave to professional, academic and institutional challenges. The value of adapting, changing or sustaining themselves lies in emphasis on a procedure (action) and consequence (final state) (Piaget, 1967; Simonet, 2009) in emotional intelligence application to challenges. I applied the concepts to speak clearly and lay emphasis on challenges, impacts on emotions and the understanding of the concept of emotional intelligence, which influenced the understanding of the actions of lecturers in trying to adapt, change of sutain themselves. I noticed in pattern-matching and corroboration, that the concept of emotional intelligence is a relatively new concept and its meaning is still perceived at layman's level. This drew my attention to an urgent need for concept clarification. Reflecting on this, although others may view this as a limitation, I view it as strength because it contributed to a great extent to the elimination of negative effects of prior knowledge such as subjective answers in this study. Moreover, I highlighted the urgent need for a theoretical explanation of emotional intelligence.

On the other hand, critical scrutiny of ways lecturers have adapted changed or sustained themselves, revealed diverse notions of strategies such as clique formation, self and social

disconnection, and selective relationships. This disclosure shows that lecturer' ideas of ways to adapt, change or sustain themselves, vary according to each person's need for balance within the system, not specifically through application of emotional competences. It also pinpointed the weakness in application of information derived from awareness of professional, academic and institutional challenges and the impact on emotions and is a further indication of low application of emotional intelligence to sustain themselves. These adaption behaviours are anti-emotional competence, anti-functionality and capable of lowering quality of service and productivity in education, from which emerged more anti-emotional intelligence behaviour such as emotional history. Emotional history is viewed as the influence of the accumulated emotions of past significant events that happened during relationship and interactional processes within the system. Triangulation and chains of evidence across the three universities affirmed the extensive use of past unpleasant events that occurred within the system as mode of adaptation.

Emotional history shaped the context of adapt, change or sustain and favouring of those 'with similar minds' not those with right technical, academic and emotional competence. Emotional history as form of self-sustenance has a far greater impact on the quality of services, quality of productivity and quality of managerial style as well as generational consequences as the junior lecturers would repeat the same action once they are made senior lecturers. This interplay of emotions of the past with the systemic challenges to influence adaptation behaviour indicates an urgent need for emotional intelligence model targeting lecturers. It reveals that lecturers have different perspectives of coping ingrained in the past with emotional significances; each individual is treated based on the past events and thus in this instance redefining the use of emotional intelligence to cope with professional, academic and institutional challenges at Nigerian universities.

I looked at the practical application of emotional intelligence in these three universities to understand the processes that indicate adaptation and results of such procedures. I reflected on different reasons why the participants took diverse actions to adapt to the challenges. I interpreted it as maladaptation: sentimentality of inconsistency between the individual and others (Simonet, 2009) which I view as the major sources of poor adaptation. I also interpreted it as system constraints (lack of lecturer-friendly care and support systems) which led to diverse coping strategies to ensure survival and reinstatement of balance for the individual mostly to reduce health implications (Trudel et al, 2001; Plancherel, 2001). I summed up by arguing that though the three universities are striving to adapt, change or sustain themselves, the processes lack emotional intelligence, because emotional competences help in adaptation and self-sustenance (Mayer & Salovey,1997; Goleman, 1998; Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001, 2003; Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Lopes, Salovey,

and Straus, 2003; Brackett, Lopes, Ivcevic, Mayer & Salovey, 2004; Brackett, Mayer & Warner, 2004; Coetzee & Jansen, 2007). This is achieved through increase in understanding of individual differences in emotional behaviour for responsive management (Johnson, 1981; Sternberg & Ruzgis, 1994; Bar-On, 1997; Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Watson, 2000; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Makhanya, 2007; Osborne, 2013). Another reason for interpreting the identified mode of adaptation, change or self-sustenance as low emotional intelligence is because emotional competence increases accommodation of diverse attitudes of individuals and integration into the system with quality kindness and support (Coetzee & Jansen, 2007; Nelson & Low, 2011) to ensure perseverance for conceivable results (Goleman, 2004; Crick, Green, Barr, Shafi & Peng, 2013; Gu & Johansson, 2013).

Furthermore, studies have shown that emotional competence influences social adaptation and success in professional and personal lives (Pekrun, 1992; Gardner, 1993; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002a; Nelson & Low, 2011). It also facilitates superior managers and better management style (Goleman, 1995, 1998b; Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000; Mayer, 2006; Coetzee & Jansen, 2007). Emotional competence increases selflessness and communal excellence and social change furthering proper adaptation (Charbonneau & Nicol, 2002; Engelberg & Sjöberj, 2004). Researchers have made known that the use of emotional competence reduced unpleasant connections with colleagues, fewer rivalry and resentment with friends which, is turn, builds excellent relationships (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Brackett, Mayer &Warner, 2004; Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schütz, Sellin & Salovey, 2004; Lopes, Salovey & Straus, 2003). These studies informed my assumption that lecturers have not used emotional intelligence appropriately to adapt, change or sustain themselves in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

Regarding spiritual culture, I also discovered a high quality relationship with religiosity and emotional resilience across the three universities. Epistemologically, I view this high quality relationship as a strong sense of identity formed and strengthened by religious ideologies and search for emotional resilience through spirituality. Most lecturers' connection and reconnection to the spiritual community provides a sense of belonging, feeling of calmness and encouragement. The spiritual strength helps to adapt, change and sustain themselves amidst the challenges. Self-sustenance emerges as individual lecturers come together under religious communities to share values and principles by pointing in the right direction, spiritual motives endorsed in the holy book to urge the members to use the knowledge to solve life challenges. There is evidence from this study that each verse of the holy book, irrespective of the religious organisation promotes spiritual and emotional harmony through unique examples of lived experiences of past people. The essence is to point out strength and weaknesses from exemplified lived experiences to motivate optimism for emotionally intelligent living.

Epistemologically, I interpret the engagement of spiritual culture as a strategy to sustain the individual with emotional intelligence competences indirectly. Spiritual principles and standards in the participants' narratives are for lifelong emotional competence built on deep respect for and reliance on God. I interpret the deep knowledge of religiosity in the narratives as basic instructions on ways to adapt, adjust and sustain the individual with emotional intelligence. Arguably, I insist that the basic components of emotional intelligence are commonly found in all holy books as narrated by the participants such as ways to sustain the individual amidst challenges by praying five times a day and by praying consistently. I interpret the two main components of different religious groups as evident in this study as a strategy to build calmness in challenging times and to live an emotionally intelligent life. The purpose of spirituality is to teach people emotional intelligence, to help them adapt, adjust and sustain themselves more appropriately without moral guilt. Ideally, spiritual culture should drive responsive application of emotional intelligence across religious organisation.

On the other hand, lecturers vary in ability to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves with emotional intelligence within Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems. Lecturers with doctoral degrees have acquired years of experiences. Although they experienced emotional impact, their years of experience is a pathway to navigation of certain aspects of challenges such as human interactional and working resources through improvisation. This use of years of experience may elude the younger lecturer, particularly those reading their doctoral degrees. Drawing from the evidence of this study, the youngest lecturer is 40 years reading her doctoral degree. She is more vocal on research and publication, workload and emotional resilience (see 5.4.2: 5.4.2.1; 5.4.2.2 and 5.5:5.5.2.2). Sandra emphasises research and publication. I interpreted it as an indication of frustration and hopelessness. I interpreted an emphasis on unfair workload as an indication of frustration, hopelessness and a lack in self-management, particularly procrastination management.

Concerning emotional resilience I interpreted the responses again as an indication of frustration, hopelessness and a lack in self-management. It also revealed a lack in mentoring and coaching for junior lecturers building a sense of defectiveness, because the term "I begged to apply" in Nigeria context means: "After all I am the one that applied for the job so it's my own challenges I will not blame anybody for my experiences." A critical look at the terms and patterns of her language reveals the voices of other junior lecturers echoing through her personal voice. The ability to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves for junior lecturers as represented in Sandra's narratives cannot be effective without emotional competence to build self-confidence, self-control, conscientiousness and achievement drive. This in turn, reveals that emotional intelligence is also needed by senior lecturers to demonstrate empathy, developing others, influence, acting as change catalysts and building bonds as well as engaging in

teamwork/collaboration with junior lecturers. These emotional competences I listed above formed my assumption that senior lecturers whose thinking and behavioural style recognises that junior lecturers need care and support to navigate professional, academic and institutional challenges are self-aware of personal and other strengths and weaknesses in managing challenges.

Epistemologically, I will describe the microsystem as pressurising, disorganised, discriminatory, and lacking pragmatic readiness to enable lecturers to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves. The mesosystem of this study lacks care and support for lecturers which exposes them to vulnerability. This made the lecturers to develop into committed, praying committed and non-committed lecturers. The government and university's managerial style does not inspire, encourage and appreciate lecturers' contribution made with limited working resources.

The macrosystem provided the cultural energy and rules that should enable lecturers to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves with minimal pressure. However, the increase in internationalisation of education and massification/commercialisation of higher education seem to be overpowering as lecturers continue to strive to meet the need of diverse students with limited resources. Lecturers are less likely to cope, because of the managerial style that provides working resources mostly during accreditation. This creates moral guilt for lecturers who are aware that students are not equipped with practical skills for life after graduation. However, lecturers with emotional intelligence are more likely to initiate strategies to promote improvisation, because they are change catalysts.

The chronosystem created adaptation and sustenance issues physically, emotionally, psychologically and socially making to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves with emotional intelligence difficult for lecturers. Lecturers that experience challenges that imprint on their emotional brain (Goleman, 2004) over time often use that imprinted experience of the past to select, relate and interact with other people which makes the chronosystem difficult to transit. These bolted emotions from overtime past experience intrude and interrupt application of emotional competences for lecturers with low emotional intelligence disrupting relationships and reciprocal interactional processes required for quality in service delivery. Emotional history is a huge block for lecturers with low emotional intelligence, because it exerts huge influence when lecturers had to interact in faculty and departmental meetings. Lecturers trapped into emotional history cannot adapt, adjust and sustain themselves, because emotions of the past will always provide information to disorganise proper interaction. These reasons made the ability of lecturers to adapt, change or sustain themselves with emotional intelligence haphazard. The importance attached to the need to promote and advance lecturers' ability to adapt, change or sustain themselves with emotional intelligence led to the development of an

emotional intelligence model for tertiary education. The model looks critically at emotional content, the kinds of lecturers that can exist in the system and the types of environment that can make and mar the progress of lecturers to ensure that application focuses directly on the area of change. Emotional intelligent higher education institutions are more likely to use approaches such as personal and emotional competences to prevent or reduce emotional history, build positive behaviours and commitment by developing, strengthening and enhancing lecturers' ability for proper adaptation, change or sustenance in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

Promoting and advancing of emotional intelligence of lecturers is central to the quality of education in Nigeria, because they are the implementers of educational programmes and connect daily with the students. Lecturers' emotional intelligence is more likely to steer the emotional intelligence of the whole tertiary education, because they are model students and exemplify society. It is on the basis to bridge the gap in emotional intelligence application and to facilitate coping with commonly identified challenges such as for professional, academic and institutional obstacles that link with specific challenges within each universities that lead to the proposing of an emotional intelligence model for tertiary education. The aim was to balance the theoretical diversity associated with diversities in coping as evident in this study.

Theoretical diversity poses issues of generalisation, but similarities of challenges in demand for pragmatic readiness for solution interplay promote generalisation in similar situations. For the purpose of this study, using chains of evidence, corroboration and triangulation provides rich information on the commonalities of professional, academic ad institutional challenges across the universities. It is in essence the commonalities of the challenges that cause trade unions to consistently call for strikes (see Table 2.4). The emotional intelligence model for tertiary education should make contributions to enabling academic staff to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves in any given environment with similar challenges. Likewise, the government, trade unions and organisations that need human capacity building in an area of adaptaion, adjustment or sutenance in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges should be able to benefit from the emotional intelligence model for tertiary education. The model components provide justification for this assertion. The emotional intelligence model accommodates theoretical diversity by a step-by-step process of determining what kind of lecturer needs emotional intelligence, and to determine if they are: committed, religious but committed or non-committed lecturers. The essence of the level is to determine a lecturer that needs to develop, strengthen or enhance their emotional intelligence competence. It is also on the ground of finding commonality in application that the emotional intelligence model has a system focus to determine systems that demand emotional competence. The application focus is to direct the users of the model on identification of areas the emotional intelligence model should address

(see 6.5.4). All aspects of the emotional intelligence model are designed to accommodate and incorporate theoretical diversity that could limit ability to adapt, adjust and sustain the individual, if properly applied in the context of professional, academic and institutional challenges.

Arguably, the case study provided rich information for better understanding of the way emotional intelligence helped lecturers to adapt, adjust and sustain themselves within Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems. The case study was beneficial, because it provided deep information that helped to understand the commonality of professional, academic and institutional challenges across three categories of Nigerian universities. There was a huge similarity in experience, coping strategies and impact on lecturers across the three universities. The case study as research design and analysis tool evidently revealed the high awareness of challenges and emotional impact and low application of emotional competence as coping strategies. Moreover, the use of multiple case study analysis provided the opportunity to interpret common words to establish the meaning within the context of this study, which gave the researcher an in-depth understanding of the common words in the English language and cultural context of the study. The case study analysis showed that younger lecturers read their doctoral experiences with more intense pressure, because they lack mentors and coping experiences. Older lecturers display emotional resilience, because of years of experience, but demonstrate low application of emotional intelligence.

6.11   CONCLUDING REMARKS

Since 1948, with the inception of tertiary education, challenges have increasingly grown, diversified and intensified both in emotional experiences and impact on the lecturers who are at the centre of implementation of educational programmes. Challenges were identified and grouped under three major domains of professional, academic and institutional challenges. These challenges have not received adequate attention from the federal government and university management because the problems of lecturers do not seem to be the focus of the stakeholders in education. Notwithstanding that lecturers play a major role in developing the manpower and provide in the needs of public and private sectors of the economy.

The economic conditions of Nigeria coupled with lack of pragmatic readiness to find lasting solutions to tertiary education problem from the lecturers' perspectives increased the challenges over time with emotional impact that permeates the diverse coping strategies applied by lecturers. The politicisation of lecturers' challenges and the trade union's quick response did not allow the stakeholders of education to handle the challenges of lecturers with a suggested approach. Akinpelu (2001:19) refers to it as a root and branch which signifies total analysis through accurate assessment from lecturers' perspective to ensure long term solutions. The

ignorance and neglect of lecturers' challenges increased the emotional pressures they experienced as they strived to increase the quality of input and output in education with limited resources.

With lack of lecturer-friendly structures to provide support and care, the trade unions' quick response earned them undeniable and incomparable loyalty making university management insignificant with regard to when to offer or withdraw services. Although various governments have tried to break through the bonds between the academic staff and trade unions, the efforts have failed with all the sanctions, dismissal and threats. Efforts to cope have also included religiousness; some lecturers engage in spiritual resilience, which is prominent in privately-based universities with special days in the week and month for spiritual encouragement and motivation to build optimism to persist in the face of challenges. Although spiritual resilience is applied in the federal and state university, it is not powerful when compared with private universities. It is encouraging that different religious organisations could identify the unstoppable nature of lecturers' challenges and the need for supernatural intervention. The use of spiritual resilience attracted the researcher's attention as it was clearly observed that the Bible and Koran have similar ideologies and norms with regard to controlling emotions, relating with others and handling challenges.

Different lecturers mentioned emotional resilience; however, emphasis was placed on expectations and purposes as driving force for bouncing back. This raises my curiosity because without emotional intelligence competence, failure of delay in meeting the expectations and goals could become another source of emotional pressure. Depending on the ability to handle the failure or delay this could spell danger to the health of the lecturers' quality of services and outright negative behavioural change. It is not surprising that behavioural change characterised lecturers' mode of expression of the intensity of the felt emotions. Behavioural change such as selective relationship and affective disconnection motivated by past events that occurred in senate, faculty and departmental meeting reflect cultural penetration into the formal interaction within the system.

Cultural penetration manifested in the perception of junior lecturers' assertiveness in faculty and departmental meetings as a sign of disrespect for elders in the profession and disregard for professional authority and significant other. The researcher found this aspect of the study very interesting because it shows strongly that Nigerian societal cultural norms are expected to guide patterns of interaction within the institutions. Although there are cultural variations the general culture abhors younger ones speaking when the elders are around or speaking. The cultural norms also abhor challenging elders' ideas orally or physically. As the society ostracises such individuals, it is interesting to discover that lecturers who fail to abide by cultural norms are

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regarded as professional outcasts and are ostracised through open show of discrimination, disconnection and selectivity in relationships. These professional ostracisation behaviours could spell danger for institutional effectiveness because potential of lecturers tagged as professional outcast might be underutilisation, which in turn, increases job mismatch and overutilisation of some lecturers resulting in emotional pressure and subsequent mental health breakdown. Another danger of professional ostracisation is trivialisation of creativity and innovative ideas that come from ostracised lecturers. Professional ostracisation creates and enhances the mindset of repeated experiences, because such behaviour becomes adapted as the way of doing things.

The point that societal cultural norms abhor the young speaking before the elders should not extend to the academic environment, because the mission of higher education institutions is to produce individuals capable of thinking logically and reasoning intelligently irrespective of age, gender and educational background. Ostracising younger lecturers with such qualities indicates that academe fails to honour what they produced, which is worrisome. It seems more convincing that societal cultural norms condition the working environment of lecturers depending on professional status, making it more exclusive of younger lecturers in contributing to decision-making processes.

Additionally, it is important to note that the working environment and working conditions are producing the same challenges for both young and old lecturers in the system. Perception, coping and impact differ. In this regard, the researcher expected the senior lecturers to coach and mentor the younger lecturers on academic institutional behaviour. Mentoring and coaching on ways to make intelligent, creative and respectful contributions in faculty and departmental meeting should lessen professional ostracisation, build reciprocal interaction that promotes love, respect and commitment.

On the other hand, the researcher discovered that Goleman's four domains used, as conceptual framework for data collection and interpretation did not replicate previous findings as the researcher expected. Instead, emotional history and emotional trends emerged, which the researcher found very interesting. The tricky subtle intrusion of emotional history disrupts feelings and impact. It alters behaviour, lowers interaction and selects relationship modes, which completely guide quality of services offered, and productivity in education. The researcher considered the emergency of the domains the results of difference in perceptual sets and strong cultural orientation of emotional behaviour in the Nigerian context. In this context, Nigerians see challenges that impact on emotions with the lens of cultural and religious norms, which they interpret, based on ideologies and decide on ways to respond.

Contrary to the researcher's assumptions that lecturers have emotional knowledge of the way they feel and the impact, and that they can handle it appropriately because of educational status, the researcher discovered that the majority of lecturers never focused on the emotional impact, although they were aware of felt emotions. The majority of the lecturers were thankful that they participated in this study; according to them it created a deeper insight into their emotions and highlighted the need for them to take appropriate action. This, I found it very emotionally rewarding that she was engaged a study that had immediate impact on the participants and her as a researcher. The researcher discovered that she was awaken to the realities that emotions provide humans with information on the reality of the situation on the ground. The essence of the information is to take preventive action but ignorance of such information makes emotions pragmatically negative. This knowledge the researcher gained made her appreciate her research topic, research questions and the outcome.

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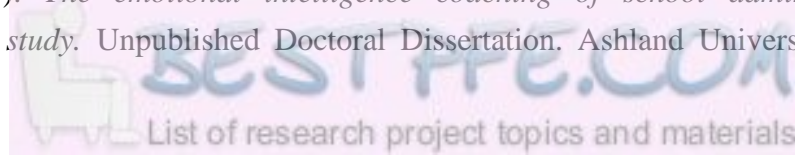
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1a:
Letter to University of Benin

Appendix 1b:
Ebonyi State University

Appendix 1c:
Benson Idahosa University

Appendix 2:
Consent letter to participant

Appendix 3:
Interview guiding questions

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UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

July 12, 2013

The Director of Research and Publication
University of Benin,
Benin, Nigeria

Dear Sir/Madam

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW FOR MY RESEARCH

I am a PhD student (Adult and Community Education and Training) at the University of Pretoria, Department of Early Childhood Education. I am working on a research title **"Emotional Intelligence in *coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian Universities".*** The aim of the research is to explore how lecturers cope with challenges that impact on their emotional intelligence.

This may help raise advocacy for establishment of an emotional intelligence support unit/centre for lecturers. Recommendations will be made for policy options to adopt emotional intelligence model in Nigerian Universities to promote the quality of life of the academe. The research findings will be of benefit to Nigerian University management, lecturers and the Ministry of Education and the society in general.

I am writing to inform that I would wish you to grant me an interview for my research. The research will be conducted in line with the University of Pretoria research guidelines. The ethical rules and regulations regarding conducting research which entails confidentiality and anonymity will be ensured. The consent of participants with freedom to withdraw at anything in the research will be observed. In line with the above information, I kindly request that you confirm your acceptance through written feedback.

Thanks in advance

Yours sincerely

Igbafe Eucharia C.
PhD student
Department Early Childhood Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Mobile: +27(0)735791378
             +2348036721040
Email: igbafeeucharia@gmail.com   Signature..

Dr Steyn, M.G.
Supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)12420-5289
Mobile: (+27)822022133
Email: Mg.steyn@up.ac.za   Signature...

Prof. Hartell, C.G.
Co-supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)124204007
Mobile: (+27)12-420-5568
Cycil.hartell@up.ac.za   Signature...

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

October 26, 2012

The Director of Research and Publication
Ebonyi State University,
Ebonyi, Nigeria

Dear Sir/Madam,

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW FOR MY RESEARCH

I am a PhD student (Adult and Community Education and Training) at the University of Pretoria, Department of Early Childhood Education. I am working on a research title **"Emotional Intelligence in *coping with professional, academic and institutional challenges in Nigerian Universities".*** The aim of the research is to explore how lecturers cope with challenges that impact on their emotional intelligence.

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Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Mobile: +27(0)735791378
        +2348036721040
Email: igbafeeucharia@gmail.com   Signature...

Dr Steyn, M.G.
Supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)12420-5289
Mobile: (+27)822022133
Email: Mg.steyn@up.ac.za   Signature...

Prof. Hartell, C.G.
Co-supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)124204007
Mobile: (+27)12-420-5568
Cycil.hartell@up.ac.za   Signature..

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

October 26, 2012

The Director of Research and Publication
Benson Idahosa University,
Edo State, Nigeria

Dear Sir/Madam,

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW FOR MY RESEARCH

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Thanks in advance

Yours sincerely

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PhD student
Department Early Childhood Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Mobile: +27(0)735791378
         +2348036721040
Email: igbafeeucharia@gmail.com   Signature...

Dr Steyn, M.G.
Supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)12420-5289
Mobile: (+27)822022133
Email: Mg.steyn@up.ac.za   Signature..

Prof. Hartell, C.G.
Co-supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)124204007
Mobile: (+27)12-420-5568
Cycil.hartell@up.ac.za   Signature.......................................

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

October 26, 2012

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST TO BE INTERVIEWED

I am a Nigerian PhD student at the Department of Early Childhood Education, University of Pretoria, South Africa. The title of my dissertation is: **"Coping with Professional, Academic and Institutional Challenges in Nigerian Universities: An Emotional Intelligence Model"**. The study intends to establish how the changes taking place in higher education institutions create challenges that impact on lecturers' well-being and quality of life.

For the purpose of this study, I kindly request permission to interview you as lecturer to gain your valuable input. Interview sessions will be flexible as to accommodate your working schedule. I also wish to inform you that participation is voluntary and participants can withdraw at any time they wish to.

All information provided will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Furthermore, you will be free to withdraw from the study any time you wish to do so. With this, you are kindly requested to confirm your acceptance by completing the permission slip.
Your co-operation in this regard will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

....
Igbafe Eucharia Chinwe
PhD student (Department of Early Childhood Education)
University of Pretoria
Pretoria.
0002
Republic of South Africa.
Mobile: +27735791378
         +2348036721040
Email: igbafeeucharia@gmail.com

Dr Steyn, M.G.
Supervisor
Department Early Childhood Education
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria
Pretoria 0002
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27(0)12420-5289
Mobile: (+27)822022133
Email: mg.steyn@up.ac.za   Signature...

Reply slip

I give permission/do not give permission to participate in an interview. I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any time and am aware that under no circumstances will my identity as interview participant be made known to any parties/organisations that may be involved in the research process.

………………….………… …………………….…………
Lecturer's name Lecturer's signature

…………………………….. ………………….…..………..
Date Date

Appendix 3: Interview guiding questions

1. How many years have you been lecturing in the university?

2. What is the last qualification you have completed?

3. What are your positive highlights of lecturing in this University?

4. What were your most unpleasant experiences as a lecturer in this University?

5. How do you perceive professional, academic and institutional challenges?

6. What impact do these challenges have on your emotions?

7. How do the challenges affect your emotions as a lecturer in this University?

8. What impact(s) do these emotions have in your interaction with colleagues/ students?

9. Do these communicative styles affect your relationships?

10. How do you cope with the challenges?

11. What are the challenges facing you in your modelling of emotional intelligent behaviour in this university?

12. How do you deal with diversity in your class especially in handling disruptive behaviours?

13. Are you emotionally supported at University? Motivate. (Such as organised workshops/Seminars to discuss emotional intelligent behaviour).

14. What emotional intelligence training opportunities are offered in this University?

15. What would you recommend to ensure that Universities have an emotionally literate environment?

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