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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ESDP	Education Sector Development Plan
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopian
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
MCS	Ministry of Civil Servants
MOE	Ministry of Education
MoFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
NEAEA	National Educational Assessment and Examination Agency
NPC	National Plan Commission

## CHAPTER 1

### BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The world is in a period of change beyond our imagination. Ethiopia as a developing country is confronted with different challenges of the changing world. To cope with the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the Ethiopian Government has set out a long term vision that will put the country in the category of first level middle income countries by the year 2023 (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2010). Ethiopian universities are one of the sectors that have a strategic role to play to realise this vision by producing competent and hardworking graduates for the economy. To facilitate the transformation process and achieve its goals, *“The Ethiopian Government will open 11 new universities in addition to the existing 33 universities”* (Ministry of Education, 2015:102).

To achieve the triple missions of universities, namely teaching-learning, research and community service, academic staff have key roles to play. This is only possible if academic staff members are highly committed and leaders adopt appropriate leadership styles to motivate their employees. Academic staff members are the main human capital needed to develop future generations, so everything possible needs to be done to ensure job satisfaction among them.

As a university academic staff member in an Ethiopian university, the researcher has observed many problems in the teaching-learning process. Some of the academic staff members in the universities are fresh graduates and they do not have experience in teaching university students. Both senior and newly employed academic staff members are complaining about the working environment, the number of academic staff leaving the universities is increasing and there are misbehaviours observed among some academic staff members. Some manifestations of

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misbehaviours among some academic staff are: they do not attend meetings and trainings hosted by the universities, some of them are working for other institutions of higher education or industries, they do not conduct continuous assessment properly, they do not participate in remedial action such as providing tutorial programmes for low achievers and female students, and they do not provide advisory and supervisory services to students. There are also “some academic staff who do not make necessary preparation for teaching learning and who are absent from class particularly in the afternoon” (Ministry of Education, 2015:13-14). Hence the status of job satisfaction of academic staff needs to be assessed and improved. This was the main reason to launch this research.

Studies on job satisfaction and commitment in the field of business institutions are relatively abundant; however, studies on job satisfaction among university academic staff are rare worldwide and in Ethiopia. In Ethiopia studies conducted include leadership styles and job satisfaction in eight private higher theological institutions of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (Zelege, 2013), the recently published studies on factors affecting job satisfaction in Mekelle University academic staff at Adi-Haqi campus (Hagos, & Abrha, 2015) and the influence of leaders' power bases on academic staffs' job satisfaction: The case of Wolaita Sodo University, Ethiopia (Gebreegziabher, 2015). This implies that although studies on job satisfaction of university academic staff are receiving growing attention worldwide, this field of research is still limited in scope and is rare in Ethiopia.

These studies mentioned above were carried out in specific areas by taking a limited number of participants and cannot be generalized to the population of Ethiopian university academic staff. Therefore, understanding the job satisfaction of Ethiopian university academic staff and the relationship between university characteristics and job satisfaction by taking a

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relatively larger sample representing different universities is important. The study will contribute to the existing theory and practice and could be used as stepping stone to conduct similar research here in Ethiopia or anywhere in the world.

### **1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

There are different Theories of job satisfaction developed by different scholars. These Theories are commonly grouped either according to the nature of the theories or their chronological appearance. Based on the nature of theories, Shajahan and Shajahan (2004: 90-99) have noted that there are ‘content’ theories (Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy, Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory, Douglas McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y, Alderfer’s ERG Theory, and McClelland’s Theory of Needs Achievement) and ‘process’ Theories (Behaviour Modification Theory, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Goal Setting Theory, Reinforcement Theory, Vroom’s Expectancy Theory, and J. Stacy Adams’s Equity Theory). This division of Theories is acknowledged across the literature. It is notable that content and process Theories have become “standard classification” of job satisfaction Theories (Saif, Jan, & Khan, 2012:1385).

According to the Content Theories mentioned above, individuals have similar sets of needs, and feel satisfied with their job when those needs are fulfilled in the workplace. On the other hand, Process Theories explain job satisfaction in terms of interactions between variables such as workers’ expectations, values and the characteristics of the job. Process Theories assume that individuals are satisfied at their job when their job provides what they value or expect to obtain from their jobs. All process Theories emphasise cognitive processes in determining workers’ levels of need satisfaction.

There are also other studies that enrich or criticize different theories posited by earlier scholars. Consequently, there is no one agreed and universally accepted theory of job satisfaction

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that can be applied in different organizational set-ups, including universities. All these models have strengths and weaknesses as well as advocates and critics. Though no model is perfect, each of them adds something to understanding the “motivational and satisfaction process” (Saif, Jan, & Khan, 2012:1391).

According to Maslow (1970), individuals have five basic categories of needs arranged in hierarchical order. These needs from bottom to top are physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. Any person continually seeks to gratify these basic needs. Only after lower level needs have been satisfactorily met, are higher level needs desired or sought. Maslow’s (1970) Theory relates to this study of job satisfaction of university academic staff in Ethiopia. The kind of organisational factors that have impact on the academic staff job satisfaction are of the focus in this study. Hence, this theory helps in terms of explaining and relating specific needs of university academic staff in Ethiopia with the organisational factors which are the factors of job satisfaction in the current study.

The basis of the Motivator-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) was that jobs had specific factors which were related to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The five factors thought to facilitate job satisfaction were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The five factors identified by Herzberg et al. (1959) as determinants of job dissatisfaction were policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. This study refers to Herzberg et al.’s (1959) Two Factors Theory to concentrate on many factors of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities. This study investigated the factors suggested by Herzberg in relation to their

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potential to work as determinants to the state of satisfaction with regard to many factors at the workplace among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities.

Studies on job satisfaction have been conducted in a wide range of fields including industry, business, and the public sector. However, little is known about faculty job satisfaction in higher education in the developing countries (Vuong & Duong, 2013:10).

Some of the studies that have been conducted on job satisfaction of university academic staff to find out the source of satisfaction or dissatisfaction are mentioned hereunder. The findings of some recent empirical studies showed that most academic members were generally satisfied with their jobs (Hagos & Abrha, 201; Du, Lai & Lo, 2010; Ghafoor, 2014; Vuong & Duong, 2013; Viet, 2013). Other studies show that faculty members had a moderate level of job satisfaction (Bataineh, 2014). In the USA a professor's willingness to stay or not to stay in university is determined by his/her degree of satisfaction due to availability of time for research and fairness of work (Lawrence, Celis, Kim, Lipson & Tong, 2013).

Determinants of job satisfaction of academic staff from the results of different studies are: "presence of academic resources" (Ramirez, 2011:79); "transformational leaders"(Byrne, 2011:87; Zeleke, 2013:115); "work, academic freedom, recognition, development, interpersonal relationships, and job security" (Kim, 2011:4); "school type, school level, academic field, organizational climate, evaluation orientation, and school management" (Du et al., 2010:430); "Government and universities' policies and support, supervision, contingent rewards, co-workers, nature of work, communication, and work-life balance" (Noor, 2013:375); and "fiscal resources, personal growth and satisfaction, policy and administration"(Viet, 2013:24).

The reasons for dissatisfaction of academic staff are "pay, policy and administration" (Kim, 2011:4); "Pay, promotion, and fringe benefits" (Noor, 2013); and "role conflict and role

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ambiguity” (Schulz, 2013: 474). Demographic variables have different impact on job satisfaction. “Males and older academics, had a higher overall job satisfaction” (Noor, 2013:375; Byrne, 2011:87); “female members are less satisfied” (Hagos & Abrha, 2015:1; Sajjadi, 2011:20); “the demographic variables show an insignificant impact on job satisfaction” (Mehboob, Bhutto, Azhar & Butt, 2009:8).

Suggestions for future research focus indicated by different research results include: “review other consequences of job dissatisfaction such as, absenteeism, turnover and academic staff output/performance” (Ghafoor, 2014:191); “replication of the study outside of Addis Ababa and also in other parts of the world, and a comparative study be conducted between institutions on different continents”(Zelege, 2013:124); “The impact of academic discipline and type of university on job satisfaction is worth further investigation” (Kim, 2011:307); and “incorporating demographic variables as moderators in further studies on job satisfaction” (Noor, 2013:400). “Future surveys may be more easily analysed if factors are explored in the areas of university characteristics, satisfaction with university support, and satisfaction with students” (Johnson, 2010:35).

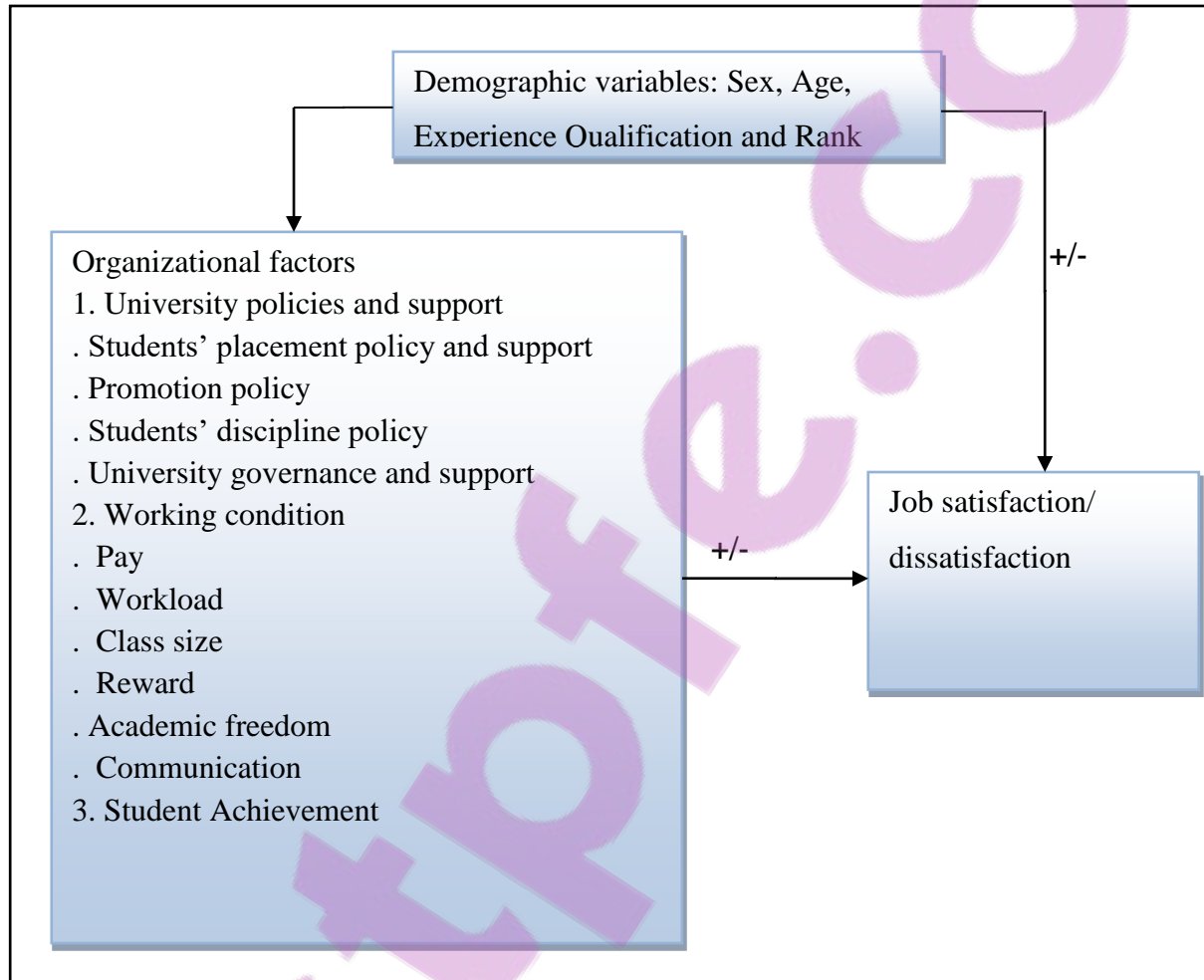
Most studies on job satisfaction have been conducted by academics; however, “little study has been conducted on the job satisfaction of academics” (Kim, 2011:7). The studies available have examined the job satisfaction of academic members in higher education of developed countries. Unfortunately, “evidence from developing countries is seriously lacking and is a gap which needs to be filled” (Susana & Garrett, 2005:33-56). There is also inadequacy of literature examining the status of job satisfaction and its relationship to different factors among the academic staff members of Ethiopian public universities. The above studies conducted in different countries on job satisfaction of university academic staff did not take into



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consideration student discipline and student academic achievement as variables of working conditions that will have a positive or negative impact on job satisfaction. That is the gap that this research tried to address.

The different theories discussed above lead to formulation of the following conceptual framework which is the foundation of this study.



**Figure 1.1:** Conceptual framework of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction

Note +/- represents positive or negative relationship assumption

### 1.3 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Following the opening of 23 new universities in addition to the old 10 universities in Ethiopia, the number of students has also increased at an alarming rate. As a result the roles and activities of university academic staff have increased from time to time. To mention some,

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besides the onerous teaching-learning, research and community services, academic staff are expected to conduct continuous assessment, take remedial action such as organizing special tutorial programmes for low achievers and female students, guiding students to work in teams and the academic staff are required to attend various meetings and many other duties and responsibilities (MOE, 2009). Regarding this, Tessema (2009) stated that the downside effects of the university expansion have worsened the conditions of university academic staff. Among others, it has resulted in increasing workloads and extended work schedules for academic staff.

On the other hand, academic staff members assigned to teach in universities have diversified interests and aspirations. As a result, job satisfaction seems to vary according to the conditions under which academic staff members work. The responsibilities of university academic staff can be performed effectively if they are handled properly and satisfied with their job. The objectives of universities can be met by taking steps to improve the loyalty of academic staff. Highly satisfied workers are more inclined to be dedicated to their jobs. However, dissatisfaction may result in turnover. “Employee turnover intention has a significant relationship with job satisfaction.” (Iqbal, Ehsan, Rizwan, & Noreen, 2014:182).

Retaining high quality academic staff is important for universities given that academic staff play a crucial role in achieving university objectives. However, from the researcher’s personal observation and information obtained from academic staff working for different public universities there are many problems that hamper effective teaching and learning in universities. According to the human resource directors of the sample universities, it is common to see academic staff leaving public universities to work for other organizations due to different reasons. This will create different problems for the universities. First, capable academic staff members who have extensive experience will be lost. It also imposes high burdens on

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universities (Kim, 2011). Universities must invest considerable resources to hire new academics with undergraduate or masters' degrees that should then undergo master's degree or doctoral degree study programmes to replace academic staff members who have quitted their jobs. Identifying factors leading to turnover and developing plans and programmes to mitigate high turnover rate should lessen the critical situation and allow universities to serve students better.

Another problem related to universities is that there is a high attrition rate of students particularly female students. According to MoFED (2010) the graduation rate of students from universities should not be lower than 93% which means that a 7% attrition rate is tolerable, but the average attrition rate in the sample universities is above 20%. Studies in 2011/12 indicate that the graduation rate of regular undergraduate students is as low as 79%. This, perhaps, implies a low quality of teaching due to low qualified academic staff or perceived low relevance of the higher education courses being offered (MOE, 2015). This may also be related to academic staff's failure to take remedial action to improve the performance and achievement of students continuously so that they may continue their education until they graduate. This can be also brought about due to poor student discipline and performance in their studies.

Different factors in the work place will have direct or indirect influence on job satisfaction of university academic staff to stay or not to stay in universities or to be effective or ineffective. Therefore, this study aimed to discover information regarding the factors that relate to job dissatisfaction of academic staff in universities in order to take action which will help to maximize job satisfaction and minimize intention to leave and actual turnover or other consequences that come as a result of dissatisfaction for better achievement of university missions.

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The sections above now lead to the main problem of this study which can be phrased as the following research question: **What is the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities and how can this be improved?** This main question can now be divided into the following sub-questions:

- What are the relevant theories on job satisfaction? (to be addressed in Chapter 2)
- What is the current state (according to research results) of job satisfaction in the working place among academic staff in various countries? (to be addressed in Chapter 3)
- What is the level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their jobs? (to be addressed in Chapters 5-6)
- What are the differences in level of job satisfaction between academic staff in Ethiopian public universities with regard to demographic factors such as gender, age, experience, qualification, academic rank? (to be addressed in Chapters 5-6)
- What are the correlations between the different factors that affect job satisfaction (to be addressed in Chapters 5-6)
- Which aspects of their job give academic staff the least job satisfaction? (to be addressed in Chapters 5-6)
- What is the level of overall job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia? (to be addressed in Chapters 5-6)
- What can be introduced to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities? (to be addressed in Chapters 5-6)

### 1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Based on the main research question given above, the broad aim of the study was to determine the extent to which academic staff members at Ethiopian universities are satisfied with

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their jobs and to establish how this satisfaction can be improved. This aim can be divided into the following study objectives:

- To carryout review of related literature on theories of job satisfaction.
- To carryout review of related literature on research results of job satisfaction in the working place among academic staff in various countries.
- To determine what the current levels of job satisfaction are among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their jobs.
- To determine if there are any differences in level of job satisfaction between academic staff in Ethiopian public universities with regard to demographic factors such as gender, age, experience, qualifications and academic rank.
- To find out if there are significant correlations between the different factors that cause job satisfaction.
- To identify the aspects of their jobs that give academic staff the least job satisfaction.
- To investigate the level of overall job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia.
- To introduce a guideline to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities.

### **1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Under this section the description of the paradigm of the study, the proposed research approach, population and sampling, proposed instruments and data collection and analysis methods are discussed briefly.

### **1.5.1 Research approach and paradigm of the study.**

In this part the research paradigm and the research approach that this study used is briefly discussed. The research paradigm of this study is post-positivist. The research approach in the present study is the quantitative method. For this purpose this study followed a survey approach. This implies that the quantitative method of gathering and analysing data was used. Among the different survey designs, a cross-sectional design was used in the study. “*A cross-sectional study can examine current attitudes, beliefs, opinions, or practices*” (Creswell, 2012:377). Thus the design is appropriate to collect the opinions of academic staff members about job satisfaction in their work places. A detailed explanation of the research approach and paradigm is presented in Chapter 4.

### **1.5.2 Population and sampling**

In this section the research methods which encompass participant selection procedure are briefly discussed. Currently in Ethiopia, excluding Defence University, Police University College and Civil Service University College, there are 33 public universities (MOE, 2015). Thus the population of the study consisted of the 30 universities and the full time academic staff of these universities. The population excluded Adama Science and Technology University and Addis Ababa Science and Technology University for they are under the Ministry of Science and Technology with a different salary scale, and Debre Berhan University for it was used to pilot-test the questionnaire. Out of these universities that represent the population of this study, eight sample universities representing the first, second and third generation universities of Ethiopian public universities were chosen.

According to the data obtained from the human resource department heads of the universities, the total population of respondents of the sample universities was around 4200.

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Using a stratified sampling category of probability sampling technique, 400 sample participants were selected for the quantitative study. Colleges and institutions were the main strata and the departments were the substrata that were used to choose these participants. Care was taken to include academic staff with different backgrounds. Thus, academic staff from the three types of universities (first, second and third generation) were included with different teaching experience, gender, age, educational qualifications and academic rank representing colleges and institutes that have relatively the highest number of academic staff members in each university. A detailed explanation of population and sampling is presented in Chapter 4.

### **1.5.3 Instrumentation and data collection techniques**

The quantitative study employed an adapted and self-administered structured questionnaire to collect the data from the selected academic staff. The questionnaire had open ended questions that helped to collect information and the opinions of academic staff on some issues. The questionnaire helped the researcher to delve in to the linkage between the independent and the dependent variables quantitatively. Debre Berhan University that was not included in the sample was used to pilot test the questionnaire and the questionnaire was modified based on the feedback obtained from the result. Once the questionnaire was scrutinised after the pilot test, it was distributed to the sample academic staff by going to each university and using assistant data collectors who were selected from each sample university. The assistant data collectors from each university belong to the College of Education and Behavioural Science. Their role was ushering participants from different departments to the seminar hall, collecting questionnaires and checking the filled in questionnaires for errors. Details of the instrument and data collection methods are discussed in Chapter 4.

### **1.5.4 Data analysis and presentation**

Regarding quantitative data analysis, the IBM SPSS version 25 was utilised for the questionnaire survey data analysis. Both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used in analysing the data. The descriptive statistics were used to identify level of satisfaction with specific job aspects and overall job satisfaction. In this study the frequencies, mean, standard deviation, median and mode are used as indicators of central tendency for each construct.

The comparison of means between groups is often conducted to identify whether there is a difference between groups. For the comparison of job satisfaction between groups inferential analysis is used. The two methods mostly used for comparing the means of different groups are an independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). ANOVA was used to examine whether or not there are differences between the different groups defined by various categories, namely: gender, age, experience, qualification and academic rank. To test the differences 0.05 level of statistical significance was used. Given a large sample ( $n = 400$ ) and the use of scale measures that are considered interval data, parametric tests were assumed relevant given the central limit theorem (Field, 2009).

Correlation analysis was also computed to determine the relationship between constructs and job satisfaction of academic staff. Furthermore opinions of respondents gathered through the open ended questions were categorized under major themes for thematic analysis and presented at the end of Chapter 5.

The results are presented in the data analysis part of the thesis. The statistical testing was conducted, and the results are represented in tables and figures and reported in the discussion part. Each output generated from the IBM SPSS version 25 is placed first and then the analysis follows each of the tables.



### **1.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH**

Two factors that contribute to quality of research are validity and reliability. When a research is invalid due to poor measurement, then it becomes worthless result. Validity and reliability can be applied to quantitative and qualitative research, though how validity and reliability are addressed in these two approaches varies (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

In quantitative research, the term ‘validity’ generally refers to the effectiveness of a measurement instrument. A data gathering instrument or procedure that is said to be valid has the characteristic of measuring what it was designed to measure. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), validity is the degree the instrument such as a questionnaire necessarily measures the characteristic or dimension we are intended to measure.

There are various types of validity by which the totality of the questionnaire and the scale can be evaluated. Face validity is the first one. Face validity relates to the extent to which the instrument reflects the concepts to be examined in a proposed study. Face validity is where, superficially, the test appears – at face value – to test what it is designed to test (Cohen et al., 2007). Face validity cannot be checked for statistical significance tests using statistical analysis technique but it is mainly dependent on personal view. In this study the face validity was determined by the experts and senior colleagues after they go through the questionnaire and the scale.

The second validity item is content validity. As defined by Cohen et al. (2007) it is a type of validity that relates to the degree of the data collection tool to address the domain or items that it suggests to uncover. In the context of the present study, content validity is concerned with the degree to which the adapted questionnaire items fairly and accurately represented the main

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variables, namely job satisfaction and different variables of the study. The content validity in this study was evaluated by senior experts from behavioural studies.

Reliability in quantitative research is essentially a synonym for dependability, consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents. It is concerned with “precision and accuracy” (Cohen et al., 2007:133). One way of raising the reliability of the data collection tool is the accommodation of additional items in the questionnaire. In this study, the researcher included a sufficient number of items in the questionnaire. Moreover various efforts were made to ensure the validity, reliability and trustworthiness of this study. Cronbach's alpha is widely used to assess internal reliability in quantitative research. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to check the reliability of the scale. Cronbach's alpha varies from 0 to 1.0. “A coefficient of .93 is a high coefficient; .6 is an acceptable level for determining whether the scale has internal consistency. With a .72 reliability coefficient, the reliability is satisfactory for the scores”, (Creswell, 2012:606).

A pilot study was conducted to measure the internal consistency and other aspects of validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to respondents who were not included in the sample to ensure that the data collection tools were sound. The questions, instructions, and the structure of the questionnaire were assessed and scrutinised during the course of the pilot studies. These aspects are discussed in detail in chapter four.

### **1.7 ETHICAL ISSUES TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE STUDY**

In addition to moral principles that are mentioned in the research ethics of UNISA, the following ten general research ethics principles were adhered to during the entire research work:

*Essentiality and relevance, maximisation of public interest and of social justice, competence, ability and commitment to research, respect for and*

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*protection of the rights and interests of participants and institutions, informed and non-coerced consent, respect for cultural differences, justice, fairness and objectivity, integrity, transparency and accountability and risk minimisation (UNISA, 2013:9-10).*

According to Creswell (2012), it is important to protect the privacy and confidentiality of individuals who participate in the study. Many actions were introduced to make sure that participants were secured during their involvement in this study through informed consent. Thus, the researcher explained all the information needed to participants, such as their right to confidentiality, the confidentiality of information, the right to discontinue participating in the research process, and the use of the research work. The researcher also gave chance to the participants to raise questions for further explanation.

For the purpose of informed consent, voluntary participation is important. Hence, the participants were not forced or coerced. The researcher ensured the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants and the name of their university. The questionnaires were completed anonymously. Care was taken for the information provided by the participants not to be disclosed to others except the researcher. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, responses were confidential and all responses were used only for the purpose of this research.

Any information used in this research finding does not signify any person involved in the study voluntarily after agreement to participate was maintained. In the study, the researcher secured permission from the Ministry of Education and from each university to conduct the study.

### **1.8 CHAPTER DIVISION**

The structure of this research study report has six chapters as follows:

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**Chapter 1** consists of the introduction, background of the study, the statement of the problem, the aims and objectives of the study, purpose and significance of the study, ethical consideration, and the organisation of the study that lay the foundation and reasons for conducting the study.

**Chapter 2** provides a comprehensive discussion of the concept ‘job satisfaction’. Theories on job satisfaction that guide the study are explored. Finally, the present level of job satisfaction in the working force in general and to universities in particular is presented. Seminal works of different scholars on job satisfaction of employees who are still influential in the world are given due attention in this part of the literature study.

**Chapter 3** explains empirical studies carried out in different countries on job satisfaction status among university academic staff, and the mechanisms introduced to enhance the job satisfaction of university academic staff in a few other countries are discussed. Common intervention activities of countries to improve job satisfaction are also identified.

**Chapter 4** elaborates the research design and methods used for the empirical study. It covers the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population and sampling, instruments, data collection methods and procedures, data analysis and interpretation.

**Chapter 5** focuses on the presentation and discussion of the research findings. In this part the application of the research tools is displayed. Discussion of the prominent results obtained from the study in relation to the literature reviewed and findings from other studies and implications of the research findings is also given more emphasis.

**Chapter 6** focuses on the summary, findings, conclusions, contribution of the study, avenues for future research and recommendations arising from the findings. First, the summary of the findings is pointed out. Second, the findings and conclusion are deduced. Third, the

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contribution of the study and avenues for future research are discussed. Fourth, recommendations on different aspects to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities for leaders, policy-makers and for management practitioners in the education system are forwarded.

### 1.9 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

#### 1.9.1 Job satisfaction

The most-used definition of job satisfaction in organizational research is the one given by Locke (1976). He described job satisfaction as *'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences'* (Locke, 1976:1300). According to Labuschangne, Bosman, and Buitendach (2005) job satisfaction is a complex matter influenced by situational factors in the job environment as well as by dispositional characteristics of an individual. Job satisfaction is therefore feelings and beliefs that people have about their job which can be measured both quantitatively and qualitatively using scales and by asking to write their opinion in the open ended questions.

#### 1.9.2 Academic staff

According to the MOE (2009:497), academic staff means *"Members of an institution employed in the capacity of teaching and/or research, and any other professional of the institution who shall be recognized so by senate statutes"*. In other words academic staff is the general name given to graduate assistants, assistant lecturers, lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and professors in universities. In the Ethiopian context they are assigned in universities that run a three to six years programme for each graduate depending on the field of study. However temporary staff members such as tutors are not considered here.

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### **1.9.3 Public universities**

Public universities are those established by the government and use state allocated funds to perform their responsibilities.

### **1.10 SUMMARY**

In this chapter several components were briefly discussed. Some of the reasons for conducting this research are: lack of commitment on the part of academic staff to perform the different activities expected, high attrition rate of students from universities, and academic staff who are leaving universities to work for other institutions. The study focuses on assessing the status of job satisfaction of academic staff in Ethiopian public universities by taking eight sample universities representing the first, the second and the third generation universities, and suggesting means to enhance job satisfaction. The research approach is quantitative and the instrument is a questionnaire for the data collection. The statistical tool used to analyse the quantitative data is IBM SPSS version 25.

## CHAPTER 2

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Human power is the major resource of organizations through which the goals of individuals and organizations are achieved. In public and non-profit agencies, the greatest expenses and the greatest assets are employees and they rely on the professionalism and competence of their employees to provide some type of service (Pynes, 2009). Satisfied employees are committed to their jobs and their performance is likely to be high. A satisfied employee is more productive and able to achieve his or her work creatively (Sarwar and Khalid, 2011). Therefore, knowledge and application of job satisfaction theories is important for leaders to motivate their employees. Regarding this, Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske, (2012:6) stated “*The effectiveness of any organization is influenced greatly by human behavior. People are a resource common to all organizations*”.

The pertinent goal of this chapter is to examine important information about job satisfaction and its relationship with the different variables. Thus, this chapter will provide a theoretical framework for the study that includes a comprehensive discussion of the concept ‘job satisfaction’. Various theories on job satisfaction that guide the study will be explored. To this end, seminal works of different scholars on job satisfaction that are still influential in the world will be given due attention in this part of the literature to lay the foundation of this study.

#### 2.2 THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction has been the subject of many researchers in the past and recent years. Consequently there are different definitions and given the diversified studies and subsequent findings, there is no one and commonly agreed upon definition of job satisfaction to date.

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Regarding this Brown (2008:19) states “*Even though many researchers define job satisfaction, the definitions vary*”. Moreover, Aziri (2011) states that despite its wide usage in scientific research, as well as in everyday life, there is still no general agreement reached regarding what job satisfaction is all about. Some of the definitions given by different scholars are indicated below.

Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) defined job satisfaction as a feeling about a job that is determined by the discrepancy between the valued outcomes that an individual actually receives and the valued outcomes that the individual feels he or she should receive from the workplace. The most cited definition is that of Locke. Locke (1976:1300) defined job satisfaction as “*A pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences*”. Job satisfaction is an indication of happiness of a person with his or her job. Thus, emphasising the factors that produce a positive attitude to work is important to the improvement of job performance.

Grunberg (1979) suggested that job satisfaction be defined as a cluster of feelings that an individual worker has toward his or her job. The cluster of feelings includes feelings about all aspects of a job, such as the nature of work, pay, responsibilities, and work environment. According to him, individuals are regarded as satisfied with their job when the cluster of feelings experienced by an individual leads to a positive feeling overall.



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Vroom (1995:4) indicates the similarity of the concepts of ‘job satisfaction’ and ‘job attitudes’ where he explains as follows:

*The terms job satisfaction and job attitudes are usually used interchangeably. Both refer to affective orientations on the part of individuals toward work roles that they are presently occupying. Positive attitudes toward the job are conceptually equivalent to job satisfaction and negative attitudes toward the job are equivalent to job dissatisfaction.*

According to Spector (1996), job satisfaction is a tendency toward the job and requires affective, cognitive and behavioural constituents about different job related features such as pay, promotion, work tasks, co-workers, supervisors, and other related variables.

In another source, Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as the psychological exposure of people toward their work. Brief (1998:86) defines job satisfaction as “*An internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favour or disfavour.*”

Castle (2006) perceived job satisfaction as a conduciveness or unhelpfulness with which workers view their work. Okpara (2006) pointed out that job satisfaction deals with an individual’s formative emotional reaction to a particular job, and it is an emotional response to a job that results from the employee’s comparison of real results with those that are aspired, expected or claimed.

According to Brown (2008), job satisfaction from an employee’s perspective is a necessary result in itself. Similarly, from an organisational and managerial perspective, job

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satisfaction is necessary for its impact on absence from work, leave of the organization, and citizenship, which reveal itself in helping colleague and stakeholders to be more cooperative.

In conclusion, job satisfaction is employee's passionate engagement with a particular job. It is an emotional response to a job that comes as a result of an employee's comparison of real result with those that are aspired.

### **2.3 THEORIES OF JOBSATISFACTION**

#### **2.3.1 Introduction**

Job satisfaction of academic staff is the main focus of this study. Therefore, in the following part a few theories of and approaches to job satisfaction will be discussed to develop the conceptual framework which is a lens through which the researcher will look at the issue of the study. The Theoretical Framework is the basis of understanding the foundation of cases under study. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to review theories that are related to the issues under investigation. In relation to this, Griffin (1990:67) states as follows:

*Theories are the scientific tools that are used to explain the factors of job satisfaction and how these factors interact in the cognitive and physical processes of job-satisfaction on the basis of existing facts.*

In 1935 Hoppock conducted a study of job satisfaction which is considered to be the first scientific study of job satisfaction. Hoppock demonstrated a statistical relationship between job satisfaction and the sum of physiological, psychological and environmental circumstances (Ying-Feng & Ling-Show, 2004). Since then, several studies have been carried out to find out why some employees are feeling happy in their work and life while others are not. To this end, like the definitions given to job satisfaction by different scholars, there are different theories of job satisfaction coined by various pioneers and researchers as a result of intensive study.

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Scholars use different approaches to categorise the theories of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction theories are commonly grouped either according to the nature of theories or their chronological appearance. According to their nature, theories of job satisfaction fall into two major categories, namely Content Theories and Process Theories (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004). *“This division of job satisfaction theories is acknowledged across the literature”* (Saif, Nawaz, Jan, & Khan, 2012:1382).

Content theories are also called ‘needs-based theories’. The theories suggest that internal states within individuals energise and direct their behaviour. These internal states are referred to as drives, needs or motives. According to Shajahan and Shajahan (2004), content Theories include Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy, Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory, Theory X and Theory Y, Alderfer’s ERG Theory, and McClelland’s Theory of needs.

Process Theories also called ‘Cognitive Theories’ involve conscious mental operations such as reflections, faiths and virtues that people use to choose their behaviour at work (Beck, 1983). Process theories include Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, Self-Efficacy Theory, Value Theory, Job Characteristic Theory and Reinforcement Theory.

This division of job satisfaction is used to acquire a genuine knowledge that affects the perceptions of academic staff in universities of their jobs. Each of these Theories will now be discussed in more detail.

### **2.3.2 Content Theories**

Content Theories relate to the special feature within an individual or his/her environment that utilize and provide behaviour and it is the factor that motivates people (Stemple, 2004). Content Theories focus on identifying the needs, drives and incentives, goals and their prioritisation by the individual to get satisfaction (Luthans, 2005). According to content

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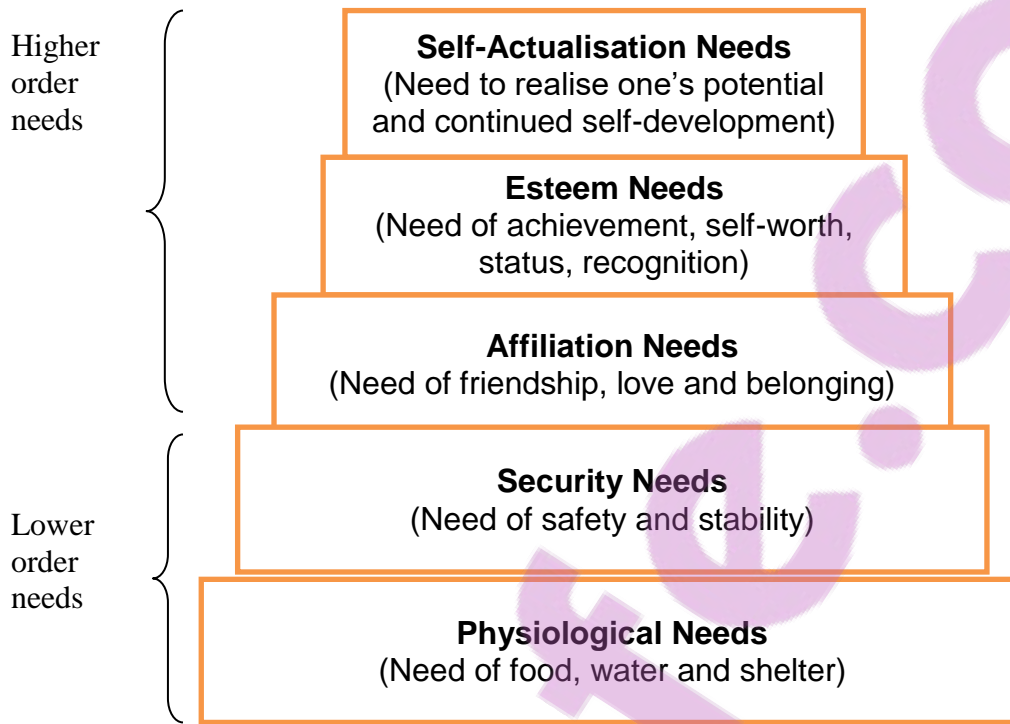
Theories, individuals have similar sets of needs, and feel satisfied with their jobs when those needs are met in the workplace. Few of the content Theories, namely Maslow's Needs Hierarchy, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, Theory X and Theory Y, Alderfer's ERG Theory, and McClelland's Needs Theory will now be discussed in more detail.

### ***2.3.2.1 Needs Theory***

The first famous Content Theory is the Needs Theory. In 1943, Maslow developed one of the most widely recognised need-based Theories. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is "*The most widely mentioned theory of motivation and satisfaction*" (Wehrich & Koontz, 1999:468). According to Maslow (1954) the foundation of the Theory is based on three assumptions. First, the human being has continuous feeling to satisfy his/her needs and these needs cannot be fully satisfied at all. Second, needs that are satisfied cannot motivate all the time unless the next level of needs are emphasised and addressed. Third, directional movement of individuals from one level of needs to the next higher level of needs is not intentional.

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The basic belief of Maslow's Theory is that the human beings have needs which he classified in a level beginning from lower order need moving up to higher order needs as follows:



**Figure 2.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs  
Adapted from Spector (2003:190)**

The physiological needs at the bottom of the pyramid are the needs that must be met for the physical survival of human beings. They are necessities for the normal life of human body. They are at the most basic level in the hierarchy. The physiological needs generally correspond to the unlearned primary needs. The needs of hunger, thirst, sleep, and sex are some examples (Luthans, 2011).

The second level of needs is identified as safety and security needs and it focuses on *“ensuring continued survival by protecting oneself against physical harm and deprivation”* (Brown, 2008:21). More specifically under the need for security from harm or avoidance, the

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need for protection from illness or from any danger and others are incorporated in this category of needs (Amos et al., 2008). This category of needs refers to the need an individual has to produce a secure environment that is free of threats for continued existence (Landy, Frank J. & Conte, Jeffrey M, 2013).

According to Brown (2008), safety or security needs are associated with individual's social and companionable needs, not the simplest basic needs of the first two levels. Furthermore, he contends "*this level of affection and social activities needs reflects people's need for association or companionship, for belonging to groups, and for giving and receiving friendship, affection, and love*" (Brown, 2008:22). It is also affection which consists of the need for sharing it among individuals involved, belongingness, involvement in social responsibilities and collegiality (Mullins, 2005).

Brown (2008) substantiates self-esteem and status needs, the fourth level needs, as the need for self-respect or self-esteem resulting from awareness of the significance of someone to other individuals. The assumption behind esteem needs is that, if somebody is shown love and affection, the need for esteem and self-respect begins to evolve. Willingness for and feelings of confidence, achievement, independence and freedom are required for self-respect. This need hierarchy includes need for power, achievement, and status (Luthans, 2011).

Self-actualisation is the last need in Maslow's Hierarchy of need. This need level is the culmination of all the lower, intermediate, and higher needs of humans (Luthans, 2011). People who have become self-actualized are self-fulfilled and have realized all their potential. These needs refer to the desire of an individual to develop his or her capacities to the fullest. According to this Theory, few people ever completely satisfy this need. Instead, the individual would always be seeking to grow and develop (Landy, Frank J. & Conte, Jeffrey M, 2013).

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Maslow's hierarchy of needs applied to university work situations implies that leaders have a dual responsibility, first, to make sure their academic staff's lower level needs are met. This means academic staff members need a safe environment and proper salary and fringe benefits. Second, it implies creating a proper climate favourable for teaching-learning, research and community service endeavours in which academic staff can develop to their fullest potential. Failure to do so would increase staff frustration and could result in defective performance, lowers job satisfaction, and increased turnover from the organization.

Maslow's need hierarchy assumes that individuals attempt to satisfy basic needs before directing behavior toward higher-order needs. Maslow, as a clinical psychologist, used his patients in asking questions and listening to answers. Organizational researchers have relied on self-report scales. Need hierarchy makes sense to managers and gives many a feeling of knowing how job satisfaction works for their employees. According to Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2012:140) the problems and limitations of Maslow's need hierarchy are:

- The Theory doesn't address the issue of individual differences;
- It has received limited research support;
- It fails to caution about the dynamic nature of needs-needs change.

Regardless of these limitations, Aswathappa (2005) suggests existence of differences among individuals. Thus leaders might consider these differences more closely to lead more productively and to satisfy the diversified needs of their employees.

### ***2.3.2.2 Two-Factor Theory***

Herzberg did a motivational study in which he interviewed 200 accountants and engineers. He used the critical incident method of data collection with two questions: a. when did

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you feel particularly good about your job – what turned you on? And b. when did you feel exceptionally bad about your job – what turned you off? Tabulating these good and bad feelings, Herzberg argued that there are job-satisfiers (motivators) related to the job contents and job-dissatisfiers (hygiene factors) concerned with the job context. By taking them together, the motivators and the hygiene factors have become known as Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of motivation (Luthans, 2011).

Job satisfiers include achievement, recognition, meaningful work, challenging work, responsibility and advancement. The hygiene factors do not motivate/satisfy - rather they prevent dissatisfaction. These factors are contextual such as interpersonal relations, company policy and administration, working conditions, supervision, security, status and salary (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg's Theory is one of the most empirical and influential theories about job satisfaction. It's the only Theory that separates satisfying factors from dissatisfying factors; it also introduces the concept of movement versus motivation.

The Two-Factor Theory is related to that of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. The hygiene factors are preventive and environmental in nature and they are roughly equivalent to Maslow's lower-order needs, and Herzberg's motivators are roughly equivalent to Maslow's higher-level needs (Luthans, 2012). According to Herzberg, (1959), factors that motivate individuals are internal and they are higher level needs that include the opportunity to achieve in the job, recognition of accomplishment, challenging work and growth options, responsibility in the job, and the work itself – if the work is interesting (Amos et al., 2008).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory presumes that only some job features and characteristics can result in motivation. Some of the characteristics that managers have focused on may result in a comfortable work setting but may not motivate employees. The methodology Herzberg used was



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asking employees in interviews to describe critical job incidents. The Theory talks in terms that managers understand, and identifies motivators that they can develop, fine-tune, and use. The major limitations of the Theory as identified by Gibson et al. (2012:140) are:

- It assumes that every worker is similar in needs and preferences.
- It fails to meet scientific measurement standards
- It hasn't been updated to reflect changes in society with regard to job security and pay needs.

Despite these limitations, Herzberg's Theory is used by many scholars to study job satisfaction in different organizations. For instance, researchers have found that it helps in understanding job satisfaction in educational settings (Karimi, 2007). The current study aimed to investigate the abilities of some variables proposed by Herzberg to work as contributors towards the state of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction at the work place among academics in Ethiopian public universities but not by taking motivator and hygiene factors as separate entities. Moreover, the limitations mentioned above were eliminated in the research process when using this Theory.

### ***2.3.2.3 Existence-relatedness-growth (ERG) Theory***

Alderfer (1969) revised Maslow's Theory of needs to align more with empirical research (Schultz &Schultz, 1998). He condensed Maslow's five human needs into three categories: existence, relatedness and growth needs, thereby calling it ERG Theory. Existence needs include all material and physiological desires (e.g. food, water, air, clothing, safety, physical love and affection). This corresponds closely to Maslow's first two levels of needs. Relatedness needs encompass social and external esteem - relationships with significant others like family, friends, co-workers and employers. This also means to be recognized and feel secure as part of a group or

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family. This corresponds to Maslow's third and fourth levels of needs. Growth needs refer to internal esteem and self-actualization; these impel a person to make creative or productive efforts for himself and the environment (e.g., to progress toward one's ideal self). It is related to Maslow's fourth and fifth levels and includes desires to be creative and productive, and to complete meaningful tasks (Alderfer, 1969).

ERG Theory states that two or more needs exist concurrently and they do not occur level after level but in a sequence (Schultz & Schultz, 1998; Spector, 2003). Like Maslow and Herzberg, Alderfer does not suggest that a lower-level need must be fulfilled before a higher level need becomes motivating or that deprivation is the only way to activate a need (Luthans, 2005).

Alderfer's ERG Theory assumes that Individuals who fail to satisfy growth needs become frustrated, regress, and refocus attention on lower-order needs. The measurement tool used to assess three need categories in this Theory is self-report scales. The practical application calls attention to what happens when and if need satisfaction does not occur; frustrations can be a major reason why performance levels aren't attained or sustained. Gibson et al., (2012:140) identified the following limitations of Alderfer's ERG Theory:

- Sufficient research has not been conducted.
- Available research is self-report in nature, which raises the issue of how good the measurement is.
- Another issue is whether individuals really have only three need areas. Nonetheless, the

Theory is still in use by some researchers in today's organizational setup.

### **2.3.2.4 McClelland's Need Theory**

McClelland's (1961) need theory - also called 'achievement theory'- postulated that some people have a compelling drive to succeed and therefore strive for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success themselves. They have the desire to perform better than before; therefore, they like challenging jobs and behave as "*high achievers*" (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004:95).

In his 1961 book *The Achieving Society*, McClelland expounded on his acquired-needs Theory. He proposed that an individual's specific needs are acquired over time and are shaped by one's life experiences. A person's motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions are influenced by three needs. This Theory focuses on the achievement motive, authority/power and affiliation motives which are elaborated hereunder:

#### **a) Achievement motive**

It is the drive to excel and achieve beyond the standards of success. The person is "*achievement motivated*" and therefore seeks achievement, attainment of realistic but challenging goals, and advancement in the job. "*A worker with a high n-ach would set challenging goals, work hard to achieve the goals, and use skills and abilities to achieve them*" (Gibson et al., 2012:135). There is a strong need for feedback about achievement and progress, and a need for a sense of accomplishment.

Gibson et al. (2012:135) have provided a profile of the high achievers in society:

*High achievement persons prefer to avoid easy and difficult performance goals. They actually prefer moderate goals that they think they can achieve. High achievement persons prefer immediate and reliable*

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*feedback on how they are performing. The high achievement person likes to be responsible for solving problems.*

Moreover, high achievement individuals prefer work that has a moderate probability of success, ideally a 50% chance. They prefer to either work alone or with other high achievers (McClelland, 1961).

### ***b) Authority/Power motivation***

This refers to the desire to have an impact, to be influential, and to control others (Robbins, 2005; Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004). It is the need to influence others. There are two types: personalised power and socialised power. Personalised power is pursuit of personal goals whereas socialised power is pursuit of organisational goals (McClelland, 2000). The authority oriented person is motivated by authority. This driver produces a need to be influential, effective and to make an impact. There is a strong need to lead and for their ideas to prevail. There is also motivation and the need to increase personal status and prestige.

### ***C) Affiliation motivation***

According to McClelland (1961), the person is 'affiliation motivated', and has a need for friendly relationships and is motivated towards interaction with other people. They need harmonious relationships with people and need to feel accepted by other people. The affiliation driver produces motivation and the need to be liked and held in popular regard. These people are team players. High affiliation individuals tend to conform to the norms of their work group. They prefer work that provides significant personal interaction. They perform well in customer service and client interaction situations. It is the desire for having friendly and close interpersonal relationships (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004). Those with high affiliation prefer cooperative rather than competitive situations (Robbins, 2005).

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Employees' motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions are influenced by these three needs. An application of McClelland's Theory of needs to a university setting would suggest that academic staff's prime focus is on their personal achievement while the need for social relationships and co-worker relationships is one form of socialised power.

McClelland's learned needs presume that a person's needs are learned from the culture (society); therefore, training and education can improve and influence a person's need strength. The method used in this Theory is Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), a projective technique that encourages respondents to reveal their needs. *"Thematic Apperception Test is projective test that uses a person's analysis of pictures to evaluate such individual differences as need for achievement, need for power, and need for affiliation"* (Gibson et al., 2012:140). If an employee's need is assessed, then leaders can intervene through training to develop needs that are compatible with organizational goals.

Concerning learned needs Theory, Gibson et al. (2012) identified three limitations. First, use of the projective TAT to determine the three needs has been questioned. While projective techniques have some advantages over self-report questionnaires, the interpretation and weighing of a story are, at best, an art. Interpreting the TAT is difficult. Second, McClelland's claim that n-ach can be learned is in conflict with a large body of literature stating that motives are normally acquired in childhood and are difficult to alter in adulthood. Third, McClelland's notion of learned needs is questioned on the grounds of whether needs are permanently acquired. The effect that training has on changing needs hasn't been sufficiently tested. Research is needed to determine whether acquired needs last over a period of time. Can something learned in a training and development programme be sustained on the job? This is an issue that McClelland and others have not been able to clarify.

### ***2.3.2.5 McGregor's Theory X and Y***

These Theories were proposed by McGregor in his job satisfaction Theory entitled Theory X and Theory Y in 1960 in his work *The Human Theory Side of Enterprise*. McGregor proposed that the manager's view about the nature of the human being is founded on a group of assumptions and that managers change their behaviour toward their subordinates according to these 'assumptions' about different employees (Robbins, 1998:170).

According to Wehrich and Koontz (1999), the assumption of Theory X is a negative view of the human being and assumes that human beings have an inherent dislike of work and avoid it if possible; due to this behaviour, people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to make them work. Finally, they prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security. Comparatively, Theory Y explains individuals as decisive to accomplish the tasks assigned to them and it also assumes individuals as innovative and creative to solve problems. Wehrich and Koontz (1999) elaborate that Theory Y is a positive view of human beings. It assumes that physical and mental efforts in work are as natural as play and rest, external control and threat are not the only means for producing effort, people can practice self-direction and self-control in achieving objectives, the degree of commitment to objectives is determined by the size of rewards attached with achievement and, under proper conditions, human beings learn and not only accept responsibility but also seek it.

The workplace is characterised by the two assumptions related to individual behaviours that display the attributes of Theory X and Theory Y. Universities are not exceptional in this regard because there are academic staff that need to be frequently watched by their respective department heads. There are also academic staff members who are self-guided and need only some directions from their immediate leaders to accomplish duties and responsibilities assigned

to them. This implies that academic staff with Theory X orientation should have a manager who shows an autocratic leadership style. According to McGregor (2006), Theory X leaders are impatient, task oriented, punctual, and instructional, do not accept or entertain ideas, and are totally unhappy with laziness and pride. Contrary to this, *“Theory Y managers, subscribe to inclusive, participatory practices, thereby encouraging collegiality and involvement in achieving shared goals”* (McGregor, 2006:74).

### **2.3.3 Process Theories**

Process theories try to explain and describe the process of how attitude and behaviour are energised, directed, sustained, and stopped. These theories attempt to identify factors that motivate, energize, sustain, and/or stop behaviours (Shajahan and Shajahan, 2004). *“The process theories explain the processes of how behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped”* (Amos et al., 2008:175). In other words process theories are more concerned with *“How the motivation takes place?”* (Saif et al., 2012:1388). These theories try to define the major variables or factors that are important for explaining motivated people (Stemple, 2004). The concept of *“expectancy”* from *“Cognitive Theory”* plays a dominant role in the process theories of job-satisfaction (Luthans, 2005:246). In general, process theories assume that individuals are satisfied at their job when their job provides what they value or expect to obtain from their jobs. A brief discussion of the well-known process theories, namely Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, Self-efficacy Theory, Value Theory, Job Characteristics Theory and Reinforcement Theory are followed hereunder.

### *2.3.3.1 Equity Theory*

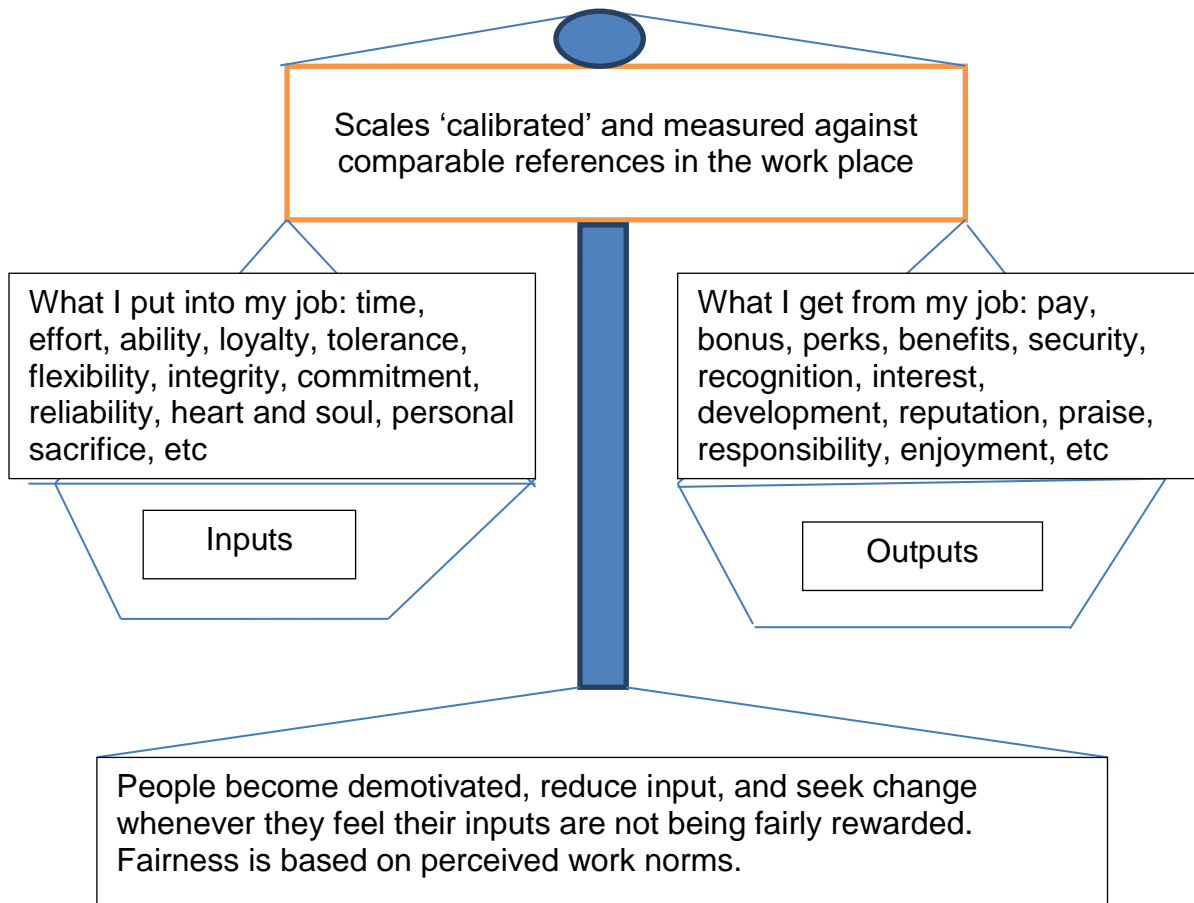
Equity Theory was postulated by Adams (1963). This Theory suggests that a major input into job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity (or inequity) that people perceive in their work situations. Inequity, which may end in dissatisfaction, occurs when a person perceives that the ratio of his or her outcomes to inputs and the ratio of a relevant other's outcomes to inputs are unequal (Luthans, 2012). Employees weigh what they put into a job (input) against what they get from it (outcome) and then compare this ratio with the input-outcome ratio of other workers in the same institution or outside the institution working under the same position or different titles. If they find this ratio equal to that of the relevant others, a state of equity is said to exist (Robbins, 2005).

Equity Theory helps explain why pay and conditions alone do not determine motivation and job satisfaction. It also explains why giving one person a promotion or pay-raise or reward can have a demotivating effect on others. When people feel fairly treated they are more likely to be motivated; when they feel unfairly treated they are highly prone to feelings of dissatisfaction and demotivation. The Equity Theory has extensively been studied over the past few decades under the title of 'distributive justice' (Yusof & Shamsuri, 2006). It has been found that rewards increase employee job satisfaction only when these rewards are valued and perceived as equitable by the employees (Perry, Mesch & Paarlberg, 2006).



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The following figure shows the Theory more precisely.



**Figure 2.2: Adams' Equity Theory  
(Adapted from Chapman, 2001:4)**

In sum, the Equity Theory provided the basis for understanding the impact of realized inequity or equity at the work environment. The implication of the Theory to this study is that academic staff members in university compare themselves to others within the university or outside with respect to results and inputs at work, and recognised differences in ratios may bring job dissatisfaction and can also motivate them to take action to bring equity.

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As mentioned earlier Equity Theory of job satisfaction focuses on individuals' perceptions of how fairly they are treated compared with others. Gibson et al., (2012:151) put forth the criticisms of Equity Theory as follows:

- The majority of equity theories mainly focus on short-term comparisons but not with longitudinal studies that examine inequity over a period of time to know what happens over time as the inequity remains, is increased, or is decreased. Are comparisons with others always within one's own organization, and do they change during a person's work career? These questions and the research to answer them could provide insight into the dynamic character of Equity Theory and individual responses.
- Another criticism of Equity Theory is that it ignores reactions to experienced inequities. Is it not likely that two people will react somewhat differently to the same magnitude of inequity if they believe different things caused the inequity?
- In addition, the Theory cannot help to determine cause-and-effect relationships, and there is no generally established or widely publicized procedure that can be directly linked to the Theory (Miner, 2005:150).

Regardless of the above criticisms on the Equity Theory, "*A comprehensive review of the Equity Theory research indicates considerable support for the Theory*" (Miner, 2005:142).

### ***2.3.3.2 Expectancy Theory***

The pioneer of Expectancy Theory was Vroom (1964) (Armstrong, 2006). Vroom's Expectancy Theory emphasises the mental processes regarding choice, or choosing. It looks at self-interest in the alignment of rewards with people's wants and the connections among expected behaviours, rewards and organizational goals. For organizations, it helps them to relate

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rewards directly to performance and to ensure that the rewards provided are those rewards deserved and wanted by the recipients.

The Expectancy Theory is also known as Vroom's Expectancy-Valence-Instrumentality (VIE) Theory (Vroom, 1964). Valence measures the satisfaction that a person anticipates to receive as a result of a particular outcome of a situation. Outcomes can be positive, negative, or zero valence. An outcome has a positive valence when a person would rather attain it than not attain it. A valence of zero is assigned to that outcome when a person is indifferent to attaining an outcome. If a person prefers not to attain the outcome, the outcome is said to have a negative valence (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2010). This means expectancy beliefs about the link between making an effort and actually performing well. It is the belief that increased effort will lead to increased performance, i.e. if I work harder, then this will be better. Instrumentality is the belief that the success of the situation is linked to the expected outcome of the situation (Vroom, 1964). In other words it is a person's belief about the relationship between performing an action and experiencing an outcome that is expected. Instrumentality is sometimes referred to as a "*performance-outcome expectation*" (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2010:83). Furthermore, the variables can be explained as follows. 'Valence' is the strength of an individual's preference (or value, incentive, attitude, and expected utility) for a particular output. 'Expectancy' is the probability that a particular effort will lead to a particular first-level outcome while 'instrumentality' is the degree to which a first-level outcome will lead to a desired second-level outcome. For example, a person can be motivated (motivational force or effort) toward better performance (first-level output) to realize promotion (second-level output) (Luthans, 2005).

Expectancy Theory explains that motivation is a product of three factors: how much reward is wanted (valence), the estimate of probability that effort will lead to the successful

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performance (expectancy), and the estimate that performance will result in getting the reward (instrumentality) - explained as 'Valence  $\times$  Expectancy  $\times$  Instrumentality = Motivation', (Newstrom, 2007).

The expectancy model is not about self-interest in rewards, but about the associations people make towards expected outcomes and the contribution they feel they can make towards those outcomes. Therefore, this study refers to the Expectancy Theory of Vroom (1964) to look at how academic staff in Ethiopian universities relate between the expected outcomes (accomplishment of the triple mandates given to universities) and their benefaction in the form of accomplishment that they think to contribute to the end result.

Below are criticisms listed that resulted as researchers and practitioners tried to implement the Theory. One problem involves the issue of effort, or motivation itself. The Theory attempts to predict choice or effort but without a clear specification of the meaning of effort, the variable can't be adequately measured. Typically, self, peer, or supervisor ratings of effort are used. The issue of first-level performance outcomes presents another difficulty. Expectancy Theory doesn't specify which outcomes are relevant to a particular individual in a situation. Each researcher addresses this issue in a unique way. Consequently, no systematic approach is being used across investigations (Gibson et al., 2012). Furthermore, the expectancy approach contains an implicit assumption that all motivation is conscious. Individuals are assumed to consciously calculate the pleasure or pain they expect to attain or avoid, then make a choice. Although it's generally accepted that individuals aren't always conscious of their motives, expectancies, and perceptual processes, Expectancy Theory says nothing about subconscious motivation. For the most part, this point has been neglected in the Theory. Moreover, the use of Expectancy Theory to motivate employees appears to be culturally bound (Gibson et al., 2012). Although the above

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criticisms of Equity Theory are mentioned, “*The Theory remains quite active and has shown tremendous potential for contributing many useful applications, but this potential still remains to be fully developed*” (Miner,2005:155).

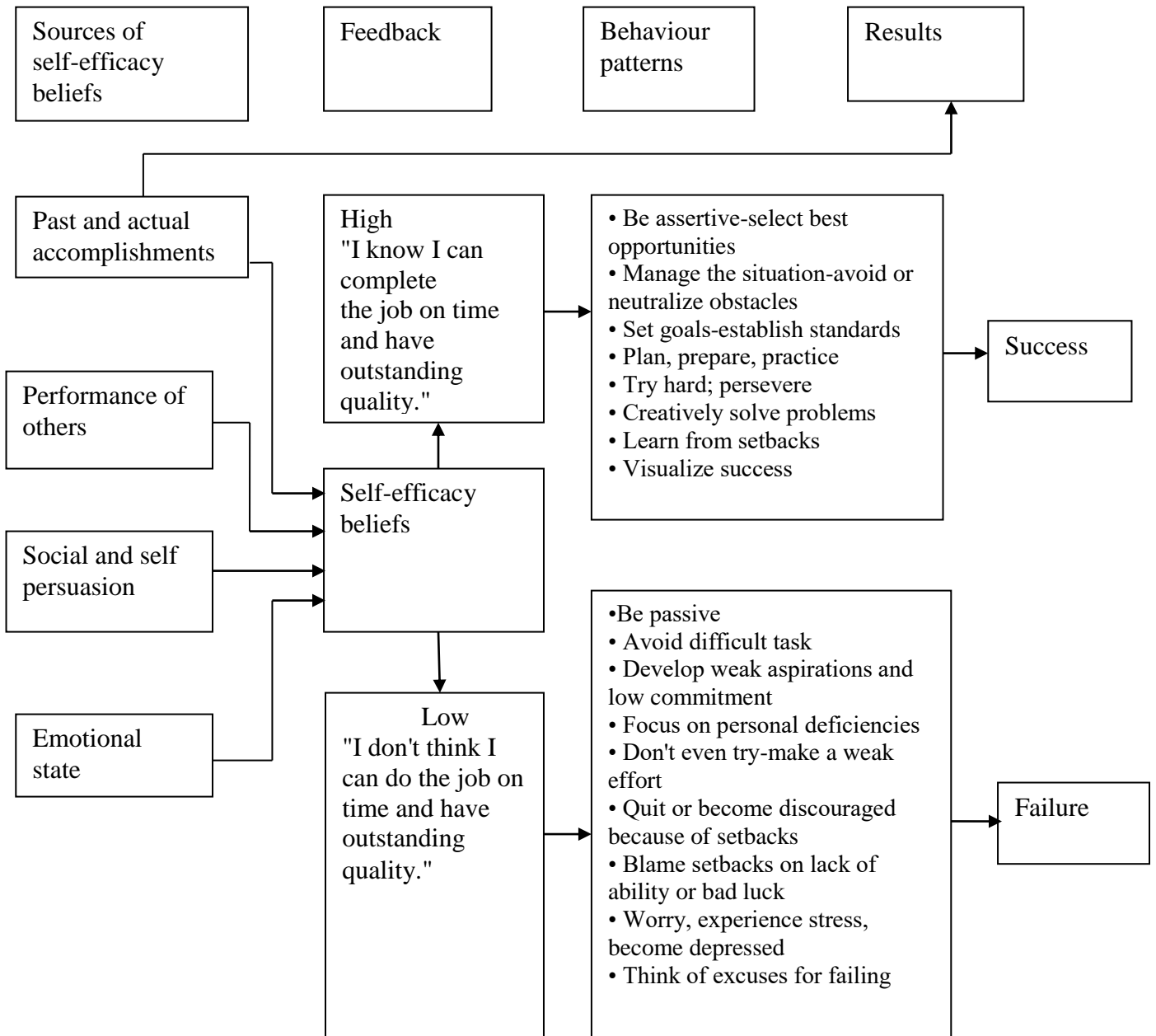
### **2.3.3.3 Self-Efficacy Theory**

Self-efficacy is a person’s judgment of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations; it is positively related to future performance (Miner, 2015). It has a lot in common with the expectancy concept, but it is much broader in scope. The Self-Efficacy Theory is the extension of the Expectancy Theory posited in recent years (Spector, 2008). Self-Efficacy has three dimensions: *magnitude*, the level of task difficulty a person believes she/he can attain; *strength*, referring to the conviction regarding magnitude as strong or weak; and *generality*, the degree to which the expectation is generalized across situations (Gibson et al., 2012: 159).

The Self-Efficacy Theory suggests that individual’s belief in effectiveness determines their motivation and accomplishment (Spector, 2008). Luthans (2012:236) stated, “*The higher employees’ self-efficacy on a specific task, the better they will perform*”. In other words, individuals with high self-efficacy are able to accomplish duties and are initiated to exert more energy to realize their end results. Likewise, individuals with low self-efficacy are not confident that they can perform tasks. Consequently they cannot be initiated and cannot exert the required energy. The energy that needs to be exerted is dependent on the personal capability to accomplish the task.

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The following figure shows Self-Efficacy Theory.



**Figure 2.3: Self-Efficacy Theory**  
(Adapted from Gibson et al., 2012:114)

According to the suggestion of Bandura and Locke, the Self-Efficacy Theory has been tested in different settings and the findings of the research have been supportive (Spector, 2008).

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Greater self-efficacy or belief in self-potential is required constituent of work motivation and successive performance and satisfaction with one's job.

### **2.3.3.4 Value Theory**

Value Theory, which is also called the Goal-Setting Theory, was developed by Edwin Locke (1969). It implies that individuals' goals assist to show impetus, job satisfaction and accomplishment. *"The Theory assumes that behaviour is a result of the individuals' conscious goals and intentions"* (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010:142). This implies that difficult goals demand focus on problems, increase the sense of goal importance, and encourage persistence to achieve the goals. According to this Theory, when employees perceive that the personal goals or goals identified by the leaders are attainable, their commitment as well as their productivity will increase.

Some specific goals lead to increased performance, for example, difficult goals lead to higher performance than easy goals, and feedback triggers higher performance than no feedback. Furthermore, people will do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals as feedback identifies discrepancies between what have they done and what they want to do. In this regard Hoy and Miskel (1996) identify specific rather than vague goals (such as "do your best"), self-set goals rather than organisationally set goals, challenging goals, as prerequisites to effective performance at the workplace. *"All those studies, which tested Goal-Setting Theory, demonstrate that challenging goals with feedback, work as motivating forces"* (Robbins, 2005:54).

Challenging, rewarding and specific goal setting, commitment to the goals and feedback on work progress alone cannot guarantee performance and achievement of the set goals. There must be additional variables from the employees and the organization that must be availed such

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as effort that leads to goal, support from the organisation and individual qualities such as abilities and traits among others, Van Fleet, Griffin and Moorhead (1991).

Some leaders and researchers have identified some criticisms against goal setting, (Gibson et al., 2012:172). First, goal setting is rather complex and difficult to sustain. Second, goal setting works well for simple jobs (clerks, typists, loggers, and technicians), but not for complex jobs. Goal setting with jobs in which goals aren't easily measured (teaching, nursing, engineering, and accounting) has posed some problems. Third, goal setting encourages game playing. Setting low goals to look good later is one game played by subordinates who don't want to be caught short. Leaders play the game of setting an initial goal that's generally not achievable and then finding out how subordinates react. Fourth, goal setting is used as another check on employees. It's a control device to monitor performance. Fifth, goal accomplishment can become an obsession. In some situations, goal setters have become so obsessed with achieving their goals that they neglect other important areas of their jobs.

Under the right conditions, goal setting can be a powerful technique for motivating and satisfying employees. When used correctly, carefully monitored, and actively supported by leaders, it can improve performance. Setting difficult goals and goal acceptance are two attributes that management must consider. The clear implication for leaders is that getting employees to set and strive to attain specific, relatively hard goals can generate a strong motivational force.

### ***2.3.3.5 Job Characteristics Theory***

The Job Characteristics Model, which is also called '*task enrichment theory*', was theorized by Hackman and Oldham (Robbins, 2001:447). The theory is based on the idea that the task itself is a key to employee motivation. Job characteristics are aspects of the individual



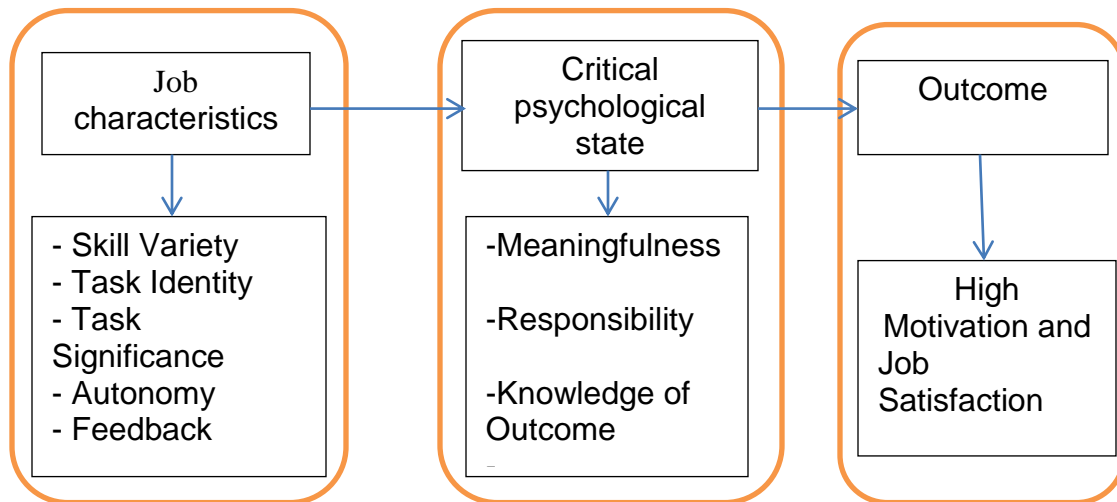
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employee's job and tasks that shape how the individual perceives his or her particular role in the organization. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) original formulation of Job Characteristics Theory argued that the outcomes of job redesign were influenced by several moderators. This model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.)

Skill variety is using an appropriate variety of your skills and talents: too many might be overwhelming and too few might be boring. Task identity is being able to identify with the work at hand as more whole and complete, and hence enabling more pride to be taken in the outcome of that work. Task significance is being able to identify the task as contributing to something wider, to society or a group over and beyond the self. These three work characteristics determine the first psychological state which is termed 'experienced meaningfulness'. Responsibility, which is the second psychological state, is derived from autonomy, as it provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. Knowledge of outcomes, the third psychological state, comes as a result of feedback which implies employee awareness of how effective he/she is converting his/her effort into performance. The point is that the feedback offers information that once you know you can use to do things differently if you wish.

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Feedback can come from other people or the job itself. The Theory can be represented by the following diagram.



**Figure 2.4: Job Characteristics Model  
(Adapted from Hackman and Oldham, 1980:90)**

Hoy and Miskel (1996:324) further classified the three psychological states which are necessary to enhance an individual's motivation and job satisfaction as follows:

- The experience of work as meaningful, i.e. the quality of work performance;
- The experience or work responsibility, i.e. the level of personal responsibility for a person's work; and
- Insight into job performance, i.e. an evaluation of how well or poorly an individual is performing at his/her job.

When the three psychological states are present in the work environment as a result of the job characteristics emanating from the work itself, academic staff are expected to feel good, accomplish well and continue to accomplish. Therefore, the three psychological states that are affected by the five job characteristics are related not only to employees' job satisfaction belonging to different organizations but also to academic staff members' job satisfaction.

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A critique of Job Characteristics Theory emanate from the Social Information Processing Perspective. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977, 1978) proposed an alternative interpretation of the Job Characteristics Theory findings. The critique is entirely conceptual but they do not support it with any of their own research on job enrichment. Yet, it may well still make a contribution to the development of an expanded Theory.

The critique operates from the position that, as adaptive organisms, individuals adapt their attitudes, behaviour, and beliefs to their social context and to the realities of their past and present behaviours and situations. Characteristics of a job, for instance, are not given, but constructed out of an individual's perceptions. The behaviour of a person can serve as information out of which that person constructs attitudes; other features of the social context can produce similar effects.

Out of this line of argument, Salancik and Pfeffer (1977, 1978) develop a number of reinterpretations of job characteristics research:

- The distribution of a questionnaire can focus attention on particular aspects of a job, thus priming the respondent to pay attention to certain information and to a large degree predetermining the response.
- Individuals are aware of their own responses to questions and in an effort to be consistent in the pattern of their responses may generate many of the results found in job enrichment research. This is what elsewhere has been called 'common method variance'.
- Cooptation of job dimensions and criteria constructed by the organization and its managers may cause employees to define their work situations in certain predetermined

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ways. This may include co-opting the values and consequences of a job design programme in which they have agreed to participate.

There is also ample evidence that social information processing factors cannot be used to explain away the results of Job Characteristics Theory research. The Theory simply has not been refuted by this line of attack (Griffin and McMahon, 1994), although it did undergo a few growing pains. Thus, at present, Job Characteristics Theory remains a viable approach that, in spite of the loss of its authors to other endeavours, and some diminution of the rate of related research, it continues to offer considerable promise.

### ***2.3.3.6 Reinforcement Theory***

Skinner (1904-1990) pioneered his 'operant conditioning' into the Reinforcement Theory that was observed as decisive in behaviour modification. He obtained his doctorate in psychology from Harvard in 1931 and subsequently served on the psychology faculties of the Universities of Minnesota and Indiana before returning to Harvard in 1948. He worked at the Harvard University as the Edgar Pierce Professor of Psychology from 1958 until his retirement in 1974. Skinner wrote several books that provide statements regarding matters that have possible relevance for the study of organizations, although none touches even tangentially on the field of organizational behaviour (Miner, 2005).

Reinforcement Theory, that is mainly dependent on the work of Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1938), is sometimes known as "*Skinner's Behaviour Modification Theory*" (Lai, 2009:11) that was developed on the operant conditioning model that uses stimuli such as reinforcement, punishment or extinction to elicit acceptable behaviour and minimizing unwanted behaviours. In the Theory, Skinner (1938) and Naylor (1999) define reinforcement as any effect that causes behaviour to be repeated or inhibited and can be either positive or negative. The Theory also

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relates to the idea of conditioning which proposes that if pleasant consequences follow certain behaviour, that behaviour will persist; whereas if unpleasant consequences follow a certain behaviour, that behaviour will stop. The guiding principle of the theory is that human behaviour is a function of its consequences. The basic concept of the Theory is learning, defined as “A relatively permanent change in behavior potentiality that results from reinforced practice or experience” (Hamner, W. Clay, 1974a:87).

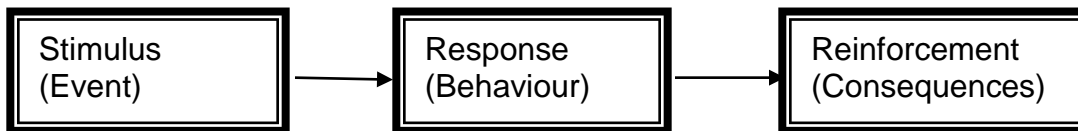
The major hypotheses of the Theory relate to the relative effectiveness of manipulating the contingencies of reinforcement in different ways. There are four different types of arrangements of contingencies specified: positive reinforcement, avoidance learning, extinction and punishment. “The first two serve to strengthen desired behaviour and the last two serve to weaken undesired behaviour” (Miner, 2005:116).

“A positive reinforce is a stimulus which, when added to a situation, strengthens the probability of an operant response” (Skinner, 1953:73). Avoidance learning operates in a manner similar to positive reinforcement except that the desired behaviour serves to prevent the onset of a noxious stimulus, or, in a variant, terminates such a stimulus that already exists. In the workplace, supervisory criticism is often such a noxious stimulus. In other words avoidance learning reinforcement strengthens behaviour by teaching individuals to respond in ways that avoid undesirable consequences. Extinction occurs when a previously utilized positive reinforcement is withheld. Under such circumstances the behaviour involved may continue for some time but, as the reward continually fails to appear, the behaviour diminishes and ultimately is extinguished entirely. This approach is appropriate when an individual brings undesired behaviours to the job or when an undesired behaviour has inadvertently been reinforced in the past. Punishment is negative reinforcement on employees who exhibited unwanted behaviour. It

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weakens behaviour by providing an undesirable consequence when an undesirable behaviour occurs. However, many behaviour modification advocates prefer extinction to punishment as a method of influencing behaviour on the grounds that punishment may have certain negative side effects. Skinner himself does not favour the use of punishment (Miner, 2005 & Stoner, 1978).

Reinforcement Theory is dependent on two important suppositions: first, it assumes that individual behaviour is based by the environment, and, second, individual behaviour can be predicted and/or changed. *“The Theory involves three components: stimulus which is an event that leads to a response; response which is a unit of behavior that follows a stimulus; and reinforcement which is a consequence of a response”* (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:201; Steyn, 1996:11-12). The three constituents of the Reinforcement Theory are indicated as follows:



**Figure 2.5: The three components of Skinner’s Reinforcement Theory**  
**Source: Wagner & Hollenbeck (1998:86)**

The linkage between the constituents represented in the above figure depicts that a stimulus (event) leads to a response (behaviour) and is followed by reinforcement (result). According to behaviour modification, a person’s current behaviour is solely determined by the past history of reinforcement, thus, if a particular stimulus-response pair is followed by a desirable consequence, it will be more likely that the stimulus involved will prompt the same response in the future. Conversely, if the consequence is undesirable, the response will be less likely to recur. In summary, *“The consequences of a person’s behavior are made dependent upon*

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*his/her response to a stimulus and determine the likelihood of the behavior to recur”* (Dessler, 2008:474).

Reinforcement Theory is the basis for the notion that rewards should be proportional with individual units of productivity. This view is shared by Spector (2008), who adds that rewards can be highly effective in the enhancement of job performance. A guide line on work place ethics and discipline in which behaviours that are not desirable and unacceptable and correct behaviours that are praised and awarded are clearly spelt out needs to be prepared and all academic staff members should be aware of it. Leaders in universities need to use the four contingencies of reinforcement when deemed necessary to enhance desired behaviours in the work place so that academic staff can perform better in a sustained manner and discharge their mandate properly. Thus the Reinforcement Theory has implications for this study.

Kohn (1999) offers a compelling set of criticisms of Reinforcement Theory specifically focusing on performance-based rewards. He contends that rewards and punishments are just two sides of the same coin and the coin doesn't buy very much. He suggests that managers must move beyond the use of rewards or punishments.

Critics have attacked this Theory on a number of grounds. According to Gibson et al. (2012) a frequent concern with the use of reinforcers is that there's no 'real' change in behaviour: the person is just being 'bribed' to perform. Bribery refers to the illicit use of rewards to corrupt someone's conduct. In reinforcement, however, outcomes are typically delivered for behaviours designed to benefit the person and the organization. Although this criticism is logical, it really doesn't apply to the reinforcers that are usually used in organizations.

An additional perspective is offered by Locke (2002), who believes that to view reinforcements as modifying responses automatically, independent of a person's beliefs, values,

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or mental processes, is simply a wrong way to view human behaviour. He states that this Theory is simple and appealing but that the facts don't support it. He claims that people can learn by seeing others get reinforcement and by imitating those who are reinforced. *"There's also self-reinforcement, which operant conditioning theorists ignore"* (Locke, 2002:375).

Another criticism focuses on the point that individuals can become too dependent on extrinsic reinforcers (e.g., pay). Thus, behaviour may become dependent on the reinforcer and may never be performed without the promise of the reinforcer. Last, but not least, criticism, especially in the case of positive reinforcement, is that its utilization may be more perceived than actual (Cherrington, 1992).

### **2.3.4 Conclusion**

The theories discussed above under two major categories are related to job satisfaction of employees in work places. These theories have been used separately by different researchers to study the extent of employees' job satisfaction in different organizations such as businesses, service providing organizations and other institutions. Academic staff members are not different from other employees working for different private, public or any kinds of organizations. There are different factors that enhance or hinder the motivation and consequently job satisfaction of academic staff. Therefore, the theories are relevant to study the factors that influence motivation and job satisfaction of academic staff.

The aim of this chapter was to explain different theories pertaining to job satisfaction and identify one Theory that is the best fit for this study. The theoretical framework that guided this study is Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. This Theory was chosen because the limitations related to the Theory can be overcome easily and most of the studies on job satisfaction of academic



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staff in different countries have used this Theory and that will make comparisons of the results of this study with that of other studies easier.

### **2.4 SUMMARY**

This chapter emphasised a review of seminal theories on job satisfaction. Eleven job satisfaction theories have been grouped into two categories, namely content theories and process theories. Content theories included Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory, Theory X and Y and McClelland's Learned Needs Theory. These theories were intended to analyse the needs that initiate individuals and lead them to job satisfaction, and infer that job satisfaction of employees is relied on the accomplishment of some needs. Leaders need to be cautious that employees require sustained encouragement to enhance their job satisfaction levels for the effective accomplishment of their duties and responsibilities.

Process theories include Equity theory, Expectancy Theory, Self-Efficacy Theory, Value Theory, Job Characteristics Theory and Reinforcement Theory. They are mainly dealt with the real process of job satisfaction. Whereas the process theory pioneers state that job satisfaction is the result of thinking processes that affect individual behaviour. In addition they argue that job satisfaction is determined not only by the nature of the job and its context within the organisation, but also by the needs, values and expectations that the individuals have in relation to their job. The Equity Theory promotes fairness among employees. All academic staff in universities and employees in other organizations need to be treated equally in their work places. If they perceive that leaders are biased against them, it would have a negative influence on their levels of job satisfaction. According to the Expectancy Theory, job satisfaction is affected by individuals' beliefs in their own efforts, the resulting job performance and the outcomes. Goal Setting Theory proposes that job satisfaction is a result of attaining goals by individuals that are

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set by themselves or the organization. This Theory suggests that the goal itself provides the encouragement that directs employees' job satisfaction.

Studies of job satisfaction in industries and business are relatively ample. Attention is given, however, to the study of job satisfaction of academic staff, especially in the developed countries, although the work environment is different. In the studies carried out so far, the variables or antecedents used are categorized as individual characteristics, job characteristics and organisational characteristics, but for the current study individual characteristics/variables and organizational characteristics or variables were chosen. Moreover, the age of the university and student discipline and student achievement variables are included in the organizational characteristics categories.

The theoretical framework presented above in this chapter is linked to this study. In the study, eleven theories of job satisfaction categorized under content and process theories have been briefly discussed as a means to explain the state of employees' job satisfaction in any organization. Among all the theories that have links to this study, the study mainly refers to Herzberg's Two-Factor (hygiene-motivator) Theory as a means to highlight several key factors of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities.

In the chapter that follows relevant empirical literature on the status of academic staff job satisfaction in universities that have been carried out recently in different countries is discussed. The mechanisms used to enhance the job satisfaction levels of academic staff in a few other countries are also reviewed.

**CHAPTER 3**

**JOB SATISFACTION AMONG UNIVERSITY ACADEMIC STAFF IN VARIOUS  
COUNTRIES**

**3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Human power management is one of the challenges facing managers and leaders in any institution, particularly to ensure job satisfaction among all employees to enhance productivity and high performance. *“Job satisfaction represents one of the most complex areas facing today’s managers, when it comes to managing their employees”* (Aziri, 2011:60). Job satisfaction is a recurring feeling of employees. Employees who are satisfied at one time may not have the same feeling all the time; therefore, it needs continuous management. Many studies have been carried out in the past and still the effort is on-going in organizations around the world to understand and thereby control the elements of employees’ satisfaction.

Most of the job satisfaction studies conducted in the past are in business and other professions. *“Job satisfaction research has focused on a wide variety of job types and settings, predominantly business firms, but also hospitals, government agencies, professions and the military”* (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011:155). Most of the studies that have been conducted in the field of job satisfaction focused on business and industrial settings (Platsidou & Diamanto Poulou, 2009). In their studies the scholars used different variables that are antecedents to and consequences of employees’ job satisfaction. Some of the factors are organizational factors, demographic or individual factors, leadership and management style and others. Consequences of job satisfaction such as commitment, high performance and that of dissatisfaction such as intention to leave, turnover, absenteeism and others are also considered in the studies. Different

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results are obtained from these studies depending on the cultural, social and personal variables of different countries. The results of the research vary from high satisfaction, medium satisfaction to dissatisfaction. The reasons for satisfaction or dissatisfaction also varied accordingly.

Although the work environment in higher education institutions is different from other institutions, studies on job satisfaction of academic staff have been widely conducted in the developed nations. As Rosser (2004) suggested, although the concept of '*satisfaction*' has been studied in-depth, it is constantly changing. In particular, there are several important discrepancies between job satisfaction among university professors and among other occupational groups (Oshagbemi, 1996). Studies of academic staff job satisfaction used variables that are directly related to the tripartite responsibilities of universities, i.e. teaching, research and service to the community. The results of and reasons for academic staff satisfaction and dissatisfaction are also varied, similar to that of business or industry employees. Hence the issue of job satisfaction is not only the concern of industry and business but also that of universities. That is why job satisfaction is getting growing attention as a research theme in universities in different countries.

Motivation and job satisfaction of employees in any organization is very important for it to achieve its objectives as a motivated person is always ready to act (Kotler & Keller, 2010). Job satisfaction is influenced by different variables in work places. In this chapter the relationship between job satisfaction and different organizational factors and demographic factors is presented and discussed. Furthermore, the relevant research results on job satisfaction of academic staff from different scholars in different countries, including Ethiopia, are reviewed and explained critically in view of the theoretical framework. This part is aimed to address sub-aim two of the study explained in Chapter 1 and will help to get a better knowledge of the different factors affecting the job satisfaction of academic staff in universities.

## **3.2 FACTORS THAT AFFECT JOB SATISFACTION IN THE WORKING FORCE IN GENERAL AND IN UNIVERSITIES IN PARTICULAR**

### **3.2.1 Introduction**

In the study of employees' job satisfaction in different organizations, including universities, different factors or antecedents of job satisfaction are used according to the interest of the researchers. As suggested by Bolin (2007), the factors affecting job satisfaction of employees identified by different studies are not similar, but their contents are more or less similar. Individual characteristics, job characteristics and organisational characteristics are commonly studied as they are among the antecedents of job satisfaction and correlate with it (Ali, & Anuar, 2012; Bashir et al., & Khan, 2011; Gabbidon & Higgins, 2012). Work-life balance is another significant variable studied for its relationship and correlation with job satisfaction. Work attitudes such as intention to leave, job stress and organisational commitment, and behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour, actual turnover and work performance have also been studied as correlates with or consequences of job satisfaction (Adekola, 2012).

This study identified several antecedents of job satisfaction based on the work done by different scholars previously. Therefore, the antecedents to or factors of job satisfaction for this study will be demographic factors and organizational factors that are briefly discussed next. These factors were chosen for this study for the main aim of it was to assess the factors that are affecting job satisfaction of academic staff so as to come up with intervening policy or guidelines that will improve the situation.

### **3.2.2 Demographic factors**

Many studies have used demographic factors or individual factors and a relationship was found between these factors and job satisfaction of academic staff in different countries. ‘*A large body of research has found a link between job satisfaction and a wide range of demographic characteristics*’ (Kim, 2011:73). Gender, age, salary, qualification, academic rank, management position and marital status have been considered as aspects of demographic factors in many studies. In this study these aspects of demographic variables have also been considered. An expanded discussion is presented in the next section 3.5 by referring to the findings of different studies regarding the variations in levels of job satisfaction of academic staff with demographic factors.

### **3.2.3 Organizational factors**

Many studies have considered organizational factors as determinants of job satisfaction. Weiss et al. (1967) have identified 20 factors of job satisfaction in their study and eight of these factors are organisational factors which include advancement, co-workers, compensation, supervision, human relations, recognition, company policies, and security. Later on, Spector (1997:3) argues, “*There are nine focal organisational determinants of one’s job satisfaction which are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication*”. A detailed discussion on the results of different studies carried out in recent years regarding the relationship between these variables and job satisfaction of academic staff is presented in the next section.

The theoretical framework chosen for this study and discussed in the previous chapter is Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory that includes hygiene factors or dissatisfiers and motivators or satisfiers. In addition to these organizational variables identified by Herzberg, student discipline

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and student achievement are also regarded and used as pertinent antecedents of job satisfaction of academic staff in the Ethiopian universities. The interplay between these variables and demographic variables and their impact on job satisfaction of academic staff in university settings will be studied.

### **3.3 FACTORS RELATING TO JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN A FEW SELECTED COUNTRIES**

#### **3.3.1 Introduction**

Along with the geographic, economic and socio-cultural diversification, there are different research results to date regarding the factors that relate to job satisfaction among academic staff. In this section the study results of different researchers in different countries will be scrutinized and their implications for this study will be stated. In the following sections a few of these studies in a few selected countries will be discussed as examples.

#### **3.3.2 South-Korea**

A study in South Korea by Kim (2011) identified that academic staff are satisfied with their work, academic freedom, recognition, development, interpersonal relationships, and job security. However, they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their working conditions. Overall, they were slightly satisfied with their jobs. According to this study Korean academic staff attached more value to intrinsic aspects, e.g. work, academic freedom, development, and recognition than to extrinsic aspects, e. g. workload, pay and administration.

### 3.3.3 Malaysia

The findings of a study in Malaysia by Noor (2013) identified linear correlations between all antecedents of job satisfaction with overall job satisfaction of academic staff. Government and university policies and support, supervision, contingent rewards, co-workers, nature of work, communication, and work-life balance show positive and moderate relationships with overall job satisfaction. Pay, promotion, and fringe benefits have positive and low correlations with overall job satisfaction. Contingent rewards showed the strongest level of correlation with job satisfaction. Operating conditions showed the weakest strength of correlation with overall job satisfaction. Academic staff without a management position had a higher overall job satisfaction of all academic staff (Noor, 2013).

According to the second study conducted to describe level of job satisfaction among higher learning lecturers at one of the public universities in Malaysia, i.e. University Utara Malaysia, the four main reasons for job satisfaction were the nature of staff relationships, career development, scope of work, and salary (Ahmad and Abdurahman, 2015). The findings of another study that investigated the relationship between personality factors and job satisfaction concluded that neuroticism is one of the main personality factors that predict job satisfaction and there is a negative relationship between neuroticism and job satisfaction and also there are positive relationships between agreeableness, consciousness and openness with job satisfaction (Mehradetal, 2015).

Generally studies in Malaysia posited that job satisfaction of academic staff in most cases is influenced by management support, salary/pay, promotion opportunities or career development, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, management position, the nature of staff relationships, scope of work, government and university policies, supervision,



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co-workers, nature of work, communication, work-life balance and personality (agreeableness, consciousness and openness), most of which are extrinsic factors.

### **3.3.4 United States of America**

The three factors related to the overall job satisfaction of academic professionals in USA were satisfaction with supervisor support, satisfaction with pay level, and level of work-family conflict (Johnson, 2010). The findings of the second study in the United States revealed that those criminology academic staff who had more journal article publications and who devote more time to family and friends had high job satisfaction (Gabbidon and Higgins, 2012). The results of the third study conducted in USA research universities about Asian international faculty members' intention to continue their employment suggest that academic staff who are more satisfied with time available for research and those who express stronger organizational commitment are more likely to stay. Those dissatisfied with the fairness of work and believe tenure decisions are not merit-based, are more likely to leave, (Lawrence et al., 2013). The results of the fourth study on the relationship between leadership style of the department head to nursing faculty professional satisfaction and organizational commitment in USA identified a positive relationship among transformational leadership, and organizational commitment and professional satisfaction. Furthermore, negative relationships exist among transactional leadership, and organizational commitment and professional satisfaction (Byrne, 2011).

The results of the fifth study indicated that faculty members were moderately satisfied with their jobs, with the personal growth and satisfaction job factor explaining the greatest proportion of variance in overall job satisfaction scores. They were only slightly satisfied with the policy and administration and fiscal resources factors (Foor & Cano, 2011). According to the results of a qualitative study of None Tenure Track Faculty at 12 research universities across the

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USA, for the none tenure track faculty the main sources of job satisfaction are opportunities to teach and work with students and career flexibility and less stress compared to their tenure-track colleagues (Waltman, Bergom, Hollenshead, Miller, & August, 2012).

The overall factors of job satisfaction of academic staff in the USA as mentioned in the previous studies are supervisor support, pay (level, fairness and source), level of work-family conflict, publication of more journal articles and devotion of more time to family and friends, time available for research, transformational leadership, personal growth policy, administration, opportunities to teach and work with students, career flexibility and less stress than tenure track faculty.

### **3.3.5 China**

The results of study on academic staff perceptions of job satisfaction in the foreign languages school of a leading Chinese university indicated that the factors faculty engagement, performance management, organizational change and general conditions of employment generally do little to promote job satisfaction, while some extrinsic-hygiene (environmental) factors are linked to job dissatisfaction. The findings also suggest that intrinsic-motivators associated with a tradition of academic autonomy in Western universities have been largely absent in the Chinese context (Wilson, & Zhang, 2010). The results of another study on analysis of job satisfaction of university professors from nine Chinese universities revealed that the job satisfaction of Chinese university professors includes six dimensions: career development and school management, teaching and research services, salary, benefits and logistical services, professional reputation, teaching and research facilities, and the work itself. The overall job satisfaction levels are close to average, with salary and benefits receiving the lowest level of satisfaction. The organizational characteristics of universities, such as school type, school level,

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academic field, organizational climate, evaluation orientation, and school management, all have significant effects on the overall job satisfaction of university professors. The organizational climate and school level affect all six dimensions of job satisfaction among university professors (Du & Lo, 2010). From the above results of the study, extrinsic-hygiene (environmental) factors such as career development and school management, teaching and research services, salary, benefits and logistical services, professional reputation, teaching and research facilities, the work itself and organizational characteristics are the predominant factors that affect job satisfaction of academic staff in Chinese universities.

### **3.3.6 Vietnam**

The findings of Vietnamese universities study showed that most academic members were satisfied with their job. Academic members were generally satisfied with teaching support equipment, working insurance, teacher promotion, gender equality, in-service teaching training, in-service research training, work autonomy, colleague academic interaction, colleague social relationship, teaching load, research pressure, development aim of school, leadership style, campus landscape, and administration efficiency (Vuong & Duong, 2013). Another study on factors affecting job satisfaction of faculty members in one of the universities of Vietnam showed that academics are overall satisfied with fiscal resources, personal growth and satisfaction, policy and administration (Viet, 2013).

### **3.3.7 The United Kingdom**

The findings of the study on the impact of role conflict, role ambiguity and organizational climate on the job satisfaction of academic staff in research-intensive universities in the UK suggest that three organizational climate types, namely the clan, the hierarchy and the adhocracy,

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were associated with lower levels of role stress. However, the market climate was associated with higher levels of role conflict. Only the clan-type climate was directly related to high levels of job satisfaction. It appears that despite the changes in the styles of management in universities, the collegial/clan climate is still a very important contributor to the satisfaction of academic staff in the research-intensive universities in the UK (Schulz, 2013).

### **3.3.8 Pakistan**

A study carried out on antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in Pakistan universities revealed that organizational commitment, organizational culture and work motivation positively correlated with job satisfaction. The individual facets of extrinsic motivator factors, intrinsic hygiene factors and affective commitment illustrated a positive relation with job satisfaction. The intrinsic hygiene factors including pay, supervision relationship with co-workers and extrinsic motivator factors, and opportunities for promotion positively correlated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In the case of supervision of internship reports there was no significant difference found with job satisfaction between the academic staff that either supervised or did not supervise any internship reports. The academic staff members who produced publications either in co-authorship or sole authorship, provided their services as referees for national or international journals, supervised MPhil or PhD students, were involved in examining the MPhil or PhD students' theses, were currently interested in research or had already written a book received more funding for research, received teaching training, and concentrated on continuance re-skilling, i.e. publications, supervision and examining MPhil or PhD, research grants and teacher training etc. were comparatively more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts (Gahfoor, 2014).

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The second study in Gomal University, Pakistan, revealed that the faculty members are satisfied from their jobs. It is also posited that faculty members of the arts and science departments have similar level of work pleasure and have similar perception about the job, pay, promotion, working environment and interpersonal relations (Jaffar et al., 2015). The third study by Naseem and Salman (2015) on job satisfaction of academic staff in Abbottabad indicated that important factors that have an impact on job satisfaction level are pay, job security, relationship with co-workers and relationship with supervisor. Academic staff were more satisfied with their relationship with co-workers and their supervisor than with pay and job security. The fourth result of descriptive research on job satisfaction of academic staff of public and private sector universities in Lahore found that academic staff members are highly motivated by all intrinsic factors, i.e. achievement, recognition, and advancement/growth (Kanwal et al., 2015). Thus job satisfaction of academic staff in Pakistan is influenced by diversified variables that belong to intrinsic motivating; extrinsic hygiene and demographic variables; in most cases the academic staff members are satisfied with their jobs.

### **3.3.9 Taiwan**

According to the result of a study conducted in Taiwan to compare the levels of job satisfaction among academic staff of public and private universities, overall job satisfaction and self-worth were most satisfied by the public university staff and organizational decision-making and salary welfare of job satisfactions were satisfied least by the public university staff. The private university staff members were most satisfied with interpersonal relationships and self-worth. Public university staff showed a significantly higher job satisfaction than private staff for salary welfare and overall job satisfaction. In general, the academic staff members in public universities showed a higher job satisfaction than the academic staff members in private

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universities (Tai & Chuang, 2014). The study on relationships among self-motivation, organizational commitment and job satisfaction of university academic staff members in Taiwan revealed that the motivation of the academic staff who participated in in-service education was high. Extrinsic motivation was greater than intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation, such as *'Go with trend'* and *'Incentive by school'*, were main factors influencing academic staff who are participating in in-service education. The level of job satisfaction did not reach significant difference with continuing in in-service education. The difference between organizational commitment and continuing in in-service education was not significant. This phenomenon implies that their in-service education might not really focus on or improve organizational commitment. The academic staff possessed a higher organization commitment score, while they held a higher level of job satisfaction. Moreover, the study found that those academic staff that finished their academic degrees possessed higher organizational commitment than those academic staff members who were pursuing their continuing education (HSU, & Chen, 2012).

### **3.3.10 India**

Findings of the study conducted on job satisfaction factors of MBA faculty members in India identified individual factors (satisfaction from classroom teaching, training and faculty development programmes, performance appraisal, cooperation and behaviour of peers (colleagues) and institutional factors (physical working conditions, student interaction, students' IQ, student curiosity, eagerness to learn, recognition for extra work/qualitative work, objectives and clearly defined promotion policies, salary, participation in decision making, management style, philosophy/vision, mission/strategy at top management and challenging and interesting work, job security, organization culture, support for research environment in organization and reputation of organization in market) are the factors that affect academic staff job satisfaction

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(Dave & Raval, 2014). Another study on job satisfaction of the faculty members working in self-financing and government arts and science colleges in Namakkal district, India, identified that working conditions and job security are the top two factors contributing to the faculty members' job satisfaction whereas recognition and salary/increment are the least influencing factors of job satisfaction (Yoganandan & Sowndarya, 2015). The third study conducted by Vasita and Prajapati (2014) in selected higher education institutions in western Rajasthan, India, to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and the twelve dimensions of QWL (fair compensation, safe and healthy working condition, opportunity for using and developing human capacity, opportunity for continued growth and security, social integration in the work organization, employees right, autonomy, work life balance) showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the eight dimensions of QWL, except for the characteristic of organization. To put it in a nutshell, job satisfaction of most of the academic staff in India is mainly affected by work related and organizational factors.

### **3.3.11 Turkey**

The findings of the study on job satisfaction of academic staff in Kyrgyzstan University shows that academic staff members' extrinsic job satisfaction level was satisfactory, and general and intrinsic levels were very satisfactory. The highest job satisfaction factors were good relations with co-workers and management style and the lowest were working conditions and wages. There were no important differences between job satisfactions among academic titles, but there were differences in satisfaction levels in terms of gender, age, experience and income (Çavuş, & Abdılđaev, 2014). The study by Altınok (2011:2563) in public universities in Ankara province depicted that academic staff in terms of job satisfaction show no difference with regards

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to “*gender and task areas*”, but differences were found between “*career and marital status*”. Thus, single staff and professors had higher levels of job satisfaction.

### **3.3.12 Nigeria**

As per the results of a study in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University in Nigeria, academic staff members were very highly motivated at work and also highly contented with the working environment. The study found that there was no job dissatisfaction among the staff. The study further revealed that staff performance as it relates to teaching was very high and this could be the result of high motivation among the academic staff of the university. However, their performance in the areas of research and other publications was moderate and this could be attributed to the fact that teaching does not require any direct expenditure or funding by a lecturer, while research projects are personally funded by the individual researcher or lecturer. “*Perhaps, the level of research in Nigerian universities could have been less if research publication is not a prerequisite for academic staff promotion*” (Mawoli, 2011:9).

### **3.3.13 Similarities and differences in job satisfaction among academic staff across the selected countries**

It is valuable to identify similarities and differences in job satisfaction experienced by academic staff in different countries. In view of this, the results of a study carried out on academic staff job satisfaction and job stress across countries in the changing academic environments by taking data from 19 countries revealed that European countries belong in the high satisfaction group. The high social reputation of academic staff in their society and academic autonomy are the sources of job satisfaction. More specifically, academic staffs’ job satisfaction is the highest in Mexico and the lowest in the UK. The extreme differences between



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these higher education systems could be related to various factors such as pressure for publication, salary, empowerment, academic freedom, governance, work conditions, workloads, and a feeling of affiliation. Countries in the high satisfaction category (Japan, Canada, Netherlands, Finland, Korea, Italy, Norway, Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, and Malaysia) show a relatively high score on intrinsic factors (academic freedom and shared governance), but show inconsistent patterns on extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors such as academic freedom, shared governance, and empowerment are significant in explaining job satisfaction in some countries, e.g., academic freedom in the USA and Italy, shared governance in Korea and the UK, and empowerment in Italy and the UK. Some extrinsic factors are significant in explaining job satisfaction, e.g. research support and the feeling of affiliation across all countries, and salary in Korea, work conditions in Italy, and technology support in Korea and the UK. None of the countries shows clear distinctions between intrinsic or extrinsic factors. The findings of this study suggest that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors are associated with job satisfaction at the same time (Shin & Jung, 2014). In addition to this study the study results of job satisfaction of academic staff in different countries that are reviewed show more or less similar results.

### **3.3.14 Conclusion**

From the results of the above study on job satisfaction of academic staff in different countries, it is possible to deduce that job satisfaction is influenced by different factors that are related to organization and the work itself. These factors have different levels of influence ranging from low to high on job satisfaction of academic staff members working under different settings.

### **3.4 FACTORS RELATING TO JOB DISSATISFACTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN A FEW SELECTED COUNTRIES**

#### **3.4.1 Introduction**

Work is not always pleasing to all workers in any organization. Employees may have good or bad impressions of their jobs due to different reasons. The same is true with academic staff working in different universities. There are different factors for academic staff to be dissatisfied or less satisfied with their work. In this respect, studies from different countries generate different factors as causes. The findings of some of these studies are posited next.

#### **3.4.2 Iran**

Assessment study results on job satisfaction and its influential factors in dental academic members in Tehran indicated that dissatisfying aspects of the academic work included educational and research policies, monetary strategies, quality of leadership and administration, promotion and tenure policies, job security, educational environment, equipment and facilities. In this study the greatest causes of dissatisfaction among the academic staff in Tehran were reported in the fields of salary and remuneration, promotion policies and acknowledgement and recognition, which were rated as “not at all” to “a little” (Seraj et al., 2014).

#### **3.4.3 South Korea**

The results of the study in South Korea identified that pay, working conditions, policy and administration, which are extrinsic factors contribute to overall academic staff members' job dissatisfaction. Moreover, some academic staff members regarded intrinsic factors, such as the nature of their work, as factors contributing to dissatisfaction (Kim, 2011).

### **3.4.4 Portugal**

The results of a study in Portuguese higher education indicated that academic staff members more dissatisfied were those with a higher education degree (PhD). Those teaching in public higher education institutions, especially those in public universities, expressed their dissatisfaction with research climate and conditions of employment (Taylor & Gouveia 2011).

### **3.4.5 Pakistan**

The case study conducted to identify some critical factors that cause employee job dissatisfaction among academic staff members in Pakistan University came up with different factors. According to the results of this study in Pakistan, the four core factors that cause job dissatisfaction among academic staff in the public sector universities of Pakistan are management lobbying, leg pulling/politics against academic staff, poor working conditions and groupings among academic staff. The impact of groupings among academic staff members was not conceptualized in this study but emerged during the research process (Mir, 2012). According to the results of the second study conducted in private and public universities of Lahore, academic staff members were less motivated with the promotion policies of the universities (Kanwal et al., 2015).

### **3.4.6 Ireland**

As it has been stated earlier job context or extrinsic factors ('hygiene') such as working conditions, pay level, company policies and job security can reduce job dissatisfaction but they cannot increase job satisfaction. The study among accounting and finance academic staff members in Irish higher education institutions identified promotion prospects and time available for research as causes of dissatisfaction (Byrne et al., 2012:153).

### **3.4.7 United States of America**

An institution-wide survey and interviews with women academic staff members who had left the Land Grant University, USA, resulted in several themes of job dissatisfaction. The factors that caused dissatisfaction were lack of resources to support faculty work, lack of consistent and quality leadership, lack of work-life balance policies and an environment to support them, and overall negative institutional and departmental environments (Gardner, 2012). The results of a qualitative study of None Tenure Track Faculty at 12 research universities across the USA revealed that the main sources of job dissatisfaction among None Tenure Track Faculty (NTTF) are: unclear, inconsistent, or non-existent employment policies and environments in which they do not feel respected for their contributions or included in their departments (Waltman et al., 2012).

The results of the third study conducted in the USA to find out predictors of academic staff intent to leave a public research university revealed that workplace stress, being in a “*soft-pure*” discipline, fewer years of service at the university, higher research productivity, being in a “*hard-applied*” discipline, not having a spouse or partner, a perceived lack of support, a perceived lack of fit, stress of raising a family, and dissatisfaction with certain aspects of the faculty job as key predictors of academic staff having considered leaving for another institution (Ryan et al., 2012:421).

### **3.4.8 Similarities and differences between job dissatisfaction among academic staff across the selected countries**

The causes of dissatisfaction among academic staff members in universities of different countries are varied. Some of the factors are related to working environment, some of them are related to the work itself and still others are related to social conditions. Studies indicated

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similarities and differences of factors that influence job dissatisfaction. The common factors that cause job dissatisfaction in the studies are pay, promotion and tenure policies and strategies and promotion prospects, research policies and time available for research, employment policies and job security, quality of leadership and administration, lack of resources to support faculty work, and lack of support (equipment, and facilities). What makes these factors similar is that they are related to working conditions and the work itself.

Dissimilar factors that are mentioned as causes of job dissatisfaction in the studies conducted in the few countries are educational policies, educational environments in which they do not feel respected for their contributions or included in their departments, management lobbying, leg pulling/politics against academic staff members, poor working conditions and groupings among them, lack of work-life balance policies and an environment to support academic staff members, 'hard-applied' discipline, not having a spouse or partner, a perceived lack of fit, stress of raising a family, and dissatisfaction with certain aspects of the faculty job.

### **3.4.9 Conclusion**

As shown in the aforementioned results of different studies, the factors that caused job dissatisfaction among academic staff members working for different universities are the work itself, the working environment or organizational factors and to some extent academic staff members' failure to meet the demands expected of academic staff members.

## **3.5 THE RELATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND JOB SATISFACTION**

### **3.5.1 Introduction**

This part of the study will try to address the relation of demographic variables and job satisfaction. Demographic variables include age, gender, experience, educational qualification

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and academic rank. A large body of statistical research has found a link between job satisfaction and a wide range of demographic characteristics. According to the study of Gahfoor (2014), the demographic characteristics of academic staff, namely rank/designation, salary, qualification, gender and teaching experience have a significant linkage with job satisfaction. However, his previous study conducted to examine the relationship between demographic characteristics and job satisfaction among academic staff of public and private universities in Pakistan identified that there was not too much difference in job satisfaction on the basis of demographic characteristics (Ghafoor, 2012). Another study found that demographic variables did not significantly explain the overall job satisfaction of academic staff but had a significant relationship with some of the job content and work context factors (Byrne et al., 2012). The study on academic staff members' job satisfaction in Tehran identified that demographic variables such as gender, employment status, and academic rank had no significant impact on the overall job satisfaction among academic staff members and years of employment were the only factor to affect professional fulfilment (Seraj et al., 2014). More specifically, results of studies relating to each factor of demographic variables are posited as follows.

### **3.5.2 Age**

The relationship between age and job satisfaction is a topic that has drawn a great deal of attention from researchers. In studies conducted pertaining to age Bashir et al. (2012) found that job satisfaction among academic faculty in 23 public universities in Pakistan varies with the demographic factor of academic staff members' age. In other studies it is found that older academics were significantly more satisfied than the younger ones (Toker, 2011; Noor, 2013; Bataineh, 2014; & Kim, 2011). However, in the study conducted in Pakistan, it was found that age and job satisfaction was not positively correlated with each other (Ghafoor, 2014). As per the

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study results with Egyptian academic staff, older employees had higher levels of Emotional Intelligence; however, age had no effect on reported job satisfaction. Age of academic staff members had mixed findings: for the younger generation, the relationship was significantly positive and for the older generation, it was insignificant and negative (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015).

### 3.5.3 Gender

Regarding the impact of gender on job satisfaction, Kim (2011), Bozeman & Gaughan (2011) and Ghafoor (2014) identified that female academic staff reported lower satisfaction with most job aspects and lower overall job satisfaction than did their male colleagues. Sajjadi et al. (2013) posited that female faculty members' job satisfaction is low and the main factors accounting for a rather low satisfaction score were limited welfare facilities, low salaries and unpaid arrears, improper work environment and limited promotion opportunities. Contrary to this Hagos and Abrha (2015) found that female academic staff members were more satisfied than their male counterparts. In another study, quality work life dimensions are significantly associated with career satisfaction of female academic staff members. Furthermore, *“four variables have emerged as significant determinants of career satisfaction: adequate and fair compensation, opportunity to use and develop human capacities, work and total life space and constitutionalism in the work organization”* (Mahbub, 2013:1-29). In other studies, male academic staff members were more satisfied with their jobs than their female counterparts (Byrne et al., 2012; Noor, 2013; Vuong & Duong, 2013; Bataineh, 2014 & Ghafoor, 2014). Gender did not have a significant effect on emotional intelligence or job satisfaction. It also did not have a moderating effect in the emotional intelligence/job satisfaction relationship among Egyptian academic staff (El Badawy, & Magdy, 2015).

### **3.5.4 Qualification**

Based on qualification, the studies identified that the academic staff members holding higher qualifications were comparatively more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts. In other words, the academic staff members with PhD degrees were more satisfied with their jobs than academic staff with MPhil, Masters and Bachelor (Hons) degrees (Ghafoor, 2014 & Byrne et al., 2012). Another study has identified that overall job satisfaction among the non-PhD faculty members of universities was very low. The motivator and job satisfaction components have significant impact on the overall job satisfaction of the non-PhD faculty (Mangi et al., 2011). Moreover, the academic staff members who have higher teaching experience were comparatively more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts (Ghafoor, 2014 & Bataineh, 2014).

### **3.5.5 Rank**

Another variable that also has significant impact on job satisfaction is rank of academic staff members. The results of a study in the USA revealed that there are differences in the satisfaction factors for faculty within the ranks of academic professional, instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and professor. Satisfaction with university characteristics appeared to be an important factor for tenured and tenure track faculty, but not for faculty with the rank of academic professional and instructor (Johnson, 2010). Studies indicated that lower-ranked academic staff members were less satisfied with their jobs than higher-ranked staff; professors were more satisfied with their jobs than associate professors, assistant professors and lecturers (Gahfoor, 2014; Bataineh, 2014 & Byrne, 2012).



### **3.5.6 Conclusion**

Demographic variables have different effects on job satisfaction of academic staff in the few countries presented in the previous section. The same variable such as age of academic staff members plays both a satisfying and dissatisfying role among academic staff in different countries. Reasons for dissatisfaction or satisfaction of academic staff with different demographic variables are attributed to work related situations prevailing in the universities.

## **3.6 POSSIBLE FACTORS AFFECTING JOB SATISFACTION AMONG UNIVERSITY ACADEMIC STAFF IN ETHIOPIA**

### **3.6.1 Introduction**

In this section, guidelines and policies related to job satisfaction of academic staff and the few research results on job satisfaction of Ethiopian academic staff will be reviewed to address sub-aim two of this study. The work of academic staff consists of activities including teaching and learning, research and community service. Job satisfaction is influenced by different factors that are in one way or other related to these triple mandates of academic staff in Ethiopian universities. To this end, very few researchers have conducted studies to investigate the different factors affecting job satisfaction and found out different results. In this part more emphasis will be given to organizational factors and demographic factors.

### **3.6.2 Organizational factors**

#### ***3.6.2.1 University policies and support***

There are many policies enacted to be implemented at different public universities in the Ethiopian context. Only some of the policies that are related to job satisfaction of academic staff are entertained hereunder.

##### **(a) Students' admission policy**

Students' admission policy in universities may have a negative or positive impact on job satisfaction of academic staff. The Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP V) of Ethiopia gives special provision and consideration for female students, students from the four emerging regions and students with special educational needs to be admitted to public universities (MOE, 2015). These students are placed in universities by the National Examination and Evaluation Agency by following special entry criteria such as lower university entrance examination results than the minimum cut-off point required for other students. Once these students are placed, universities are expected to support them with money, educational materials and awareness training and consultation. In addition, academic staff members are expected to organize special tutorial programmes with additional pay or without pay in order that the students may cope with other students who had a relative advantage in their pre-university studies or background. This duty is clearly specified in the higher education proclamation document under article 32/1 which requires academic staff to *'teach, including assisting students in need of special support, and render academic guidance or counselling and community services'* (FDRE, 2009:4996). This aspect of work will be one of the focus areas to study its impact on job satisfaction of academic staff in the Ethiopian context.

### **(b) Promotion policy**

Promotion policy has a direct relation with pay in any organization. It is one means of getting pay raises for employees. Promotion may have a negative impact on job satisfaction of employees when they are denied free and fair competition, promoted to challenging positions or when they are unfit for the new duties and responsibilities they are promoted. The reverse could be true and also for academic staff members in higher education. According to Ethiopian higher education proclamation number 650/2009, every higher education institution (university) shall institute rules and procedures on employment and promotion of its academic staff, consistent with international good practices (FDRE, 2009). In line with this, the Ethiopian Ministry of Education enacted harmonized senate legislation to be used by all universities by adapting it to their context. According to this legislation, academic staff promotion is determined by *“The length of service with a given rank, effectiveness in teaching, publications, participation in the affairs of the university and service given to the public at various capacities”* (MOE, 2012:25). These are the basic criteria upon which the principle of academic promotions is based. Regarding the length of service year, the service given to other universities will be taken into account as experience and any one can participate in academic promotion in his/her current university. Teaching effectiveness of academic staff is determined by taking the sum of performance evaluation results of the staff members filled by students (50%), colleagues (15%) and the academic unit head or the staff’s immediate supervisor (35%). Concerning publication, academic staff can be promoted to the rank of Assistant Professor, Associate Professor and Professor after publication of an article or articles in reputable journal(s) which is a mandatory requirement for promotion (MOE, 2012). However, reputable journals are not clearly specified to each field of study so that academic staff can refrain from publishing in journals that are more of ‘predators’ or

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business oriented. In addition, participation in the university's affairs and professional and related public service are also the criteria for promotion, but the number of affairs, professional and public services that each candidate should participate in and the corresponding value are not mentioned. These limitations of the promotion criteria may complicate the process of academic staff promotion and cause dissatisfaction. Once again this study will try to look into this aspect of the policy to find the relation to job satisfaction.

### **(c) Disciplinary policy**

Ensuring good governance and accomplishment of the triple mandates of universities is possible through maintenance of law and order and proper service delivery. Deviation from the rule of law and failure to abide by the rules and regulations may bring several consequences if not handled properly. Following the expansion of universities in the last five years, the number of students has risen from 447,693 in 2010 to 593,571 in 2014 (MOE, 2015:24) which has resulted in the influx of some students with different disciplinary problems. Some students are also exposed to drug abuse, substance use and female student violence after they join university. The study carried out in Haromaya University, Ethiopia, identified that among 725 participants, 390 (53.8%) reported having used at least one substance in their lifetime. The most commonly used substance was alcohol (41.7%) followed by Chat (a local stimulating plant chewed by people) (30.3%), cigarettes (11.3%) and illicit drugs (3.9%). It was also found that out of the total respondents, 243 (33.5%) of students had sexual experience. Among the sexually active, 28(11.5%) had multiple sexual partners in the last three months and 29(16.3%) males have sex with commercial sex workers. One hundred and forty nine (61.6%) of sexually active students used condoms last time when they had sex (Mohammed, 2014:414). Furthermore, students who are drug users cannot attend class regularly and cause university violence which may lead to

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class interruption and disappointment on the part of the academic staff. Such student behaviour has to be controlled by taking punitive action against those students who are misbehaving. According to the harmonized senate legislation of Ethiopia, a student who is alleged to have committed any of the breaches stated in the students' disciplinary regulation such as use of substances, engagement in drug use or misbehave in the classroom, dormitory or anywhere on the university campus shall be adjudicated and a decision made accordingly which may result in complete dismissal or suspension for one academic year (MOE, 2012). However the actions taken on misbehaving students may not be satisfactory or convincing to academic staff members who are disturbed or affected by these types of students.

It is also becoming common to see some academic staff members who are not good role models to their students. Some of them do not discharge their responsibilities vested to them through the higher education proclamation of Ethiopia. There are academic staff members who do not make necessary preparations for teaching and learning, who do not conduct special tutorial programmes for female students, special need students and students who came from emerging regions, and who are absent from class particularly in the afternoons (MOE, 2015). The reason for doing so should be investigated and addressed appropriately before the teaching-learning and the feeling of vanguard academic staff members are affected. This study thus focused on this aspect of organizational factors to investigate its impact on the job satisfaction of academic staff.

### **d) University governance policy**

According to the statement of the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation, the governing and consulting bodies of universities include board, president, senate, managing council, university council, academic unit council, academic unit managing council, department

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assembly and advisory or specialized committees or councils that may be established by the board, senate or university council (FDRE, 2009). In addition to the president, there are vice presidents for academic affairs, research and community service, administration and student service, business and development affairs and others depending on the age and mandate of universities. All of these governing bodies have their own duties and responsibilities. The board of a public university is the supreme governing body of the university and it has the responsibility, among others, to supervise and ensure that the university implements the provisions of the Higher Education Proclamation and that good governance prevails in the institution; nominate the president for appointment by the prime minister of the country and appoint the vice presidents on the basis of nominations made by the President. Deans, Directors, Department Heads and other academic leaders at different levels are appointed after going through merit based competitions among candidates who fulfill the minimum requirements such as teaching and management experience, qualifications, performance evaluation results, participation in research and community services and sometimes field of specialisation specific to each of the positions. The board is expected to conduct three to four regular sessions in a year to give strategic leadership and influence preparations of plans and budgets as well as plan implementation by the institution (FDRE, 2009:5007-5008). However, due to different reasons the board does not conduct meetings at least once in the quarter of each year to make some decisions that are related to new programme launching, allowance and benefit decisions that are needed by academic staff and others.

Leadership is important at university level and academic leaders need to implement the right type of leadership style that will motivate academic staff to exert their efforts in all aspects. The result of a study in Wolaita Sodo University, Ethiopia, indicates that although the correlation

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strength was found to be medium, there are positive relationships between personal power bases (expert and referent), leadership and job satisfaction. In addition, there is also a positive relationship between organizational power and job satisfaction but the correlation strength between the two variables was found to be small. According to the descriptive statistics of power bases, the mean score of referent power was the highest in comparison to the other power base sub-variables. Moreover, the descriptive results of job satisfaction revealed that the mean score for the work was the highest in comparison to the other job satisfaction dimensions and it is inferred that personal power bases are more effective and exercise power better than organizational power (Gebreegziabher, 2015:118-119). The results of another study by Zeleke (2013:115) aimed at examining perceived principals' leadership styles related to academic staff job satisfaction in Higher Theological Institutions of Addis Ababa (HTIAA), Ethiopia, revealed that academic staff members who worked under leaders who were transformational in their leadership style had statistically significant higher academic staff job satisfaction scores than those academic staff members who worked under leaders who were undistinguished in their leadership style. The leaders appointed in different positions may not exhibit the right kind of leadership style that is required to motivate academic staff for best performance and this can be one of the reasons for dissatisfaction which needs further investigation by taking a relatively large number of sample universities and academic staff members.

### **(e) Curricular and assessment policies**

Curricular design, delivery, and assessment of learning outcomes in any university shall aim at enabling the learner to acquire pertinent scientific knowledge, independent thinking skills, communication skills and professional values that together prepare students to become competent professionals (FDRE, 2009:4987). In line with this, in Ethiopia curricula common to

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all public universities have been developed jointly through the participation of the public universities responsible for their implementation; and such curricula have served as the minimum requirements applicable to any of the universities. So far three different curricula have been developed: conventional, modular and harmonized. The last two were intended to ensure that all universities are using more or less a similar type of curriculum which will enhance student transfer from one university to another and more or less a similar level of competency among graduates from different universities. Frequent change in curriculum may create different problems when students are delayed from their batch due to different reasons and cope with students who are taught using new curriculum. This condition will also create problems to academic staff who will be assigned to teach different students with different curricula that requires at least two different lesson preparations. Consequently, academic staff may become dissatisfied to work in such circumstances.

Another factor that may have an effect on job satisfaction of academic staff is the assessment policy of public universities. According to the Higher Education proclamation (FDRE, 2009), the course design and delivery should be such that the courses shall add to the knowledge and skills students already have, cultivate constructive professional values, and bring about attitudinal changes and development in students at the end of the courses. Students should be assessed properly and fairly on the basis of their learning experience, and the marking system should be reflective of the competences achieved by students. Each university is expected to have institutionally recognized and well-defined student assessment and examination methods and systems at academic unit levels to which every academic staff member shall adhere, and have been made known to students (FDRE, 2009:5005). The assessment modality consists of continuous assessment (50%) and final examination (50%). The continuous assessment has five



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modalities: attendance and participation (5%), individual assignment (10%), group assignment (10%), quizzes (10%) and test (15%). However, special course instructors can present different assessment modalities to use after the department head or council approves it (MOE, 2012). Proper assessment of student achievement, particularly using continuous assessment modalities, is becoming difficult. There are students who are copying the work of other students when writing individual and group assignments. It is also difficult for the academic staff to take regular attendance and register the name of the students who are participating actively in the classroom during each session. It is also difficult to mark assignments, quizzes, tests and final exams when the number of student in each class room is more than 80 students. Thus the assessment policy that is used intensifies the academic staffs' workload drastically. Coupled with this, the grading system which has changed from norm-referenced to criterion-referenced gives opportunity to students to get the same grade such as 'A' as long as their raw mark is in the range between 85 to 90 out of 100 (MOE, 2012:86). The assessment modalities and the grading system might have created a burden to academic staff which may lead to dissatisfaction with their jobs. This needs further investigation in this study.

### ***3.6.2.2 Working conditions***

Working conditions are those factors that affect job satisfaction of academic staff members as instructors, researchers and community service providers which are the diverse roles that academic staff members are required to play through their relations with the different service users. These service users include students, colleagues, charity organisations, business and religious/tribal leaders and other community organisations. The working conditions are linked to Hertzberg's motivators that directly or indirectly relate to the academic staff member's job satisfaction. In this study, the working conditions include pay, workload, class size, academic

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freedom, rewards and recognition and communication. Students' achievement is also included as a separate and independent variable that affect the job satisfaction of academic staff members.

Working in a university as academic staff means holding great responsibility for creating trained manpower at high levels that will play significant roles in the development of the nation. At the same time, academic staff members are expected to engage in research and community services that should solve the real problems of the community in a sustainable way. In this part we will be looking at the different factors considered that are included under working conditions.

### **(a) Salary**

Salary also includes additional benefits that are given as a result of doing extra work assigned to different academic staff members. Earning a better salary is one of the reasons that academic staff work for universities. However, salary has been and will remain debatable among academic staff as long as it does not suffice to lead a better or similar life in the community where they live. In the Ethiopian context, academic staff salary is considered very low when compared to the salary that is earned by other professionals working for other organizations including private universities. There have been frequent appeals for salary raises by academic staff in the last four years. The Government of Ethiopia revised the national salary scales of academic staff in response to academic demands for improved pay structures. All academic staff members within public sector universities are treated under the same pay scale. Accordingly, the government has tried to raise academic staff salaries by introducing a new basic salary scale in 2014 and 2016. The following table shows the salary scale change.

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Table 3.1: Monthly Salary Structures of Academic Staff in Ethiopia

Rank	Salary in 2011		Salary in 2014		Salary in 2016		Average salary Increase	
	Birr	US Dollar	Birr	US Dollar	Birr	US Dollar	Birr	US Dollar
	<b>Graduate Assistance I</b>	2250	100.54	3145	140.53	5178	231.37	1464
<b>Graduate Assistance II</b>	2685	119.97	4282	191.33	6570	293.57	1942.5	86.80
<b>Assistance Lecturer</b>	3820	170.69	5077	226.85	8310	371.31	2245	100.31
<b>Lecturer Assistance professor</b>	4605	205.76	7286	325.56	10470	467.83	2932.5	131.03
<b>Assistance professor Associate professor</b>	5443	243.21	8843	395.13	13140	587.13	3848.5	171.96
<b>Professor</b>	6347	283.60	10790	482.13	16360	731.01	5006.5	223.70
<b>Professor</b>	7329	327.48	13468	601.79	20245	904.60	6458	288.56

Source, MCS Salary Scale Improvement guideline (2014)

Source, MOE Salary Scale Improvement guideline (2016)

Note, the exchange rate 1 US \$ = 22.38 Birr dated, 12.1. 2016.

As it is clearly shown in table 3.1, there is salary increment in the years 2014 and 2016 to Ethiopian academic staff, but deduction of the income tax which is up to 35% and retirement tax which is 7 % from the gross salary will lower the amount of net salary that will be reduced nearly by 50%. In the year 2011, the maximum salary for a Pakistani university professor was USD 888.37, for associate professor USD 801.16, for assistant professor USD 732.56 and for lecturer USD 581.40 (Ghafoor, 2014). When the 2016 salary scale of Ethiopian academic staff is compared with that of Pakistani, it is relatively lower for lecturer, assistant professor and

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associate professor. However, Ethiopian professors who are relatively few in number earn a higher salary than that of Pakistani professors.

In addition to the basic salary, some of the allowances given to academic staff members starting from the year 2014 are house allowance which is 35.74 USD for lecturer, 44.68 USD for assistant professors and above that. Furthermore, those academic staff members who are involved in continuing and distance programmes such as extension, in-service and weekend classes obtain pay at the rate of 4.46 USD per hour for lecturers and 5.36 USD per hour for assistant professor and above that, all liable to taxation. This will necessarily minimize the net income of the academic staff member. However, there are colleges that have no such programme in which academic staff members could engage and get additional pay and this may lead to dissatisfaction.

In addition to the basic salary and allowances, there are fringe benefits and contingent rewards that are given to the academic staff as supplements to their basic salary. According to the Ethiopian Federal Civil Servants Proclamation endorsed by the House of Representatives of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, any employee is entitled to get 30 days of annual leave per year, sick leave for a maximum of three months by presenting evidence from physicians working in reputable government or private hospitals or other health facilities, maternity leave for three months to the wife and five days for the husband to take care of his wife and children, seven days for a wedding ceremony, mourning or attending a funeral, to sit an exam and other personal reasons (FDRE, 2007:3549-3552).

Salary has been the focus of some studies of academic staff in universities. Researchers found significant differences of job satisfaction among different tenure groups of academic staff in their studies. The study carried out in Mekele University in Ethiopia identified that the

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academic staff members were generally satisfied with their jobs. The factor '*achievement*' was the most motivating aspect for faculty. The least motivating aspect was '*salary*' (Hagos, & Abrha, 2015:1). The academic staff members who earned a lower salary were less satisfied with their jobs than those who earned a higher salary. This implies that academic staff members with a high net monthly salary were found more satisfied than those who were earning a lower monthly salary (Ghafoor, 2014 & Toker, 2011). It was also found that the permanent academic personnel were comparatively more satisfied with their jobs than contractual staff (Ghafoor, 2014). In this study, the impact of the new salary raise that comes as a result of the 2016 salary scale, allowances and fringe benefits on job satisfaction of academic staff was investigated.

### **(b) Workload**

The different types of work that academic staff members are expected to engage in are teaching-learning, research and community services. According to the harmonized University Senate Legislation (MOE, 2012), work load is the total credit hours of teaching and related assignments that academic staff carry, which takes into account the total lecture equivalent hours of courses, class size, contact hours, research work, student advising, administrative duties and other items that the Senate considers as a work load. Academic staff members are expected to work for 39 hours per week and the full teaching load is 12 credit hours. Based on this expectation, 12 lecture equivalent hours are equivalent to 36 hours of work per week. In addition to this, every academic staff member is required to advise/consult students for up to three hours a week. The teaching staff members of a university are expected to engage in research activities. However, not to take a big share of the teaching time, teaching staff members are not expected to be engaged in a research work for more than 25% of their time. In other words, 75% is spent on teaching and learning related work. Academic staff employed as research staff and vice

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presidents in different titles are expected to hold only three credit hours of teaching load. Furthermore, academic staff who are in the university's approved project coordinator positions hold nine credit hours, department head or unit coordinators hold six credit hours, dean, directors and coordinators at university level hold five credit hours and campus heads or equivalent hold four credit hours but the president is not expected to have a teaching load at all (MOE, 2012).

Academic staff members who are full time research staff or teaching staff are expected to devote some time to conduct research on the limited thematic areas by using the meagre government allocated budget which does not exceed 5% of the total recurrent budget allocated to each university (MOE, 2015) or by writing a grant proposal to solicit research funds from the industry or other organizations that are sponsoring research works. When the academic staff members are competing for the scarce research budget, only a few of the proposals win the grant and the amount of money given may not be sufficient to conduct and finalize the research. The academic staff members who have teaching loads are also expected to conduct tutorial programmes implemented as a means of remedial action for female students and others whose continuous assessment results are very low. An additional burden to the academic staff, as mentioned earlier, is conducting five types of continuous assessment before the students sits for his/her final examination. Correcting and marking of the students' assignments and exam papers, especially when the class size is large and the number of sections is more than three, brings about a great burden to the academic staff. Furthermore, directors, deans, department heads and other officers who take up an administrative positions hold in addition to the teaching, research and community service duties do not have annual leave as they are expected to work all the seasons.

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This might cause dissatisfaction when the same work load is repeated every time a new semester begins.

### **(c) Class size**

Both the number of students who are taught in one classroom and the total number of students who an academic staff member is expected to teach and counsel have a significant relationship with the job satisfaction of academic staff members. The Ethiopian Education Sector Development Programme V (ESDP V) specifies that the university academic staff and learner ratio be 1:19 at university level as a target that will be achieved by the end of Ethiopian Second Growth and Transformation Plan, that is 2020 (MOE, 2015:107). The harmonized legislation is more specific and has clearly spelt out the class size per section for different programmes.

Accordingly, lecture class for undergraduate programmes except for languages is 80 students, for language courses it is 40 - 60 students, for lab/field sessions it is 30 - 40 students, for tutorial and seminar classes except for language courses 40 - 60 students, for clinical attachment 15 students and for lectures for a graduate programme 25 students (MOE, 2012:52-53). However, such figures are dominant on paper but the reality in the work environment is different because the age of the university, the number of classrooms and the availability of academic staff in each university determine class size and teacher-learner ratios. In some cases academic staff members are forced to teach high numbers of students that exceed the number indicated in the standard and this will be overwhelming. Consequently, academic staff may feel dissatisfied when they engage in such onerous workloads.

### **(d) Academic freedom**

Academic staff members are the main implementers of teaching, research and community service activities as they are engaged in these activities as full time employees in universities.

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Academic freedom is one of the prerequisites for academic staff motivation and job satisfaction in universities to accomplish these different activities vested in them. The Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation guaranteed academic freedom for every university in pursuit of its mission and consistent with international good practice, and the universities are expected to cultivate the culture of social responsibility in their communities in the exercise of academic freedom (MOE, 2009:4985). Academic staff members are also entitled to exercise academic freedom based on the university's mission; uphold, respect and practice the objectives of universities and the guiding values of the universities; and exercise academic freedom with professionalism consistent with the applicable provisions of the Proclamation (MOE, 2009: 4995-4996). Hence academic staff members are expected to exercise academic freedom under the auspices of duties and responsibilities explicitly indicated in the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation. However, due to the wrong meaning given to academic freedom by some academic staff members as freedom to do whatever the academic staff wishes to do and is interest to do accordingly this might have created inconvenience and dissatisfaction which this study investigated through research question four.

There are different study results that support or deny the role of academic freedom in relation to the job satisfaction of academic staff. The findings of a study in China suggest that intrinsic-motivators associated with a tradition of academic autonomy in Western universities have been largely absent in the Chinese context (Wilson, & Zhang, 2010:99-101).

### **(e) Rewards and recognition**

The importance of rewards and recognition to motivate employees to perform well and sustain good practice is irrevocable and unequivocal. Rewards and recognition are considered as motivators by both the needs and content theories of job satisfaction. The 'motivators' in



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Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory over the importance of intrinsic motivators such as rewards and recognition as basic human needs, as does the Valence Instrumentality Expectancy Theory of Victor Vroom. The Expectancy Theory posits that people's effort is measured in terms of the rewards they receive. Therefore, rewards and recognitions are predictors of both motivation and job satisfaction of academic staff in universities.

According to the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation each university is granted the authority to give recognition and rewards to the employees whose performance is outstanding when compared with other group members of the same stream, namely academic, administrative or technical. This is considered as one of the guiding values that universities shall promote and uphold in pursuance of their mission (MOE, 2009:4981). Universities are organizing annual reward and recognition events to award best performers of the year chosen based on predetermined criteria agreed upon by management members of universities. However, only a few academic staff from different colleges or campuses who registered outstanding performance in teaching, research and community service are chosen and recognized. Reward and recognition as they are exercised in Ethiopian universities do not benefit all academic staff members who were also involved in accomplishing the mission of the university. The majority of the academic staff who are not given this chance may have different feelings with the process of selecting the best performers, possibly resulting in dissatisfaction. Hence this factor of job satisfaction has been investigated to know the impact through research question four.

### **(f) Communication**

Communication is the smooth relationships that academic staff members have with one another, their supervisors, administrative and technical staff, students and other relevant stakeholders. Relationships with these different groups at university means working in group for

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the realization of collective goals to transfer knowledge, skills, values and attitudes properly to learners to conduct problem solving research and to render appropriate community service to the needy people. Communication among academic staff members is one of the means to meet academic staff members' interest for connection that makes them to share expertise, knowledge and other professional experience important to significant change in the teaching of students. Communication and collegial relationships are identified as the significant factors that enhance academic staff job satisfaction (Kim, 2011; Ahmad and Abdurahman, 2015; Noor, 2013; Vuong, & Duong, 2013 & Bataineh, 2014). Much of the work of academic staff seems to be accomplished through independent and personal effort. However, the nature of relationship with colleagues and others may affect job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Few studies have been carried out to identify job satisfaction among Ethiopian academic staff in some universities. Leadership style exercised by the leaders of academic staff and work related factors such as achievement and salary are among the factors that are identified to promote job satisfaction of academic staff in these universities of Ethiopian. However, there is no research work related to communication of academic staff with others relevant stakeholders, an issue addressed in this research.

### **3.6.3 Students' achievement**

The goal of higher education in Ethiopia is to produce competent graduates who have appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes in diverse fields of study; to produce research which promotes knowledge and technology transfer based on national development and community needs; and to ensure that education and research promote the principles of freedom in exchange of views and opinions based on reason and democratic and multicultural values (MOE, 2015:102). In order to achieve this objective, universities must produce competent individuals

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who can actively participate in the national, regional and global economy. The students in universities should also work hard and achieve good results in all the theoretical and practical courses taught to them.

Academic staff members in universities are playing an active role to maintain quality teaching-learning and knowledge transfer to students to ensure production of competent graduates. There has been significant increase in the number of universities in the last 15 years which resulted in lifting higher education from an elite education system to a mass education system, leading to a high student influx to universities. This number will also increase in the next five years. According to Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan two, the enrolment capacity of public higher education institutions will increase the undergraduate students to 600,000, and postgraduate students to 63,000 by 2020 which is the end of the growth and transformation plan period (NPC, 2016:187). However, the expansion of universities has worsened the conditions of university academic staff. Among others, it has resulted in increasing the work load and extended work schedules for academic staff, (Tessema, 2009:29). This condition in turn might have created problems of discharging all the responsibilities of academic staff which will have an effect on students' achievement. Coupled with this students may not work and achieve good result as expected due to different barriers. This might consequently create dissatisfaction on the part of academic staff. This was again investigated through research question four.

### **3.6.4 Demographic factors**

As mentioned above, studies related to the impact of demographic variables on job satisfaction of academic staff in other countries were carried out and diversified results were found and presented. The two researches conducted in Ethiopia that focused on the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction of academic staff in universities did not show the linkage

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of demographic variable to job satisfaction of academic staff members. A study by Hagos and Abrha (2015) on job satisfaction of academic staff members of Adi-haqi campus, Mekele University, Ethiopia found that female academic staff members were more satisfied than their counterparts but the reasons that cause job satisfaction were not mentioned at all. Therefore, this study aimed to look into the impact of demographic variables on job satisfaction of academic staff members.

### **3.6.5 Conclusion**

The different organizational factors that have relationship with job satisfaction of academic staff in Ethiopian universities have been reviewed and presented in the previous section. The major variables under organizational factors that include sub-variables are university policies and support, working conditions and students' achievement. There are very few research results related to these factors in Ethiopia and therefore they need further investigation.

### **3.7 SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the findings of the study results and other factors related to job satisfaction of academic staff members have been scrutinized. Through the review of the study results and other issues of job satisfaction, the sub aim two was addressed and much knowledge on job satisfaction among academic staff members has emerged. Sources of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction have been identified. The extent to which academic staff members are satisfied with their jobs has been widely researched. Organizational factors - mainly university policies and support, working conditions, students' achievement and demographic variables (gender, age, experience, qualification and rank) - have also been considered as determinants of

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job satisfaction or dissatisfaction between groups. Lastly, possible factors linked to job satisfaction of academic staff members in Ethiopian Public universities have been discussed. The results of previous studies and the possible factors identified may also be applicable to the academic staff in the Ethiopian universities, which is the focus of this study.

Previous studies were limited in their ability to provide rich and deep information going beyond a simple description of job satisfaction among academic staff. Students' discipline and students' achievement were not taken into considerations as aspects of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Moreover the studies carried out in Ethiopia are also limited in scope and focus. Therefore, this study tried to fill these gaps as much as possible. The next chapter elaborates the design and methodology that were used for the study.

The empirical study result and the possible factors affecting job satisfaction of academic staff presented above in this chapter is linked to this study. Many issues related to the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction have links with the research questions 3 to 6 that are posed in chapter one under the statement of the problem. The issues discussed will be used as a means to highlight several key factors of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

A detailed literature study consisting of theoretical perspectives on job satisfaction and a review of empirical research results from different countries on the factors that affect job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of academic staff members have been presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 respectively. In Chapter 2 the concept of job satisfaction, theories of job satisfaction including content theories (Needs Theory, Two-Factor Theory, ERG Theory, McClelland's Need Theory and McGregor's Theory X and Y) and Process Theories (Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, Self-Efficacy Theory, Value Theory, Job Characteristics Theory and Reinforcement Theory) were discussed in detail. Moreover, in Chapter 3, the factors that relate with job satisfaction in the working force in general and in universities in particular, the factors affecting job satisfaction among academic staff in a few countries, the factors that cause job dissatisfaction and finally the similarities and differences between job dissatisfaction among academic staff across the selected countries were the major issues addressed.

Based on the discussions in the preceding chapters on the literature review to provide a theoretical and empirical background, this chapter emphasises the research design and methodology of the study which includes the research paradigm and approach, specific research questions and hypotheses of the research. Furthermore, this chapter explains population and sampling, ethical considerations, the data collection instrument, the pilot study, data collection procedure, data analysis and presentation, validity and reliability measures to ensure trustworthiness and finally there is summary.

## 4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

### 4.2.1 Research paradigm and approach

Nobody really knows how we can best understand the world, and philosophers have been arguing about that question for many years. Different people view and understand the world in different ways. ‘Epistemology’ originated from the Greek word *episteme*, which means ‘knowledge’. Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) elaborated further describing epistemology as knowing how you can know, and further explain this by asking how is knowledge generated, what criteria discriminate good knowledge from bad knowledge, and how should reality be represented or described. They also go on to highlight the inter-dependent relationship between epistemology and ontology (reality) and how one both informs and depends upon the other. Epistemology is therefore concerned with what we can know about reality and how we can know it. Ontology on the other hand is concerned with the nature of reality (or being or existence) (Willis, 2007:9-10).

A paradigm is a comprehensive belief system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice in a field. There are different views or paradigms on the nature of knowledge. Paradigm is defined as “*made up of the general theoretical assumptions and laws, and techniques for their application that the members of a particular scientific community adopt*” (Chalmers, 1982:90). According to Creswell (2012:537), research paradigm is defined as “*the broad philosophical assumptions researchers use when they conduct studies*”. Creswell (2007) posited research paradigms as the broad philosophical assumptions or world outlook that researchers use as a lens when they conduct studies. The assumptions mainly deal with the nature of knowledge/truth/reality and how it can be obtained, referred to as ‘ontology’ and ‘epistemology’ respectively (Creswell, 2012).

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Charmer (1982) further posited that a paradigm has five components:

- Explicitly stated laws and theoretical assumptions.
- Standard ways of applying the fundamental laws to a variety of situations.
- Instrumentation and instrumental techniques that bring the laws of the paradigm to bear on the real world.
- General metaphysical principles that guide work within the paradigm.
- General methodological prescriptions about how to conduct work within the paradigm.

There are different classifications of paradigms into two by some scholars and others classify it into three or more than that. The three major classified paradigms are positivist/post-positivist, constructivist/interpretivist and the emancipator paradigm (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Today, in the social sciences, there are several competing paradigms, namely: post-positivist, interpretivism and critical theory (Willis, 2007). The most cited research paradigms include: post-positivism, constructivism and pragmatism (Creswell, 2012). Even though these paradigms are philosophically distinct in research, the distinctions are not always precise and clear cut.

As quoted in Creswell (2009), Smith (1983) posited that the post-positive tradition comes from 19th century writers such as Comte, Emile, Durkheim, Newton, and Locke, and it has been most recently articulated by writers such as Phillips and Burbules (2000). Post-positivists adopt a reality ontology that believes “*Reality exists ‘out there’ and is driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms. Knowledge of these entities, laws, and mechanisms is conventionally summarized in the form of time- and context-free generalization*” (Guba, 990:20).

The four major characteristics of post-positivisms are: first, deterministic in which the study reflects a need to examine causes that influence outcomes, such as issues examined in



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experiments. Second, it is reductionist because the intention of this paradigm is to dissociate the ideas into a small, discrete set of ideas to test, like the variable that constitutes hypotheses and research questions. Third, knowledge obtained through a post-positivist lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists independently in the world, therefore developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behaviour of individuals become paramount for a post-positivist. Finally, this paradigm helps to test laws or theories that govern the world for verification and refinement to understand the world by collecting data that either supports or refutes the theory (Creswell, 2009).

As opposed to post-positivism, the constructivists assume that knowledge is constructed in the minds of the observers and hence there are multiple realities (Creswell, 2012). Constructivists posit that knowledge or reality does not exist independent of the knower/observer's experience or values and therefore the search for knowledge should be based on the subjective interpretation of reality and negotiation of meanings socially and historically (Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2012 & Morgan, 2013). According to this paradigm, individuals understand the world by developing subjective meanings and the meanings are varied and multiple which lead the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. Thus, instead of starting with a theory like post-positivist inquirers do, the researchers have to interpret the meanings others have about the world to generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning (Creswell (2009).

Pragmatism is the third world view or paradigm that is described next. According to the pioneers of this paradigm, there is no any one single system of philosophy and reality, the world is not considered as an absolute reality, truth is what worked at the time, but not dualistic between reality independent of the mind or within the mind. Instead, they believe in an external

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world independent of the mind as well as those accumulated in the mind (Creswell, 2009). The real world is composed of realities ‘*some objective, some subjective and some a mixture of the two*’ (Feilzer, 2010:8). Pragmatists argue that the two traditional assumptions should be understood as equally important claims about the nature of human experience because, on one hand, our experiences in the world are constrained by the nature of that world; on the other hand, our understanding of the world is inherently limited to our interpretations of our experiences (Morgan, 2013). Pragmatists prefer to focus on knowledge creation process or inquiry rather than categorizing the nature of knowledge and the methods of obtaining it under different ontological and epistemological camps (Morgan, 2013).

According to Cohen et al. (2007) there is no single blueprint for planning research and research design is governed by the notion of ‘fitness for purpose’. The purposes of the research determine the methodology and design of the research. Different definitions are given to research design. A research design can be defined as the “*...plan that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analyzing data*” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:490).

Based on the above discussions on the three kinds of paradigms, this study used the post-positivist paradigm as the appropriate world view of knowledge that would fit the purpose of the study. The rationale for choosing this paradigm is: first, the study focuses on detecting factors that relate with job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of academic staff in universities through a cause/effect relationship as the reflection of deterministic philosophy of this paradigm mentioned earlier. Second, the intent of the study was to test the different variables that constitute the hypotheses and research questions to know the level of their influence on job satisfaction of academic staff. This paradigm was appropriate to support the theory governing this study. Third,

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the use of a numeric measure, in this case a questionnaire, was assumed to be useful to get knowledge related to perception of job satisfaction of the academic staff members.

The research approach of a study like the paradigm is determined by the purpose of the research evolved from the problem that needs to be addressed. For instance, if the problem is to identify factors that influence an outcome or to understand the best predictors in outcomes, then a quantitative approach is best and preferable to the qualitative approach (Creswell, 2003). Moreover, the quantitative research approach remains the dominant approach in many areas of the social sciences. Some researchers and policymakers even consider that quantitative research produces the only real research results that can be used for policy and other related matters of a nation (Willis Foundations, 2007). One of the aims of the study was to collect relevant information on ways of improving job satisfaction of academic staff by making some adjustments or introducing new issues in the policies related to universities. The quantitative approach adopts the post-positivist philosophy: “*it is objective, scientific, experimentalistic and traditionalistic*” (Neville, 2005:5). On the basis of the above discussions the researcher found the quantitative approach more suitable to his belief system and to the nature of the research problem under consideration. Moreover, the researcher would like to enjoy the advantages the quantitative approach offers to researchers to focus on finding useful answers to research questions.

The research design for the quantitative approach is a survey. A survey method was preferred for the following reasons: The survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population and from sample results on the opinions of academic staff on job satisfaction attributes. The researcher can also generalize or make claims about the population based on the

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finding from the sample (Creswell,2003).The other advantages of survey designs are the economy of the design, the rapid turnaround in data collection and the advantage of identifying attributes of a large population from a small group of individuals (Babbie, 1990; Fowler, 1988). Moreover, survey research helps to answer questions that have been raised; solve problems that have been posed or observed; assess needs and set goals; inform if specific objectives have been achieved; establish baselines against which future comparisons can be made; analyse trends across time and generally describe what exists, in what amount and in what context (Isaac & Michael, 1997).The nature of the survey is cross-sectional. Therefore, relevant data for the study was collected from the sample respondents chosen from the public universities.

### **4.2.2 Specific research questions and hypotheses**

It is recalled that the main research question mentioned in Chapter 1 (see section 1.3, page 10), reads as follows: **What is the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities and how can this be improved?**

The review of theoretical literature and empirical study result in Chapters 2 and 3 indicated the factors that affect job satisfaction levels of academic staff members. Based on the main research question, specific research questions were stated, and the aims of the research identified (see section 1.3, page 10). The demographic factors, university policies and support, the working conditions and students' achievement that were highlighted in Chapter 3 in the light of the theoretical frameworks presented in Chapter 2 have been used to formulate specific research questions. These questions also correspond with the aims of the study stated in Chapter 1 (section 1.4, page 9). The research questions posed in Chapter 1, except the first two that were addressed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, with their respective hypotheses are identified as follows:

**4.2.2.1 Research question 1**

What is the level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to the following aspects of their jobs?

- University policies and support (students' placement policy, promotion policy, students' disciplinary policy and university governance and support policy)?
- Working conditions (pay, workload, class size, academic freedom, reward and recognition, student achievement and communication)?

The aim of this research question was to determine the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their jobs (university policies and support and working condition).

**4.2.2.2 Research question 2**

Are there any differences in the level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities with regard to demographic factors such as age, gender, experience, qualification and academic rank? The aim of this research question was to find out if there is any variation in job satisfaction level among individuals with different personal factors.

Null-hypothesis:

- There are no significant differences in the job satisfaction of academic staff with different demographic variables.

Experimental hypothesis:

- There are significant differences in the job satisfaction of academic staff with different demographic variables.

### ***4.2.2.3 Research question 3***

Are there significant relationships between different factors and job satisfaction of academic staff members? The aim of this research question was to find out the relationship between different job factors in universities and the job satisfaction of academic staff members, if any.

Null-hypothesis:

- There are no significant relationships between the different factors and job satisfaction of academic staff members.

Experimental hypothesis:

- There are significant relationships between the different factors and job satisfaction of academic staff members.

### ***4.2.2.4 Research questions 4 to 6: open ended questions***

Participants of the study were asked to give their opinions on the following issues:

- What aspects of your job give academic staff the least job satisfaction?
- What is the level of overall job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia?
- What guidelines can be introduced to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities?

The aim of these open ended questions was to get quality responses on the factors of least job dissatisfaction, overall level of job satisfaction and guidelines to be introduced to improve job satisfaction of academic staff in public universities in the Ethiopian context.

### 4.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

According to Creswell (2012) a population is a group of individuals who have the same characteristics. The population for this study was all the academic staff members of the 33 public universities in Ethiopia that are well established and in operation (MOE, 2015). There are also 11 new universities under construction starting from the year 2016, but they were excluded from the target population for they are not well established and operational. The 33 public universities were categorized into three subdivisions according to their year of establishment as first, second and third generation. The numbers of universities in each category were 10, 13 and 10 respectively.

A sample is a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for generalizing about the target population. For that purpose the sample has to be representative (Creswell, 2012). Out of the 33 public universities that are relatively well established and operational, Debre Berhan University from the second generation in which the researcher is working as lecturer was used for the purpose of pilot testing the questionnaire. Addis Ababa Science and Technology University and Adama Science and Technology University from the first and second generation universities respectively and under the custody of Ministry of Science and Technology with different salary scales and work environments were excluded from the population. The remaining 30 public universities that consisted of 4200 master's and PhD degree holders were considered as belonging to the study population. Eight out of the 30 universities that consisted of 400 master's and PhD degree holders were included in the sample population, excluding those academic staff who were on study leave, by using simple random sampling technique, particularly using the lottery method which gives equal chance of selection for each population member through pulling a rolled name of a university from the three paper

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made boxes each having rolled pieces of paper on which names of the universities belonging to the three generation were written (Lewin, 2005 & Cohen et al., 2007). This means the first paper box consisted of the nine first generation universities, box 2 consisted of 11 second generation universities and the last box consisted of ten third generation universities. In order to have good representation in the sample, only two universities from box 1 were drawn, whereas, from box 2 and box 3, three universities from each of the boxes were drawn.

The eight universities chosen were represented using the following codes for ethical (confidentiality) reasons: University A (UA), University B (UB), University C (UC), University D (UD), University E (UE) , University F(UF), University G (UG), University H (UH) and the universities chosen were located within the radius of 600 kilometres south and north of the researcher's residence. Thus most of the universities took a maximum of a one day trip with public transportation facilities used by the researcher.

In stratified sampling, researchers divide (stratify) the population on some specific characteristic and then, using simple random sampling, samples from each subgroup (stratum) of the population are selected (Creswell, 2012:140). Thus this study used the stratified sampling method to identify the participants of the study among the academic staff who were on the job at the time of data collection by excluding those who were on study leave or sabbatical leave.

One aspect of this study of investigating job satisfaction variations among academic staff members belonging to qualification programmes of academic departments and universities was that the pilot testing and the actual study had to be carried out in similar qualification programmes. There are 205 programmes that are available in the 31 universities. Out of these, 32 programmes are commonly offered in all universities including the eight sampled universities chosen for the final study and in the university selected for the pilot study. Ten programmes that



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are offered in common were chosen from which to select the participants of the study using the systematic random sampling technique. First, two separate lists of programmes were prepared. The first one consisted of the 20 programmes belonging to the Science and Technology programmes and the second list consisted of the 12 programmes under the Social Science programmes category.

These two lists of programmes and the academic staff in these programs were taken as the sampling frame and the programmes were assigned with numbers from ST1 to ST20 for the Science and Technology programmes list and SC1 to SC12 for the Social Science programmes list. Taking four and three as the quotient of Science and Technology programme group and Social Science programme group respectively, every 4<sup>th</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> programmes from the two groups of programmes in the lists were included in the sample population starting from the first unit in the list. Finally, from the Science and Technology programmes, Mechanical Engineering, Computer Science, Plant Science, Nursing, Mathematics and Chemistry programmes were selected and from Social Science programmes Management, Law, Educational Planning and Management and Civics and Ethical Education programmes were selected, totalling ten sample programmes that were included in the study - a manageable sample size.

Students in universities are placed by the Ministry of Education by following the 70:30 Science and Technology student to Social Science student ratio respectively to satisfy the trained manpower needs of the country. This means the number of academic staff members in the Science and Technology programmes is higher than the number of academic staff members in the Social Science programmes. Thus, care was taken to get proportionate samples according to this distribution of academic staff members.

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The selection of participants for the study involved academic staff members from the ten programmes using proportionate stratified random sampling technique (Singh, 2007; & Cohen et al., 2007). According to Singh (2007), proportionate stratified random sampling involves dividing the population into mutually exclusive subgroups/strata. Thus for the final study that involved data collection from academic staff members who belong to the ten programmes of randomly selected eight public universities, academic staff members with different personal profiles were categorized according to their qualification into two sub-strata and then taking a simple or systematic random sample in each subgroup/strata proportionally, i.e., three master's and 2 PhD holders totalling five academic staff members from each programme were taken as the sample that turned out the sample size to 50 from each university and that make a total of 400 participants (50x8). Where there were no doctoral degree holders in some programmes, additional master's holders were included in the study. All these academic staff members from each sample university were requested to complete the questionnaires, which were then collected by the researcher upon completion.

### **4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Research ethics is one of the prerequisites for researchers involving human participants in any of the research approaches used to conduct a study. In order to address the issue of ethics in research many professional organizations such as research associations and educational institutions set requirements and guidelines. There are different ethical criteria or standards that researchers need to address in order to protect the rights, welfare and dignity of participants at every stage of a research undertaking including research problem identification, data collection, and analysis and reporting findings (Cohen et al., 2007; & Creswell, 2009). These differences in the criteria could be attributed to variations in the nature of the problem studied, methodologies

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followed and the level of relationships between the researcher and participants (McMillan and Schumacher, 1997). Therefore, it is the duty of the researcher to fulfil the ethical and legal responsibilities required (Creswell, 2012). The ethical issues addressed in this study are competency of the researcher, relation with the participant, informed consent, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality.

### **4.4.1 Competency of the researcher**

In order to conduct research, researchers must have the right knowledge, skills and attitude. Regarding this issue Strydom (1998:31) states that *“an ethical obligation rests with the researcher to ensure that they are competent and skilled to undertake the investigation they have in mind, the researcher’s methodology and interpersonal skills”*. The researcher is a graduate of educational management and organizational leadership at undergraduate and master’s level respectively and works in one of the public universities where one of the responsibilities of academic staff is engaging in research work. Therefore, the researcher is competent enough to conduct the research based on previous academic studies and work experience. He is acquainted with the pertinent areas of this study, and understands participants’ morals and standards. He is professionally responsive and sensitive to the research ethics that should govern the research. Above all, the researcher was supervised by one of the esteemed professors in UNISA, who is an expert in educational management, to shape the study to address ethical issues necessary in educational research. As mentioned by McMillan & Schumacher (2001), all the activities of this study from conception to completion were guided by the ethical considerations and moral reasoning by the researcher to come up with good research output.

### **4.4.2 Relationship with the participants**

As the researcher works as a lecturer in one of the universities, he was familiar to some of the participants working in similar departments in the other universities. This gave favourable conditions to the researcher to develop good rapport with the other participants through the academic staff mentioned. The researcher assured transparency as a means of maintaining strategically established relationships with participants during the study so that data collection could be successfully accomplished. Respondents were aware about the details of the research work. In the end, the researcher was able to maintain a relationship with most of the participants during the orientation session before they filled out the questionnaire, based on mutual trust, respect, and with professional membership sentiment.

### **4.4.3 Informed consent**

One of the ethical requirements of research is securing informed consent from subjects before engaging them in research. Diener and Crandall as quoted in Cohen et al., (2007:52) have defined Informed consent as *"the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions"*. Informed consent serves as *"the basis of an implicit contractual relationship between the researcher and the researched and will serve as a foundation on which subsequent ethical considerations can be structured"* (Cohen et al., 2007:52). To get participants' consent researchers are advised to communicate the research project, its purpose and its methodology to the participants before requesting them to sign the consent form (Cohen et al., 2007). Pioneers in research specifically pointed out that when administering questionnaires a researcher has to communicate to the participants in advance about the research, the need to provide names and contact details of persons to contact for questions that may arise, the plans for using the results

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from the research, the availability of a summary of the study when the research is completed and, finally, have the participant complete an informed consent (Cohen et al., 2007 & Creswell, 2012). This implies that it is not sufficient to get an agreement from the respondents but they also need to be aware about in how they are going to participate to make an informed decision or give consent. According to Cohen et al. (2007:11-74), informed consent requires an explanation and description of several factors, including, for example:

- The purposes, contents and procedures of the research
- Any foreseeable risks and negative outcomes, discomfort or consequences and how they will be handled
- Benefits that might derive from the research
- Incentives to participate and rewards from participating
- Right to voluntary non-participation, withdrawal and rejoining the project
- Rights and obligations to confidentiality and non-disclosure of the research, participants and outcomes
- Disclosure of any alternative procedures that may be advantageous
- Opportunities for participants to ask questions about any aspect of the research
- Signed contracts for participation.

The participants of this study were academic staff members in universities who are adult professional colleagues of the researcher and able to give consent directly. In order to ensure free and informed participation of the respondents, the researcher gave detail information on the purpose, procedures and the rights of the participants. In addition, in the questionnaire all participants were required to put a tick mark in the consent-box in front of the question that

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requires their consent to participate in the research indicating that they agreed to participate in the research.

### **4.4.4 Voluntary participation**

Coupled with informed consent, voluntary participation should be guaranteed to get appropriate information from participants for the research. To this end, the researcher ensured participants that they had the freedom to voluntarily choose to be or not to be members of the research study. This was elaborated to the participants in advance and the researcher engaged in the data collection process after obtaining consent from the participants.

### **4.4.5 Anonymity and confidentiality**

Confidentiality has to be assured by keeping Information collected in a confidential manner and the participants should be anonymous. This implies that “... *although researchers know who has provided the information or are able to identify participants from the information given, they will in no way make the connection known publicly; the boundaries surrounding the shared secret will be protected*” (Cohen et al., 2007:62). To keep participants anonymous and confidential, the names of universities were coded. The participants of this study were informed that all the information gathered from them would be held confidential. Cohen et al. (2007:78) indicate that “... *a respondent completing a questionnaire that bears absolutely no identifying marks, names, addresses, occupational details, or coding symbols is ensured complete and total anonymity*”. Thus based on this guide the respondents were informed not to mention/write their names, addresses or any information related to their identity not to be identified easily. The questionnaires were unnamed and they were not disclosed to anyone except the researcher to use

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only for the research purpose. The names of the universities were also coded and the documents were kept in the password protected personal computer of the researcher.

### **4.4.6 Research ethical clearance and permission**

It is an unequivocal that any research conducted in the field of education focusing on educational institutions like universities requires getting permission for conducting the research from the institution before data collection (McMillan and Schumacher, 1997). Once the preliminary information has been collected to conduct the research, *“Researchers are duly prepared for the next stage: making actual contact in person, perhaps after an introductory letter, with appropriate people in the organization with a view to negotiating access”* (Cohen et al., 2007). Festinger and Katz (1966) state the importance of starting to get permission from the top of the organization or system where the structure is clearly hierarchical and where lower levels are always dependent on their superiors in question to obtain assent and cooperation. They further state that those at the lower levels consider that it is likely that the nature of the research will be referred to the top of the organization sooner or later, and that there is a much better chance for a favourable decision if leaders are consulted at the outset.

In order to fulfil the ethical clearance requirements of the College of Education at UNISA before launching data collection, an ethical application form was filled out and submitted to the Ethical Clearance Committee bearing the signature of the researcher and the supervisor. The application passed through the ethical clearance process. Accordingly, the ethical clearance certificate for the quantitative research was obtained from the research ethics committee of the College of Education at UNISA satisfying the ethics requirements set by the university.

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The researcher also obtained permission from the Ministry of Education, the higher education vice minister's office and from the provost of each sample university to conduct research. The researcher communicated specifically with the presidents and vice presidents of the eight chosen universities and formally obtained permission to involve academic staff members in the research.

### 4.5 THE DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT AND VARIABLES

The instrument used for the collection of the data for this study was a questionnaire. Wilson and Mclean (1994) in Cohen et al. (2007) state that the questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straight forward to analyse. Furthermore, it is "*a form ... that participants in a study complete and return to the researcher*" (Creswell, 2012:382). A questionnaire requires the participant to "*choose answers to questions and supplies basic personal or demographic information*" (Creswell, 2012:382). There are alternative types of questionnaires to use from different sources. Creswell explains that researchers can "*develop their own questionnaire, modify an existing one, or use one that they have located in the literature*" (Creswell, 2012:383).

In order to measure aspects of working conditions, two existing questionnaires that are widely used in job satisfaction studies, were adopted as part of this study. The first questionnaire, namely The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MJSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967) is one of the questionnaires used for the measurement of job satisfaction in relation to situational factors and global job satisfaction. The MJSQ has two versions: the first version is long consisting of 100 questions and the second version is short, comprising 20 questions. The short version of the MJSQ is further divided into 12 and eight questions where 12 questions are related to intrinsic satisfaction that focuses on inner satisfaction and self-accomplishment. The eight questions are



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related to extrinsic satisfaction emphasising satisfaction with pay, supervisors and opportunities for promotion. The short version of the MJSQ is the most widely-used approach to job satisfaction and was subsequently adopted for this study. Some minor adaptations were made following recommendations from the pilot study and expert reviews to align some wording to local context. This was to enhance the validity of the measurement.

Another questionnaire used in many job satisfaction surveys is that of Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and was also incorporated into the current study measurement. This questionnaire is used as a means of investigating academic staff satisfaction with several organizational antecedents. Various fields of study such as psychology and behavioural sciences, education and others have used JSS to investigate the multi-dimensional state of job satisfaction. This demonstrated that the Job Satisfaction Survey is appropriate to use it in different profession categories including academic staff members in the universities. JSS uses 36 items to assess employee attitudes about the job and nine aspects of the job (Spector, 1997). The nine job aspects proposed by Spector are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers or colleagues, nature of work, and communication. Similarly to the MJSQ, some minor changes were made following recommendations from the pilot study and expert reviews to align some wording to local context. The benefit of using this questionnaire compared to other scales is that it is appropriate to the local context of the Ethiopian Public universities

In the process of adapting the questionnaire, two professors specializing in curriculum and measurement and evaluation participated in judging the construct and content validity of the questionnaire. To this end, in addition to the questionnaire, the researcher provided the professors with documents on the operational definitions of job satisfaction and the variables of

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the study and a concise summary of the literature review. Based on the feedback obtained from the two professors, phrases in some questions were changed; redundant phrases and words in some questions were rearranged. The questionnaire also passed through the ethical clearance process to satisfy the necessary criteria and approval was granted from the research ethics committee of the College of Education at UNISA. As it is elaborated in the next section, the questionnaire was pilot tested to ensure its reliability and construct validity, and to finalize the questionnaire for the actual study.

The questionnaire was made up of four parts (I, II, III and IV). Parts I comprised close ended questions that respondents were asked to circle the choice of their answer. In part II and III, they were required to put a tick under the appropriate Likert scale. Part IV consisted of open-ended questions that respondents were asked to write their opinion on the issues raised that help to improve job satisfaction of academic staff members.

In the questionnaire, part I explored the demographic information of the academic staff members and included gender (question 1), age (question 2), academic rank (question 3), highest teaching qualification (question 4), years of experience (question 5). This section comprised five questions that were extracted from Chapter 3 (3.5). The participants gave answers to these questions by circling their choice among the alternatives given.

Part II focused on university policies and support, which included student placement policy, academic staff members' promotion policy, students' discipline policy, university governance and support policy that are associated with job satisfaction of academic staff members.

Part III dealt with working conditions which include pay, workload, class size, academic freedom, reward and recognition, communication and students' achievement that affect job

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satisfaction of academic staff members. Communication forms an important component of teaching-learning, research work and community activities of academic staff; hence the communications that academic staff members have with their colleagues, their leaders and the students were considered.

Participants were requested to respond to the various scale items in Part II and III by indicating to what extent they agree or disagree using the following five-point Likert scale:

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neither Disagree nor Agree
4. Agree
5. Strongly Agree

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To summarise, the table below indicated the number of items that were included in the questionnaire to measure these constructs.

**Table 4.1**

*Number of items included in each construct*

No	Construct	Number of items
<b>1</b>	<b>University policies</b>	
	1.1 Admission policy	3
	1.2 Promotion policy	3
	1.3 Discipline policy	7
	1.4 University governance	6
<b>2</b>	<b>Working condition</b>	
	2.1 Salary	4
	2.2 Workload	3
	2.3 Class size	4
	2.4 Academic freedom	4
	2.5 Reward	4
	2.5 communication	4
<b>3</b>	<b>Students' achievement</b>	6

Part IV required participants to write their answers to the open-ended questions posed under 4.2.2.4.

This study mainly focused on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The difference between these two variables is that an independent variable is an input variable, which relate, in part or in total, to a particular outcome; it is a stimulus that influences a response, an antecedent or a factor which may be modified such as under experimental or other conditions to effect an outcome, whereas a dependent variable is the outcome variable which is caused in total or in part by the input or antecedent variable. It is the effect, consequence of, or

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response to, an independent variable (Cohen et al., 2007). In this study job satisfaction of the academic staff is the dependent variable and the constructs stated above under university policies and support, working conditions and students' achievement are the independent variables.

### **4.6 VALIDITY, RELIABILITY, OBJECTIVITY AND GENERALIZABILITY**

One of the key criteria of evaluating research quality is validity and reliability (Kerlinger,1986).There are various types of validity including content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, internal validity, external validity, concurrent validity, face validity, jury validity, predictive validity, consequential validity, systemic validity, catalytic validity, ecological validity, cultural validity, descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity and evaluative validity by which instruments can be evaluated (Cohen et al., 2007). He further elaborate that one of the strategies used to improve the validity, reliability and viability of a data collection instrument is a pilot test (Cohen et al., 2007). Accordingly, the questionnaire used to collect data to answer the research questions in this study was pilot tested and the feedback from the pilot test was used to improve and finalized the questionnaire.

In this study only content validity and construct validity are explained. It focuses on the extent to which the instrument reflects the concept to be examined in a proposed study. Face validity is not a statistical measure but a subjective impression of how well the test represents what it was supposed to represent (Schultz and Schultz, 1998). Care was taken to include appropriate questions in the questionnaire that can measure the characteristics that they were intended to measure. For this purpose the questions in the questionnaire were judged by the two professors mentioned earlier and approved by the supervisor of this study.

Content validity is concerned with the contents of the instrument and its complete representation. *“The instrument must show that it fairly and comprehensively covers the domain*

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*or items that it purports to cover*". (Cohen et al., 2007:109). Then, the representativeness of the data collection tools, in this case a questionnaire, should be reflected. The content validity in this study was also judged by the professors and endorsed by the supervisor.

Reliability in quantitative research is essentially a synonym for dependability, consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents (Cohen et al., 2007). It also refers to the degree that the data collection system provides the same result if the study is repeated by other researchers (Neville, 2005:26). There are different ways of assessing for acceptable reliability; however, measurement of reliability as an internal consistency of items using Cronbach alpha is recommended for instruments with multi-item scales (Cohen et al., 2007). To ensure internal consistency reliability of the scale questions in the questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated per construct measure. A widely acceptable rule of thumb for the Cronbach alpha result of the items per construct measure is to be 0.7 and higher (McMillan and Schumacher, 2010). However, Pallant (2011) note that the Cronbach alpha is dependent on the number of items in the scale. When the scale consists of less than ten items, the alpha values can in some studies be less than the recommended norm of 0.7. Pallant (2011) recommends that it is therefore useful to also consider the inter-item correlation for the items. The optimal mean inter-item correlation values as recommended by Briggs and Cheek (in Pallant, 2011) should be above 0.2.

For the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged between 0.512 and 0.915. Where alpha values were below 0.7, the inter-item correlations were checked and all were above 0.2. These statistics therefore supports the notion of acceptable internal consistency. Refer to the table below for alpha values.

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Table 4.2

*Cronbach and inter-item correlations values*

No	Construct	Number of items	Cronbach alpha	Inter-item correlation
<b>1</b>	<b>University policies</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>0.836</b>	-
	1.1 Admission policy	3	0.627	0.357
	1.2 Promotion policy	3	0.878	0.705
	1.3 Discipline policy	7	0.915	0.612
	1.4 University governance	6	0.675	0.260
<b>2</b>	<b>Working condition</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>0.570</b>	-
	2.1 Salary	4	0.872	0.635
	2.2 Workload	3	0.857	0.667
	2.3 Class size	4	0.505	2.217
	2.4 Academic freedom	4	0.569	0.251
	2.5 Reward	4	0.859	0.612
	2.6 Communication	4	0.512	0.223
<b>3</b>	<b>Students' achievement</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0.854</b>	<b>0.482</b>

Given the confirmation of acceptable internal consistency reliability, average scores for each construct could be calculated by adding the responses across items per respondent and dividing by the number of items. Similarly, overall average construct measures were calculated across all sub-constructs.

Objectivity is another issue that a researcher must deal with in a study. Objectivity refers to the extent to which research findings are undistorted by the biases of researchers and serves as a base for the validity, reliability, and generalizability of empirical researches (Miller, 2008). Using the commonly suggested strategies to ensure objectivity in quantitative studies as a guideline, in this study it was maintained through employing an objective Likert rating scales questionnaire to collect data which helped the researcher not only to collect objective data but

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also to minimize the researcher's influence on research participants during the data collection and interpretation of the data and the discussion of findings based on the empirical evidence obtained from the data.

Generalizability is one of the purposes of quantitative researches. It alternatively represents the external validity of the study and mainly refers to the degree to which the findings can be generalized to the wider population, case or situation (Cohen et al., 2007). Different authors in research posited that generalizability of a study largely depends on the sampling techniques, sample size and the statistical methods employed. In this regard Cohen et al. (2007:99) claim that "*There are several types of probability samples...they all have a measure of randomness built into them and therefore have a degree of generalizability*".

The researcher tried to ensure generalizability of the study through using a stratified sampling technique and included a relatively large sample size in the study. He also used inferential statistics that can help to estimate the generalizability of findings obtained from a sample to the larger population at 95% level of confidence ( $p < .05$ ).

### **4.7 THE PILOT STUDY**

A pilot study is one of the techniques that will help to develop a quality questionnaire by testing the questionnaire before the actual data collection commences. This idea is supported by Converse and Presser (1986) who suggested that it is better to carry out the pilot study before the final data collection. By doing this, essential feedback or comments may be received from colleagues, the supervisor and the intended respondents chosen for the pilot testing. The following are the advantages of piloting: ascertain the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions and layout; get feedback on the validity of the questionnaire items; eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording; gain feedback on the type of question and its format; gain



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feedback on response categories for closed questions, and for the appropriateness of specific questions or stems of questions; gain feedback on the attractiveness and appearance of the questionnaire; gain feedback on the layout, sectionalizing, numbering and itemization of the questionnaire; check the time taken to complete the questionnaire; check the nature of the questionnaire from different perspectives; generate categories from open-ended responses to use as categories for closed response-modes and try out the coding/classification system for data analysis, and others(Cohen et al., 2007).

Investigation of differences among academic staff members' job satisfaction requires using similar programmes in the University for pilot testing and in the universities where the actual study was to be carried out. Thus, the five programmes that were chosen for the final study were also considered in the pilot study. Debre Berhan University in which the researcher works was chosen for the pilot study. The selection of participants for the pilot study involved academic staff members from the five programmes but excluding the assistant graduates for the reasons mentioned earlier. Respondents were chosen from the five programmes using proportionate stratified random sampling technique (Singh, 2007 and Cohen et al., 2007). Five participants from each of the programmes were selected and the total number of the participants for the pilot study was 50 academic staff members.

Before the pilot study, an adapted questionnaire was developed in consultation with senior advisors. Then the pilot study was carried out with the chosen respondents working in Debre Berhan University having similar characteristics with the sample universities to further refine the questionnaire. The participants were asked not only to fill out the questionnaire but also to give comments on the questionnaire's weaknesses to improve and finalize it. The feedback obtained from the different participants and senior professors from the researcher's

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university were very useful. The feedback helped the researcher to adjust the instrument questions before the actual data collection.

### **4.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE**

The data collection procedure requires getting permission and willingness of the respondents to fill out the questionnaire. Getting ethical approval from the Ethics Approval Committee of the University of South Africa was the first step followed. Moreover, permission was obtained from the Ministry of Education (Higher Education Affairs Office) and the president and the academic vice presidents of the sample public universities. The questionnaire was self-administered using assistants chosen from each university. The presence of the researcher in each place of data collection was helpful in that it enabled any queries or uncertainties to be addressed immediately with the questionnaire designer. Further, it typically ensured a good response rate. It also ensured that all the questions were completed as the researcher could check them before finally receiving the questionnaire. It means that the questionnaires were completed rapidly and on one occasion, i.e. it gathered data from many respondents simultaneously (Cohen, 2007).

Before launching the data collection process, a time schedule prepared by consulting the department heads of the ten programmes in the eight sample universities was distributed one week ahead of the data collection day. A day before the data collection, the researcher arrived at each university and met the department heads of the ten programmes. After communicating the purpose and procedure of data collection with the respective department heads, the names and telephone numbers of participants for the study were identified from the database to invite them to fill out the questionnaire on the following day. The department heads were also requested to allow the researcher and his assistant access to the academic staff members for an hour to administer the questionnaires. During the data collection day, one academic staff member

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belonging to the College or Faculty of Education in each sample university was used as a coordinator and assistant who served in arranging seminar halls to get all the participants at the same time to fill the questionnaire. Before the questionnaires were distributed to the participants, a brief orientation was given about the objective of the study and the researcher thanked all the participants for devoting their time and showing commitment to complete the questionnaire. The researcher assured the respondents that all the acquired information would be treated as confidential and used purely for the purposes of the study. Furthermore, it was confirmed that anonymity would be maintained. They were also informed that there was no need for personal identification (names, telephone numbers or e-mail addresses) in addition to the instruction included in the questionnaire not to mention the same.

All the participants in the seminar hall completed the questionnaires and returned them to the researcher. Participants who were not in the seminar hall were approached in their respective office or elsewhere in the university to fill out the questionnaires on the same day. Academic staff members who were busy with teaching and research activities and missed the schedule to fill the questionnaire were given the chance to complete the questionnaire separately and return them through a courier service. During the data collection phase, a few participants in the study were not present in their universities due to study leave or other reasons. The researcher contacted other academic staff members having nearly the same profile with the missing ones to fill out the questionnaire to maximize the response rate of the questionnaire.

### **4.9 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION**

The data analysis began by reducing the mass of data obtained to a form suitable for analysis called data reduction which generally consists of coding data in preparation for analysis. Before the coding process, editing or checking the filled out questionnaires intended to identify

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and eliminate errors made by respondents is very important (Cohen et al., 2007). The questionnaires were coded for closed-ended questions, for example male = 1, and female = 2, and for the open-ended questions a coding frame was designed after the completion of the questionnaires by taking a random sample of 10% of the questionnaire to count a range of responses.

In this study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to address the research questions posed and to test the null hypotheses. Research question 1 used descriptive statistics namely frequencies and percentages. Inferential statistics were used to answer research question 2. Since research question 3 seeks to measure the association between factors of job satisfaction with job satisfaction, the Pearson correlation analysis was conducted. The Pearson correlation uses a statistical correlation to evaluate the strength of the linear relations between constructs through a correlation coefficient 'r'. If the value of 'r' is in the range of  $\pm 0$  to 0.3 it is treated as a weak relationship,  $\pm 0.3$  to 0.7 is considered as moderate and above  $\pm 0.7$  indicates the relationship is strong between the variables. Normally a P-value of the correlation is calculated; its aim is to measure whether the correlation is significant or not. If the P-value of two variables is less or equal to 0.05, it indicates that a significant correlation does exist. Moreover, further investigation depends upon the significance of the correlation (Hebel, 2002). The hypotheses were tested by means of the independent t-test and ANOVA (Analysis of Variance). For the open ended questions thematic analysis technique was employed and enumeration was noted (e.g. frequencies). The IBM SPSS version 25 was used for the analysis of quantitative data.

The questionnaire was presented in numerical data to facilitate comparisons between frequencies, patterns and trends to be noted and collected as explained by Cohen et al. (2003).

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Thus tables and figures were used to present the data. The table below shows the basic questions and the corresponding data analysis techniques used in Chapter 5.

**Table 4.3**

*Basic research questions and the data analysis techniques*

No	Basic research questions	Data analysis technique used
1	What is the level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their jobs?	Frequencies, percentage, mean and standard deviation
2	What are the differences in level of job satisfaction between academic staff in Ethiopian public universities with regard to demographic factors such as gender, age, experience, qualification, academic rank?	T-test and ANOVA
3	What are the correlations between the different factors that affect job satisfaction	Pearson correlation
4	Which aspects of their job give academic staff the least job satisfaction?	Thematic
5	What is the level of overall job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia?	Frequencies, percentage, mean and standard deviation
6	What can be introduced to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities?	Thematic

### 4.10 SUMMARY

Chapter 4 began with brief explanation of what was discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 to have a bird's eye view of the theoretical and empirical aspects. The chapter also highlighted the research design, research paradigm or the underlying philosophies that underpin the current research, and the research approaches which was the quantitative research approach that was used in the study. Furthermore, the research questions, hypotheses, population and sampling,

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data collection instrument, pilot study, validity reliability, objectivity and generalizability, data collection procedures and data analysis and presentation that were used by the researcher were explained. In the forthcoming Chapter 5 the results and findings of the empirical investigation are presented and discussed.

## CHAPTER 5

### PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH RESULTS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is devoted to presenting and discussing the results of the empirical investigation to answer the stated research questions. It follows similar arrangement in which the research sub-problems were mentioned in Chapter 1. The main research question coined in this study was: **What is the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities and how can this be improved?** From this research question, the following sub-questions were formulated:

- What is the level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their jobs?
- What are the differences in level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities with regard to demographic factors such as gender, age, experience, qualification and academic rank?
- What are the correlations between the different factors that affect job satisfaction?
- Which aspects of their jobs give academic staff the least job satisfaction?
- What is the level of overall job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia?
- What can be introduced to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities?

The discussion to follow will be done according to the sub-questions mentioned above. Therefore, in the sections to follow the biographical data is presented, followed by the results of the level of job satisfaction with different aspects of respondents' jobs, test results for significant

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differences in job satisfaction between different groups and for significant correlations between different factors/variables and job satisfaction and others. The results are summarised in tables and the tables are followed by discussion of the results. Then after, the findings of the open ended questions are presented and towards the end of the chapter a brief summary is included.

### 5.2 ANALYSIS OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF THE RESPONDENTS

The five aspects of biographical data of the respondents were presented in Table 5.1. It depicts the respondents' biographical information in the form of frequencies and percentages as identified by the five questions in the first part of the questionnaire. The total number of respondents was 400.

**Table 5.1**

*Frequencies of the biographical data of the academic staff members, (n= 400)*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Gender of academic staff:		
Male	336	84.0%
Female	64	16.0%
Age of Academic Staff members:		
26 years and younger	50	12.5%
27-39 years	302	75.5%
40-52 years	43	10.8%
53-60 years	5	1.2%
Experience of academic staff members as a lecturer or other rank in years:		
Less than 6 years	148	37.0%
6-15 years	216	54.0%
16-25 years	26	6.5%
26 years and older	10	2.5%
Rank of academic staff member:		
Lecturer	345	86.2%
Assistance Professor	52	13.0%
Associate Professor	3	0.8%
Qualification of academic staff members:		
Doctoral Degree	43	10.8%
Master's Degree	357	89.2%



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The above Table 5.1 depicts that most of the respondents were males (84%) and the minority were females (16.0%). This is not consistent with the 25% target set in the Ethiopian Education Sector Development Plan V for the years 2016 to 2020, (MOE a, 2015). Although affirmative action to promote the hiring of female academic staff was introduced in universities as a means to achieve equity among male and female faculty members, particularly in universities at which the gender ratio of academic staff is not balanced than is required according to university academic staff ratio target set by government, still the target is not achieved. According to the Education Statistics National Abstract, males are predominant in the government higher education institutions (MOE, 2014:169).

With regard to age, most of the respondents were between 27 and 39 years of age (75.5%). This shows that most of the academic staff members are young and consistent with the fact that the majority of the respondents are only lecturers. This can be attributed to the expansion of universities in recent years that required more young graduates to join universities due to shortage of older academic staff in the labour market. The respondents who are in the age category of less than or equal to 26 years (12.5%) constituted the second largest group of respondents. Respondents that were between 40 and 52 years constituted 10.8% of the sample respondents. The oldest age group (1.2%) were between 53 and 60 years.

As far as teaching experience is concerned, the majority (i.e. more than 50%) of the respondents had between six to 15 years' experience as academic staff in universities. Nearly 37% of the respondents, which were relatively least experienced, had less than six years' teaching experience. Moreover, 6.5% of the respondents had 16 to 25 years of teaching experience. The 2.5% of respondents who had greater than or equal to 26 years' experience constituted the minority group and had the longest work experience.

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Concerning academic rank of the respondents, 86.2% were lecturers, whereas the rest (13.8%) were assistant professors and associate professors. In terms of teaching qualifications, the majority of academic staff members (89.2%) held a master's degree, while 10.8% had a PhD degree. This result indicates that the most of the instructors in the selected universities held a master's degree. This is far away from the target which is 70% master's degree holders and 30% PhD holders set in the Ethiopian Education Sector Development Plan V for the years 2016 to 2020.

**Table 5.2**

*Gender of Academic Staffs \* Rank of Academic Staffs Cross tabulation, (n= 400)*

		Rank of Academic Staffs				Total
		Lecturer	Assistance Professor	Associate Professor		
Gender of Academic Staffs	Male	Count	285	49	2	336
		% of Total	71.3%	12.3%	0.5%	84.0%
	Female	Count	60	3	1	64
		% of Total	15.0%	0.8%	0.3%	16.0%
Total	Count	345	52	3	400	
	% of Total	86.3%	13.0%	0.8%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.2 shows that female academic staff members that had assistant professor and associate professor academic rank position were only 1.0% when compared to male academic staff members who were 12.8%. This is again not consistent with the 25.0% target to raise female academic rank stipulated in the Ethiopian Education Sector Development Plan V for the years 2016 to 2020, (MOEa, 2015)

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**Table 5.3**

*Age of Academic Staffs \* Rank of Academic Staffs Cross tabulation, (n= 400)*

		Rank of Academic Staffs				
			Assistance Professor	Associate Professor		Total
		Lecturer				
Age of	26 years	Count	50	0	0	50
Academic	and	% of	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
Staffs	younger	Total				
	27-39	Count	269	32	1	302
		% of	67.3%	8.0%	0.3%	75.5%
		Total				
	40-52	Count	23	19	1	43
		% of	5.8%	4.8%	0.3%	10.8%
		Total				
	53-60	Count	3	1	1	5
		% of	0.8%	0.3%	0.3%	1.3%
		Total				
Total		Count	345	52	3	400
		% of	86.3%	13.0%	0.8%	100.0%
		Total				

Table 5.3 shows that academic staff members who had 27 years of age and above were assistance professors and associate professors. This implies that higher age correlate with high academic rank in the Ethiopian public universities.

### **5.3 RESEARCH QUESTION 1: WHAT IS THE LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF WITH REGARD TO VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THEIR JOB?**

#### **5.3.1 Introduction**

To know the level of job satisfaction with the different features of job among academic staff members, frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation of responses were computed and results of satisfaction were analysed. Tables present the scores for each of the

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questions on different variables as per the survey respondents and the results were analysed. The responses of questions in the questionnaire/ scale were added first and divide in to the number of questions to find the average score of each construct presented in the subsequent tables. The variables of the study were clustered into two major constructs (university policies and working condition) whereas the construct university policies included four variables: student admission policy, academic staff promotion policy, students' discipline policy and university governance and support. Similarly, working conditions included six variables: salary, work load, class size, academic freedom, reward, communication. Students' achievement was taken as a separate and self-standing variable. However, in order to have knowledge on the influence of each of the variables from the literature reviewed in this study, it is useful to examine the three job constructs separately. Following is an analysis of the two major constructs first and then the eleven constructs separately. In the analysis, the two extreme responses that are strongly disagree and disagree and strongly agree and agree were merged together as disagree and agree respectively for ease of analysis.

### 5.3.2 Satisfaction with university policies, working condition and students' achievement

**Table 5.4**

*Frequencies of the university policies and working condition (n=400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree (%)</b>	<b>Disagree (%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree (%)</b>	<b>Agree (%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree (%)</b>
1. University policies	2.97	0.753	377 (21.5%)	363 (20.7%)	253 (14.4%)	380 (21.6%)	383 (21.8%)
2. Working conditions	2.50	0.779	385 (22.6%)	351 (20.6%)	242 (14.2%)	362 (21.2%)	364 (21.4%)

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As reported in Table 5.4, the percentage satisfaction rating value was given to question one that is for the university policies aspect of job. Concerning university policies, the academic staff members who expressed their agreement accounted for 43.5%, while those academic staff members who indicated disagreement with university policies accounted for 42.1%. Based on this response, it is clear that the academic staffs' opinion was nearly equally divided in to disagreement and agreement with university policies.

Table 5.4 also shows question two which is the percentage satisfaction rating of the working conditions aspect of job. For the working conditions aspect of the job, 42.6% of academic staff members agreed and 43.2% disagreed. This also indicates that in general academic staff members were proportionally equally divided towards working condition. With regard to satisfaction with students' achievement aspect of the job, 73.3% of academic staff members disagreed and 25.3% agreed. This indicates that in general academic staff members were dissatisfied with students' achievement.

Academic staff members' views on the different constructs of university policies and the working conditions aspects are presented in the subsequent tables followed by discussion.

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### 5.3.3 Satisfaction with university policies

**Table 5.5**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with students' admission policy, (n= 400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree (%)</b>	<b>Disagree (%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree (%)</b>	<b>Agree (%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree (%)</b>
1. I am happy with the placement of students with special educational needs who got the lowest university entrance cut off points.	3.24	1.412	85(21.2)	32(8)	59(14.8)	150(37.5)	74(18.5)
2. I support the placement of disadvantaged students through affirmative action.	3.10	1.387	92(23.0)	36(9.0)	66 (16.5)	152(38)	54(13.5)
3. I feel that majority of students who joined universities through affirmative action are least performers.	3.26	1.472	87 (21.8)	31(7.8)	76(19.0)	104(26)	102(25.5)
Average:	3.20	1.078	88(22.0)	33 (8.3)	67(16.7)	135(33.7)	77(19.3)

Table 5.5 shows satisfaction level of academic staff members with students' admission policy. For the first question which was raised to know if the respondents were happy with the placement of students with special educational needs who got the lowest university entrance cut-off points, 224(56%) of them agreed. Similarly, the highest score value for the question raised to know the views of respondents if they support the placement of disadvantaged students through affirmative action was agreement by 206(51.5%) of them. Both results indicate that respondents were satisfied with the students' placement policy that Ministry of Education uses to assign disadvantaged students from different corners of the country. Contrary to this, to question three which was posed to know if the academic staff members feel that the majority of students who joined universities through affirmative action are least performers, 206 (51.5%) of them agreed which contribute to academic staff members' job dissatisfaction. However, the total result of the

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respondents which is 212(53%) shows that the respondents were agreed with students' admission policy depending on the average score of the three questions included to measure the construct.

**Table 5.6**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with promotion policy, (n=400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree f(%)</b>	<b>Agree f(%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree f(%)</b>
1. I am satisfied with my opportunities for promotion.	3.27	1.513	82(20.5)	49(12.3)	70 (17.5)	77(19.3)	122(30.5)
2. The requirements of promotion to be fulfilled are not difficult.	3.34	1.546	70 (17.5)	69(17.3)	68(17)	40 (10)	153 (38.3)
3. I have opportunities for professional advancement.	3.28	1.552	79 (19.8)	61(15.3)	71(17.8)	47 (11.8)	142(35.5)
Average	3.30	1.378	76 (19.2)	60(15)	70(17.5)	55 (13.8)	139(34.85)

Table 5.6 shows satisfaction level of academic staff members with the promotion policy. Regarding satisfaction level with promotion opportunity, the highest score value was agreement 199(49.8%) which means that academic staff members were satisfied with the promotion opportunities they had in their respective universities. Similarly, to the question raised to know if the requirements of promotion to be fulfilled are not difficult, the respondents responded with the highest score value of agreement 193(48.3%). Thus the respondents were satisfied with the promotion requirements. With respect to the opportunities for professional advancement, the highest response value was agreement 189 (47.3%) which means that academic staff members were satisfied with this aspect of their job. The total result of the respondents which is 194(48.6%) shows that the level of job satisfaction of the respondents with promotion was high depending on the average score of the three questions included to measure the construct.

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**Table 5.7**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with students' discipline policy, (n=400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree f(%)</b>	<b>Agree f(%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree f(%)</b>
1. I am happy with the presence of the student discipline policy in the university.	2.87	1.445	131(32.8)	23(5.8)	46(11.5)	169 (42.3)	31(7.8)
2. I feel that due attention is given to accountability of students with disciplinary problems.	2.68	1.501	134 (33.5)	74(18.5)	38 (9.5)	95(23.8)	59(14.8)
3. Cases of students with disciplinary problems are reducing.	2.78	1.402	94(23.5)	111(27.8)	40(10)	101(25.3)	54(13.5)
4. Students are self-reliant in examination rooms.	2.51	1.376	145 (36.3)	69(17.3)	41(10.3)	126(31.5)	19(4.8)
5. Students do their assignments independently.	2.61	1.498	138 (34.5)	80(20.0)	44(11.0)	76(19.0)	62 (15.5)
6. I feel that my students attend my classes regularly.	2.52	1.505	174(43.5)	31 (7.8)	47(11.8)	108(27.0)	40(10.0)
7. I feel that my students respect me.	3.31	1.645	109(27.3)	25 (6.3)	45(11.3)	76 (19)	145(36.3)
Average	2.75	1.208	132(33.0)	59(14.8)	43 (10.7)	107(26.8)	59(14.7)

As Table 5.7 shows, response to question one - I am happy with the presence of the students' discipline policy in the university - the highest response revealed was agreement by 200(53%) of the respondents. This shows satisfaction with the presence of the students' discipline policy. To the second question - I feel that due attention is given to accountability of students with disciplinary problems - 208(52%) of them responded was disagreement which shows dissatisfaction with this aspect of job. For question three - cases of students with disciplinary problems are reducing - 205(51.3%) of them responded disagreement which shows dissatisfaction.



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To question four - Students are self-reliant in examination rooms - 214(53.6%) respondents replied disagreement, which shows dissatisfaction with this aspect of the job. The response to question five - students do their assignments independently - was disagreement by 218(54.5%) of the respondents which shows dissatisfaction with this aspect of the job. Question six was raised to know if they feel that their students were attending classes regularly or not and 205 (51%) of the respondents replied disagreement which shows dissatisfaction with this aspect of the job. The responses to the last question - I feel that my students respect me - was agreement by 221(55.3%) of the respondents which shows satisfaction with this aspect of the job. Additional computation was carried out to delve in to the level of satisfaction with students' discipline policy as whole and the total result indicates that 191(47.8%) of the respondents were disagreement depending on the average scale result of the seven questions included to measure the construct which shows dissatisfaction.

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**Table 5.8**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with university governance and support, (n=400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree f(%)</b>	<b>Agree f(%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree f(%)</b>
1. Leaders at my university engage academic staff in participatory decision-making.	2.46	1.565	175(43.8)	60(15)	39(9.8)	57(14.2)	69(17.3)
2. The university management supports academic staff members.	2.49	1.548	175(43.8)	47(11.8)	47(11.8)	70(17.5)	61(15.3)
3. University management sets a good example of fair leadership.	2.32	1.491	193(48.3)	52(13)	30 (7.5)	84(21)	41(10)
4. Sufficient resources are available in my university.	2.42	1.526	184(46)	44(11)	42(10.5)	79(19.8)	51(12.8)
5. There is good infrastructure in my university (electricity, internet, water and others).	3.36	1.661	104(26)	33(8.3)	37(9.3)	67(16.8)	159(39.8)
6. I feel that government budget allocated for academic work, research, community service and other activities is sufficient.	2.66	1.727	171 (42.8)	52(13.0)	42(10.5)	13(3.3)	122 (30.5)
<b>Average</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>0.981</b>	<b>161 (40.3)</b>	<b>49 (12.2)</b>	<b>41 (10.2)</b>	<b>63 (15.8)</b>	<b>86 (21.5)</b>

As Table 5.8 shows, with regard to question one -leaders at my university engage academic staff in participatory decision-making - the highest score value was disagreement by 235(58.5%) of the respondents. To the second question -the university management supports academic staff members - 222(55.6%) responded that they were disagreed. To question three -university management sets a good example of fair leadership– 245(61.3%) responded that they were disagreed. To question four -sufficient resources are available in my university- the majority of respondents 228(57%) revealed that they were disagreed. The finding for question five -there is good infrastructure in my university (electricity, internet, water and others) -shows that

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226(56.6%) of the respondents were agreed. To question six - I feel that government budget allocated for academic work, research, community service and other activities is sufficient— 223(55.8%) of the respondents responded disagreement. The total results carried out to delve in to the level of satisfaction with university governance and support indicates that 210(52.5%) of the respondents were disagreed depending on the average score of the six questions introduced to measure the construct and this shows dissatisfaction by the academic staff.

### 5.3.4 Satisfaction with working condition

**Table 5.9**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with salary, (n=400)*

Factors	Mean	SD	Strongly disagree f(%)	Disagree e f(%)	Neither disagree nor agree f(%)	Agree f(%)	Strongly agree f(%)
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	2.49	1.515	183(45.8)	24(6.0)	50(12.5)	102(25.5)	41(10.3)
2. My salary compares to other professional jobs.	2.69	1.459	109(27.8)	111(27.8)	43(10.8)	69(17.3)	68(17.0)
3. Salary raises keep up with inflation in the country.	2.55	1.501	153(38.3)	67(16.8)	39(9.8)	88(22.0)	53(13.3)
4. Salary raises are too few.	3.46	1.625	71 (17.8)	75(18.8)	43(10.8)	22(5.5)	189(47.3)
Average	2.80	1.298	129 (32.25)	69(17.25)	44(11.0).	70 (17.5)	88(22.0)

Based on Table 5.9, the highest score responses given to question one -I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do - was disagreement by 207 (51.8%) of the respondents. Question two reads: My salary compares to other professional jobs. The results show that the highest score among respondents was disagreement by 220(55.1%) of the respondents. This reflects that most of the respondents were dissatisfied with the salary paid to them compared to other professional jobs. For question three -salary raises keep up with inflation in the country- the results show that the highest score among 220(55.6%) of the respondents was disagreement.

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This indicates that most of the respondents were dissatisfied with salary raises which do not keep up with inflation. For the fourth question: Salary raises are too few, the highest score result was agreement by 196(49%). This implies that most of the respondents were dissatisfied with the small number of salary raises. Finally, the total result carried out to delve in to the level of satisfaction with salary indicated that 198(49.5%) of the respondents were disagreed based on the average score result of the four questions included to measure the construct which means dissatisfaction by the academic staff members.

**Table 5.10** *Frequencies of satisfaction with work load, (n=400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree f(%)</b>	<b>Agree f(%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree f(%)</b>
1. The paper work in correcting, marking and grading students' work is tiresome.	3.48	1.591	80(20)	41 (10.3)	60(15)	45(11.3)	174(43.5)
2. My workload is high.	3.73	1.506	56(14)	42(10.5)	58(14.5)	41(10.3)	203(50.7)
3. The special tutorial programme for female students and low achievers is an unnecessary additional burden.	3.71	1.510	63(15.8)	31 (7.8)	58 (14.5)	54(13.5)	194(48.5)
Average	3.64	1.355	66 (17)	38 (9.5)	59 (14)	47 (12)	190(47.5)

As it is depicted in Table 5.10, to question one -the paper work in correcting, marking and grading students' work is tiresome -the response by 219(54.8%) of respondents reveals that they agreed. This means the respondents were dissatisfied with this aspect of their work. To the second question - my workload is high - 244(51%) of the respondents agreed. This implies that they were dissatisfied with the workload they had. To question three -the special tutorial programme for female students and low achievers is an unnecessary additional burden— 248(62%) of the respondents agreed. This result also indicates that respondents were dissatisfied

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with the additional tutorial programme workload. The result from the additional computation carried out to delve in to the level of satisfaction with workload reveals that 237(59.5%) of the respondents were agreed with the average score value of the three constituents of work load. This means that they were dissatisfied with workload in universities.

**Table 5.11**

*Frequencies of, satisfaction with class size, (n=400)*

Factors	Mean	SD	Strongly disagree f(%)	Disagree f(%)	Neither disagree nor agree f(%)	Agree f(%)	Strongly agree f(%)
1. Number of students that I teach in my class is large.	3.66	1.534	70(17.5)	23(5.8)	73 (18.3)	43(10.8)	191 (47.8)
2. The minimum class size determined in legislation is respected.	2.31	1.370	175(43.8)	60(15)	58(14.5)	82(20.5)	25(6.3)
3. The minimum standard of instructor and student ratio which is 1:20 is maintained.	2.38	1.371	170 (42.5)	50(12.5)	58 (14.5)	104(26)	18(4.5)
4. The current class size enhances active learning method implementation.	2.56	1.568	157(39.3)	60(15.0)	73 (18.3)	23(5.8)	87(21.8)
Average	2.72	0.928	143(35.7)	48 (12)	66 (16.6)	63(15.7)	80(20)

As it is shown in Table 5.11, to question one: Number of students that I teach in my class is large, 234(58%) of the respondents agreed. To the second question: 235(58.8%) of the respondents disagreed that the minimum class size determined in legislation is respected. To question three: The minimum standard of instructor and student ratio which is 1:20 is maintained, 220 (55%) of the respondents disagreed. To question four, 217(54.3%) of the respondents disagreed that the current class size enhances active learning method implementation. The average result from the additional computation carried out to delve in to the level of satisfaction with class size indicates that 191(47.7%) of the respondents were disagreed

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particularly with the average score value of the four constituents of class size which means that they were dissatisfied with class size.

**Table 5.12**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with academic freedom, (n=400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree f(%)</b>	<b>Disagree e f(%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree f(%)</b>	<b>Agree f(%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree f(%)</b>
1. The amount of freedom I have in decision-making in academic affairs is fair.	2.41	1.364	166(41.5)	47(11.8)	58 (14.5)	115(28.7)	14(3.5)
2. I am satisfied with my autonomy as an instructor.	2.44	1.480	162(40.5)	65(16.3)	73(18.3)	37(9.3)	63(15.8)
3. My duties and responsibilities vested by the higher education proclamation are applicable.	3.65	1.532	72(18.0)	24(6.0)	59(14.8)	62(15.5)	183(45.8)
4. I have freedom to exercise thought, enquiry, conscience and expression.	3.42	1.658	101(25.3)	22(5.5)	60(15.0)	42(10.5)	175(43.8)
Average	2.98	0.999	125(31.2)	40(10.0)	63(15.8)	64(16.0)	108(27.0)

Table 5.12 shows rates of respondents on satisfaction with academic freedom. Regarding question one 213(53.3%) of the respondents disagreed that the amount of freedom that they have in decision-making in academic affairs is fair. To the second question, 227(56.8%) of the respondents disagreed that their autonomy as an instructor is respected. To question three - my duties and responsibilities vested by the higher education proclamation are applicable - 245(61.3%) of the respondents agreed. To question four - I have freedom to exercise thought, enquiry, conscience and expression - 217(54.3%) of the respondents agreed. From the above data presented, the respondents were dissatisfied with the unfairness of freedom in decision-making in academic affairs and their lack of autonomy as an instructor. However, the respondents were

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satisfied with the applicability of duties and responsibilities vested by the higher education proclamation and with the freedom they have to exercise thought, enquiry, conscience and expression. The average score result from the additional computation carried out to delve in to the level of satisfaction with academic freedom indicates that 172 (43%) of the respondents were agreed and 165(41.2%) of the respondents were disagreed with academic freedom showing nearly equal division of opinions by the respondents particularly with the four constituents of academic freedom.

**Table 5.13**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with reward, (n= 400)*

Factors	Mean	SD	Strongly disagree f(%)	Disagree f(%)	Neither disagree nor agree f(%)	Agree f(%)	Strongly agree f(%)
1. There are few rewards for best performers.	3.51	1.663	101(25.3)	17(4.3)	43(10.8)	57(14.2)	182(45.5)
2. I am happy with the criteria used to measure academic staff members' performance.	2.31	1.335	169 (42.3)	69 (17.3)	46(11.5)	102(25.5)	14(3.5)
3. The reward given to best performers is meritorious.	2.39	1.381	169(42.3)	54(13.5)	47(11.8)	113(28.2)	17(4.3)
4. The benefits I receive are as good as that which most other organizations offer.	2.41	1.476	185(46.3)	34(8.5)	46(11.5)	102(25.5)	33(8.3)
Average	2.65	1.231	156(39)	43(10.75)	45(11.25)	94(23.5)	62(15.5)

Table 5.13 shows rates of respondents on satisfaction with reward. Regarding question one, 239(59.7%) of the respondents agreed that there are no sufficient rewards for best performers. This implies that the respondents were dissatisfied with this aspect of their work. To the second question, 238(59.6%) of the respondents disagreed with the criteria used to measure academic staff members' performance. To question three, 223(55.8%) of the respondents disagreed that the reward given to best performers is meritorious. To question four, 219(54.8%) of the respondents

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disagreed that the benefits they receive were as good as most other organizations offer. The average result from the additional computation carried out to delve in to satisfaction level of respondents with reward also confirms disagreement by 199 (49.75%) of the respondents particularly with the average score result of the five constituents of reward which means that academic staff members were dissatisfied with the reward.

**Table 5.14**

*Frequencies of satisfaction with communication, (n= 400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree (%)</b>	<b>Disagree (%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree (%)</b>	<b>Agree (%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree (%)</b>
1. My president encourages open communication among the university community.	2.61	1.690	169(42.3)	62(15.5)	38(9.5)	20(5.0)	111(27.8)
2. There is a harmonious superior-subordinate communication.	2.37	1.419	181(45.3)	40(10.0)	55 (13.8)	99(24.8)	25(6.3)
3. The communication between academic staff and leaders in the university is friendly.	2.41	1.368	164(41.0)	61(15.3)	45(11.3)	109(27.3)	21(5.3)
4. I have good communication with the people I work with.	3.51	1.502	66(16.5)	49(12.3)	54(13.5)	78 (19.5)	153(38.3)
Average	2.72	0.958	145(36.25)	53(13.25)	48(12)	76(19)	78 (19.5)

Table 5.14 shows the responses of respondents on satisfaction with communication. Regarding question one - my president encourages open communication among the university community - 231(57.8%) of the respondents disagreed. This implies that the respondents were dissatisfied with this aspect of their work. To the second question, 221(55.3%) of the respondents disagreed that there is harmonious superior-subordinate communication in their university. To question three, 225(56.3%) of the respondents disagreed that the communication



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between academic staff and leaders in the university is friendly. To question four, 231(57.8%) of the respondents agreed that their communication with the people they work with was good.

Although the respondents were dissatisfied with the lack of encouragement for open communication by their presidents, absence of harmonious superior subordinate relationships and unfriendly relationships between academic staff and leaders, they were satisfied with their interpersonal communication. The average score result of additional computation carried out to delve in to satisfaction level of respondents with communication confirms that 198(49.5%) of the respondents were disagreed with the four constituents of communication which shows dissatisfaction of the academic staff members.

**Table 5.15**

Frequencies of satisfaction with students' achievement, ( $n= 400$ )

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree (%)</b>	<b>Disagree (%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree (%)</b>	<b>Agree (%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree (%)</b>
1. I feel that the curriculum is appropriate to prepare the students for the economy.	3.49	1.618	89(22.3)	30 (7.5)	53(13.3)	53 (13.3)	175(43.8)
2. I feel that the student assessment policy is appropriate.	3.50	1.631	84 (21.0)	43(10.8)	47(11.8)	40 (10.0)	186(46.5)
3. Examinations are administered properly regardless of the large number of students in a class.	2.30	1.350	165(41.3)	81 (20.3)	53(18.3)	73(18.3)	28(7.0)
4. My students get pass marks in my subject.	3.53	1.575	81(20.3)	32(8.0)	53 (13.3)	64(16.0)	170(42.5)
5. Students are willing to do different academic work.	2.39	1.415	181(45.3)	37 (9.3)	47(11.8)	117(29.3)	18(4.5)
6. I am not satisfied with the employment rate of my students after graduation.	2.52	1.663	175(43.8)	63(15.8)	45(11.3)	12(3.0)	105(26.3)
Average	2.95	1.542	129(32.25)	48(12)	50(12.5)	60(15)	113(28.25)

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As Table 5.15 shows, to question one -I feel that the curriculum is appropriate to prepare the students for the economy - 228 (57.1%) of the respondents revealed that they were agreed. To the second question- I feel that the student assessment policy is appropriate-226 (56.5%) of the respondents indicated that they were agreed. To question three-examinations are administered properly regardless of the large number of students in a class - 246 (61.6%) of the respondents expressed their disagreement.

Regarding question four, 234(56.5%) of the respondents were agreed that their students get pass marks in the subjects they teach. To the fifth question, 218(54.6%) of the respondents were disagreed that students are not willing to do different academic work. To question six, 238(59.6%) of the respondents expressed their disagreement with the high unemployment rate of their students after graduation. Though the respondents were dissatisfied with most of the constituents of students' achievement, including difficulty of administering examinations in large classes, the high unemployment rate of graduates and lack of interest on the part of students to do different academic work, which may result in dependency on other students to write their assignments and examinations, the respondents were satisfied with the curriculum, assessment policy and the minimum pass mark obtained by the students in universities. The average score result from the additional computation carried out to delve in to the level of job satisfaction of respondents confirms that 177(44.25%) of them were disagreed with students' achievement and 173(43.25%) of them were agreed particularly with the six constituents of students' achievement which show nearly equal division of the responses.

**5.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 2: WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENCES IN LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION BETWEEN ACADEMIC STAFF WITH REGARD TO DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS?**

**5.4.1 Introduction**

Research question two and the hypotheses derived from it emphasised on whether there were significant differences in the knowledge of different groups of academic staff members of the university policies and working conditions and the corresponding constituents of these categories of variables. The hypotheses were tested using the independent t-tests and ANOVA. When significant differences at 0.05 levels were found in the ANOVA output, post hoc tests were computed to know the significant differences. The results are depicted in tables 5.16 to 5.28.

**5.4.2 Test result of significant differences between gender groups**

The t-tests were computed to compare the differences in satisfaction level of males and that of females with admission policy, promotion policy, students' discipline policy, university governance and support, salary, workload, class size, academic freedom, reward, communication and students' achievement. The two genders differed significantly with regard to only eight variables and the two genders did not show significant differences in satisfaction with admission policy, class size and academic freedom as shown in Table 5.16.

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**Table 5.16**

*Test results for satisfaction with the eleven variables among academic staff members and differences by gender, (n= 400)*

Construct	T-test for Equality of Means			Mean (SD)	
	t	Degrees of freedom	p-value	Male (n=336)	Female (n=64)
Admission Policy	-1.467	77.4	0.146	3.16 (1.017)	3.42 (1.340)
Promotion Policy	3.106	398.0	0.002**	3.39(1.350)	2.81(1.431)
Discipline Policy	-1.951	78.8	0.055*	2.69(1.149)	3.07(1.449)
University Policies and Governance	-2.864	103.2	0.005**	2.57(1.002)	2.90(0.812)
Salary	-2.814	398.0	0.005**	2.72(1.726)	3.21(1.339)
Work Load	-2.219	398.0	0.027*	3.58(1.375)	3.98(1.197)
Class Size	-1.652	398.0	0.099	2.69(0.946)	2.90(0.813)
Academic Freedom	-1.828	103.0	0.070	2.94(1.025)	3.16(0.833)
Reward	3.773	398.0	0.000**	2.75(1.223)	2.13(1.144)
Communication	-3.887	398.0	0.000**	2.64(0.947)	3.14(0.914)
Students' achievement	-2.829	81.4	0.006**	2.87(1.129)	3.37(1.323)

\*=significant difference on the 0.05-level

\*\*=significant difference on the 0.001-level

As Table 5.16 shows, the *t*-test result conducted to test if male and female academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in admission policy, class size and academic freedom revealed no significant difference.

The male group (n=336) was associated with more satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy  $M= 3.39$  (SD = 1.017). By comparison the female group (n= 64) was associated with dissatisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy  $M =2.81$ (SD = 1.431). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and

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satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398)=0.579, p= 0.447$ . . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)=3.106, p=0.002$ . Thus, females were associated with less satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy than males. Eta squared was estimated at 0.3 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The female group ( $n=64$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in students' discipline policy  $M = 3.07$  ( $SD = 1.449$ ). By comparison the male group ( $n= 336$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy  $M = 2.69$  ( $SD = 1.149$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean dissatisfaction in students' discipline policy, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398)=24.318, p= 0.000$ . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(78.8)= -1.951, p= 0.055$ . Thus, males were associated with less dissatisfaction in students' discipline policy than females. Eta squared was estimated at 0.4 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The female group ( $n=64$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in university governance and support policy  $M = 2.90$  ( $SD = 0.812$ ). By comparison the male group ( $n= 336$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in university governance and support policy  $M = 2.57$  ( $SD = 1.002$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean dissatisfaction in students' discipline policy, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398)=6.565, p= 0.001$ . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(103.2)= -2.864, p= 0.005$ . Thus, males were

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associated with less dissatisfaction in university governance and support policy than females. Eta squared was estimated at -0.5 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The female group ( $n=64$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in salary  $M = 3.21$  ( $SD = 1.339$ ). By comparison the male group ( $n= 336$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in salary  $M = 2.72$  ( $SD = 1.726$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in salary, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F(398),=0.141, p= 0.70$ .. The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)= -2.814, p= 0.005$ . Thus, males were associated with less dissatisfaction in salary than females. Eta squared was estimated at -0. 28 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The female group ( $n=64$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in workload  $M = 3.98$  ( $SD = 1.197$ ). By comparison the male group ( $n= 336$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in workload  $M = 3.58$  ( $SD = 1.375$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in workload, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398),= 1.109, p= 0.29$ . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)= -2.219, p= 0.027$ . Thus, males were associated with less dissatisfaction in workload than females. Eta squared was estimated at -0.22 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

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The male group ( $n=336$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in reward  $M = 2.75$  ( $SD = 1.223$ ). By comparison the female group ( $n= 64$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in reward  $M = 2.13$  ( $SD = 1.144$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in reward, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398),=3.205, p= 0.07..$  The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)= 3.773, p= 0.000$ . Thus, females were associated with less dissatisfaction in reward than males. Eta squared was estimated at 0.32 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The female group ( $n= 64$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in communication  $M = 3.14$  ( $SD= 0.914$ ). By comparison the male group ( $n=336$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in communication  $M = 2.64$  ( $SD =0.947$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in communication, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398),=0.285, p= 0.59..$  The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)= -3.887, p= 0.000$ . Thus, males were associated with less dissatisfaction in communication than females. Eta squared was estimated at -0.38 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The female group ( $n=64$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in students' achievement  $M = 3.37$  ( $SD= 1.323$ ). By comparison the male group ( $n= 336$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in students' achievement  $M = 2.87$  ( $SD = 1.129$ ). To test the hypothesis that the males and females academic staff were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in students' achievement, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. The

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assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398)=5.99$ ,  $p= 0.015$ . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(81.4)= -2.829$ ,  $p= 0.006$ . Thus, males were associated with less dissatisfaction in students' achievement than females. Eta squared was estimated at  $-0.62$  which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

### 5.4.3 Test result of significant differences between age groups

The ANOVA tests were computed to compare the satisfaction level of different age groups of academic staff members with the eleven constructs. The result is depicted in Table 5.17.

**Table 5.17**

*One-way analysis of variance results for satisfaction with the eleven constructs among academic and significant difference by age groups, (n= 400)*

Construct	Anova		Mean (SD)			
	F	p-value	26 years and less (n=50)	27-39 years (n=302)	40-52 years (n=43)	53-60 years (n=5)
Admission Policy	3.583	0.014*	3.38(1.069)	3.14 (1.066)	3.50 (1.089)	2.13 (0.836)
Promotion Policy	1.496	0.215	3.19(1.281)	3.25(1.400)	3.34(1.325)	1.069(0.478)
Discipline Policy	1.378	0.249	3.03(1.309)	2.73(1.180)	2.57(1.244)	2.40(1.404)
University Governance Policy	0.189	0.904	2.55(0.926)	2.63(0.976)	2.56(1.088)	2.50(1.027)
Salary	2.639	0.049*	3.18(1.397)	2.77(1.277)	2.45(1.249)	3.15(1.206)
WorkLoad	1.189	0.314	3.84(1.398)	3.65(1.343)	3.33(1.358)	3.40(1.516)
Class Size	1.041	0.374	2.92(0.956)	2.70(0.935)	2.63(0.817)	2.45(1.123)
Academic Freedom	0.818	0.485	3.08(1.022)	2.99(0.997)	2.77(1.013)	2.80(0.715)
Reward	0.575	0.631	2.48(1.235)	2.68(1.246)	2.55(1.155)	2.95(0.974)
Communication	1.864	0.135	3.00(0.996)	2.69(0.947)	2.63(0.964)	2.40(0.894)
Students' achievement	0.242	0.867	2.98(1.205)	2.93(1.160)	3.02(1.271)	3.30(1.192)

\*=significant difference on the 0.05-level



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As can be seen in Table 5.17, the ANOVA test result did not reveal any significant difference between age groups and the nine constructs. This might be due to the fact that majority of the respondents were under 39 years of age and the elderly academic staff when compared with the former ones may not have different feelings about the different aspects of their jobs. Hence age is not a factor for variation in satisfaction level with the nine constructs namely promotion policy, discipline policy, university governance policy, workload, class size, academic freedom, reward, communication and students' achievement among academic staff members.

Table 5.17 above shows the results of ANOVA test for satisfaction with admission policy among academic staff members by age. It can be seen that academic staff members with **26 years and less** years of age group (n=50) was associated with the numerically highest mean level of satisfaction with admission policy (M=3.38, SD=1.069) and academic staff members with the **53-60 years** age group (n=5) was associated with the numerically lowest mean level of satisfaction with admission policy (M=2.13, SD=0.836). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396) = 0.596, p = 0.618$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 3.583, p = 0.014$ .

Table 5.17 above also shows the results of ANOVA test for satisfaction with salary among academic staff members by age. It can be seen that academic staff members with 26 years and less years of age group (n=50) was associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary (M=3.18, SD=1.397) and academic staff members with the 40-52 years age group (n=43) was associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary (M=2.45, SD=1.249). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and

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satisfied based on Leven's  $F$  test,  $F(3, 396) = 1.209, p = 0.306$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 2.639, p = 0.049$ .

**Table 5.18**

*Post-hoc analysis for admission policy among academic staff members by age, (n = 400)*

Age group	n	Mean	SD	<=26	27-39	40-52	53-60
<=26	50	3.38	1.069		0.468	0.944	0.063
27-39	302	3.14	1.066	0.468		0.164	0.155
40-52	43	2.50	1.089	0.944	0.164		0.035*
53-60	5	2.13	0.836	0.063	0.155	0.035*	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, \* indicates significance at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.18 above indicates the results of post-hoc comparative analysis for dissatisfaction with admission policy among academic staff members by age. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the four means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with four Tukey HSD tests. The difference between academic staff members who had 40 -52 years of age and academic staff members who had 53-60 years of age was statistically significant,  $t(396) = 0.59, p = 0.035$ . The differences between other experience groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.02 which is a lower effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different age group was rejected.

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**Table 5.19**

*Post-hoc analysis for salary among academic staff members by age, (n= 400)*

Age group	N	Mean	SD	<=26	27-39	40-52	53-60
<=26	50	3.18	1.397		0.170	0.035*	1.000
27-39	302	2.77	1.277	0.170		0.419	0.917
40-52	43	2.45	1.249	0.035*	0.419		0.663
53-60	5	3.15	1.206	1.000	0.918	0.663	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, \* indicates significance at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.19 above indicates the results of post-hoc comparative analysis for dissatisfaction with salary among academic staff members by age. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the four means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with four Tukey HSD tests. The difference between academic staff members who had 40 -52 years of age and academic staff members who had 26 and less years of age was statistically significant,  $t(396) = 1.20, p = 0.035$ . The differences between other experience groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.01 which is a lower effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different age group was rejected.

### 5.4.4 Test result of significant differences between qualification groups

A t-test was conducted to find out if there were significant differences between the satisfaction levels of academic staff members from different qualification groups with all the constructs. The results show significant difference among academic staff members with only students' admission policy, promotion policy, the university governance and support and workload but not with the others and the results are presented in Table 5.20.

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**Table 5.20**

*Test results for satisfaction with the eleven variables among academic staff members and significance difference by qualification, (n= 400)*

Construct	T-test for Equality of Means			Mean (SD)	
	t	Degrees of freedom	p-value	Doctoral Degree (n=43)	Master's Degree (n=357)
Admission policy	2.734	398	0.007**	3.62 (1.214)	3.14 (1.050)
Promotion policy	2.741	398	0.006**	3.83(1.189)	3.23(1.386)
Discipline policy	-1.638	398	0.102	2.46(1.230)	2.78(1.202)
University governance policy	-3.953	398	0.000**	2.06(1.061)	2.68(0.950)
Salary	-1.651	398	0.100	2.48(1.227)	2.83(1.302)
Workload	-2.510	398	0.012*	3.15(1.392)	3.70(1.340)
Class size	-0.147	398	0.883	2.70(1.048)	2.72(0.914)
Academic freedom	-1.186	398	0.236	2.80(1.103)	2.99(0.985)
Reward	-0.466	398	0.641	2.56(1.152)	2.66(1.241)
Communication	0.880	48.649	0.383	2.86(1.166)	2.70(0.930)
Students' achievement	1.172	398	0.242	3.15(1.169)	2.92(1.175)

\*=significant difference on the 0.05-level

\*\*=significant difference on the 0.01-level

As Table 5.20 shows the *t*-test was conducted to test if the academic staff members with a master's degree and the academic staff members with a PhD degree were associated with statistically significantly different with the constructs. The mean satisfaction in discipline policy, salary, class size, academic freedom, reward, communication and students' achievement revealed no significant difference.

The academic staff members with a PhD degree group (n= 43) was associated with more satisfaction in students' admission policy  $M = 3.62$  (SD = 1.214). By comparison the academic staff members with a master's degree group (n=357) was associated with less satisfaction in students' admission policy  $M = 3.14$  (SD = 1.050). To test the hypothesis that the academic staff members with a master's degree and the academic staff members with a PhD degree were

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associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in students' admission policy, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. As can be seen in Table 5.16, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's *F* test  $F(398)=2.618, p=0.10$ . The independent samples *t*-test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)=2.734, p=0.007$ . Thus, the academic staff members with a master's degree were associated with less satisfaction in students' admission policy than the academic staff members with a PhD degree. Eta squared was estimated at 0.27 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The academic staff members with a PhD degree group ( $n=43$ ) was associated with more satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy  $M = 3.83$  ( $SD = 1.189$ ). By comparison the academic staff members with a master's degree group ( $n=357$ ) was associated with less satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy  $M = 3.23$  ( $SD = 1.386$ ). To test the hypothesis that the academic staff members with a master's degree and the academic staff members with a PhD degree were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. As can be seen in Table 5.16, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's *F* test  $F(398)=2.538, p=0.11$ . The independent samples *t*-test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)=2.741, p=0.006$ . Thus, the academic staff members with a master's degree were associated with less satisfaction in academic staff's promotion policy than the academic staff members with a PhD degree. Eta squared was estimated at 0.27 which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The academic staff members with a master's degree group ( $n=357$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in university governance and support policy  $M = 2.68$  ( $SD = 0.950$ ). By

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comparison the academic staff members with a PhD degree group ( $n= 43$ ) was associated with less dissatisfaction in university governance and support policy  $M = 2.06$  ( $SD = 1.061$ ). To test the hypothesis that the academic staff members with a master's degree and the academic staff members with a PhD degree were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in students' discipline policy, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. As can be seen in Table 5.16, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398),= 3.343, p= 0.06$ . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)= -3.953, p= 0.000$ . Thus, the academic staff members with a PhD degree were associated with less dissatisfaction in university governance and support policy than the academic staff members with a master's degree. Eta squared was estimated at  $-0.39$  which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The academic staff members with a master's degree group ( $n=357$ ) was associated with more dissatisfaction in workload  $M = 3.70$  ( $SD = 1.34$ ). By comparison the academic staff members with a PhD degree group ( $n= 43$ ) was associated with less satisfaction in workload  $M = 3.15$  ( $SD = 1.392$ ). To test the hypothesis that the academic staff members with a master's degree and the academic staff members with a PhD degree were associated with statistically significantly different mean satisfaction in workload, an independent samples  $t$ -test was performed. As can be seen in Table 5.16, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's  $F$  test  $F(398),= 0.424, p= 0.51$ . The independent samples  $t$ -test was associated with statistically significant effect,  $t(398)= -2.510, p= 0.012$ . Thus, the academic staff members with a PhD degree were associated with less dissatisfaction in workload than the academic staff members with a master's degree. Eta squared was estimated at  $-0.25$  which is a higher effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline.

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### 5.4.5 Test results of significant differences between experience group

ANOVA was conducted to find out significant differences between the satisfactions levels of academic staff members from different experience groups with the eleven constructs. The results show significant difference among academic staff only with salary and communication but not for the other constructs. The results are presented in Tables 5.21 that follow.

**Table 5.21**

*One-way analysis of variance for level of satisfaction with the eleven constructs among academic staff members by experience, (n= 400)*

Construct	Anova		Mean (SD)			
	F	p-value	6 and less (n=148)	6-15 (n=216)	16-25 (n=26)	26 and above (n=10)
Admission policy	1.491	0.217	3.34(1.077)	3.10 (1.070)	3.15 (1.033)	3.10 (1.257)
Promotion policy	0.587	0.624	3.40(1.360)	3.21(1.387)	3.37(1.396)	3.30(1.461)
Discipline policy	1.100	0.349	2.85(1.271)	2.73(1.156)	2.42(1.233)	2.57(1.259)
University governance policy	0.946	0.418	2.62(0.972)	2.64(0.974)	2.31(1.062)	2.75(1.031)
Salary	2.744	0.043*	3.01(1.383)	2.69(1.253)	2.37(0.925)	2.90(1.390)
Workload	0.720	0.540	3.70(1.410)	3.64(1.302)	3.28(1.489)	3.56(1.324)
Class size	0.937	0.423	2.78(0.941)	2.70(0.928)	2.47(0.898)	2.87(0.792)
Academic freedom	0.710	0.547	3.03(1.057)	2.97(0.970)	2.73(0.937)	2.87(0.868)
Reward	1.262	0.287	2.59(1.265)	2.73(1.238)	2.47(1.158)	2.12(0.212)
Communication	3.007	0.030*	2.85(0.906)	2.63(0.989)	2.48(1.002)	3.22(0.447)
Students' achievement	0.946	0.418	2.89(1.199)	2.94(1.154)	3.18(1.192)	3.40(1.207)

**Note:** \* indicates significance at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.21 above shows the results of ANOVA test for satisfaction with salary among academic staff members by experience. It can be seen that academic staff members who had 6 and less years of experience was associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary (M=3.01, SD=1.383) and academic staff members who had 16-25

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years of experience was associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary ( $M=2.37$ ,  $SD=0.925$ ). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's  $F$  test,  $F(3, 396)=10.329$ ,  $p=0.000$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F=2.744$ ,  $p=0.043$ .

Table 5.21 above shows the results of ANOVA test for satisfaction with communication among academic staff members by experience. It can be seen that academic staff members who had **26 years and above** years of experience was associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary ( $M=3.22$ ,  $SD=0.447$ ) and academic staff members who had 16-25 years of experience was associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary ( $M=2.48$ ,  $SD=1.002$ ). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's  $F$  test,  $F(3, 396)=3.107$ ,  $p=0.026$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F=3.007$ ,  $p=0.030$ .

**Table 5.22**

*Post-hoc analysis for salary among academic staff members by experience, (n=400)*

Age group	n	Mean	SD	<6	6-15	16-25	>=26
<6	148	3.01	0.113		0.103	0.096	0.994
6-15	216	2.69	0.085	0.103		0.628	0.961
16-25	26	2.37	0.181	0.096	0.628		0.693
>=26	10	2.90	0.439	0.994	0.961	0.693	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation,

Table 5.22 above indicates the results of post-hoc comparative analysis for dissatisfaction with salary among academic staff members by experience. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the four means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with four Tukey HSD tests. The comparative result did not show difference between



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academic staff members with different experience group. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different experience group was accepted.

**Table 5.23**

*One-way analysis of variance for dissatisfaction with communication among academic staff members by experience, (n=400)*

Age group	n	Mean	SD	<6	6-15	16-25	>=26
<6	148	2.8530	0.906		0.145	0.256	0.629
6-15	216	2.6366	0.989	0.145		0.859	0.224
16-25	26	2.4808	1.002	0.256	0.859		0.154
>=26	10	3.2250	0.447	0.629	0.224	0.154	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation,

Table 5.23 above indicates the results of post-hoc comparative analysis for dissatisfaction with communication among academic staff members by experience. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the four means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with four Tukey HSD tests. The comparative result did not show difference between academic staff members with different experience group. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different experience group was accepted.

### 5.4.6 Test result of significant differences between academic rank group

ANOVA was computed to find out significant differences between the satisfactions of academic staff members from different rank groups with the eleven constructs. The results show a significance difference among academic staff only with students' discipline policy, university governance policy, salary, workload, class size and academic freedom but not for the other constructs. The results are presented in Tables 5.21 that follow.

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**Table 5.24**

*One-way analysis of variance result for dissatisfaction with the eleven constructs among academic staff members by academic rank, (n= 400)*

Construct	Anova		Mean (SD)		
	F	p-value	Lecturer (n=345)	Assistant professor (n=52)	Associate professor (n=3)
Admission policy	0.661	0.517	3.17(1.062)	3.35 (1.135)	3.11 (2.009)
Promotion policy	1.880	0.154	3.26(1.388)	3.55(1.300)	2.22(0.693)
Discipline policy	3.742	0.025*	2.81(1.212)	2.33(1.091)	2.47(1.624)
University governance policy	5.309	0.005**	2.67(0.947)	2.30(1.113)	1.50(0.866)
Salary	7.876	0.000**	2.89(1.306)	2.14(1.050)	3.16(1.181)
Workload	6.954	0.001**	3.74(1.346)	3.01(1.253)	3.00(1.452)
Class size	3.255	0.040*	2.76(0.924)	2.47(0.932)	2.00(0.250)
Academic Freedom	5.642	0.004**	3.04(0.983)	2.56(0.992)	2.50(1.391)
Reward	0.622	0.537	2.62(1.226)	2.78(1.266)	3.16(1.282)
Communication	1.586	0.206	2.74(0.935)	2.63(1.088)	1.833(1.040)
Students' achievement	0.174	0.841	2.93(1.174)	3.04(1.180)	3.00(1.589)

\*=significant difference on the 0.05-level

\*\*=significant difference on the 0.001-level

The Table 5.24 above shows the ANOVA results for dissatisfaction with students' discipline policy among academics by academic rank groups. It can be seen that lecturers (n=345) were associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with students' discipline policy (M=2.81, SD=1.212) and assistant professors (n=52) were associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with students' discipline policy (M=2.33, SD=1.091). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396)=1.119, p=0.341$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F=3.742, p=0.025$ .

The Table 5.24 above shows the ANOVA results for dissatisfaction with university governance and support policy among academics by academic rank groups. It can be seen that

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lecturers (n=345) were associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with university governance and support policy (M=2.67, SD=0.947) and associate professors (n=3) were associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with university governance and support policy (M=1.50, SD=0.866). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396) = 0.803, p = 0.493$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 5.309, p = 0.005$ .

Table 5.24 above shows the ANOVA results for dissatisfaction with salary among academic staff members by academic rank groups. It can be seen that associate professors (n=3) were associated with the numerically higher mean level of dissatisfaction with salary (M=3.16, SD=1.181) and assistant professors (n=52) were associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with salary (M=2.14, SD=1.050). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396) = 1.209, p = 0.306$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 7.876, p = 0.000$ .

The Table 5.24 above shows the ANOVA results for dissatisfaction with workload among academic staff members by academic rank groups. It can be seen that lecturers (n=345) were associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with workload (M=3.74, SD=1.346) and associate professors (n=3) were associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with workload (M=3.00, SD=1.452). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396) = 0.301, p = 0.825$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 6.954, p = 0.001$ .

The Table 5.24 above shows the ANOVA results for dissatisfaction with class size among academic staff members by academic rank groups. It can be seen that lecturers (n=345) were associated with the numerically highest mean level of dissatisfaction with class size (M=2.76,

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SD=0.924) and associate professors (n=3) were associated with the numerically lowest mean level of dissatisfaction with class size (M=2.00, SD=0.250). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396) = 0.686, p = 0.561$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 3.255, p = 0.040$ .

The Table 5.24 above shows the ANOVA results for satisfaction with academic freedom among academic staff members by academic rank groups. It can be seen that lecturers (n=345) were associated with the numerically highest mean level of satisfaction with academic freedom (M=3.04, SD=0.983) and associate professors (n=3) were associated with the numerically lowest mean level of satisfaction with academic freedom (M=2.50, SD=1.391). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied based on Leven's *F* test,  $F(3, 396) = 0.874, p = 0.455$ . The independent between-group ANOVA yielded a statistically significant effect  $F = 5.642, p = 0.004$ .

**Table 5.25**

*Post-hoc analysis for students' discipline policy among academic staff members by academic rank groups, (n= 400)*

Rank group	N	Mean	SD	Lecturer	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor
Lecturer	345	2.81	1.212		0.019*	0.875
Assistant Professor	52	2.33	1.091	0.019*		0.979
Associate Professor	3	2.47	1.624	0.875	0.979	

Note: n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, \* indicates significance at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.25 above shows the results of post-hoc analysis for dissatisfaction with students' discipline policy among academic staff members by academic rank groups. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the three means further, the statistically significance ANOVA

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was followed-up with three Tukey HSD tests. The difference between lecturers and assistant professors was statistically significant,  $t(396)= 1.11, p= 0.019$ . The differences between other rank groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.01 which is a lower effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different rank group was rejected.

**Table 5.26**

*Post-hoc analysis for university governance and support among academic staff members by academic rank groups, (n= 400)*

Rank group	N	Mean	SD	Lecturer	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor
Lecturer	345	2.67	0.947		0.028*	0.093
Assistant Professor	52	2.30	1.113	0.028*		0.344
Associate Professor	3	1.50	0.866	0.093	0.344	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, NS= not significant. \*\* indicates significance at  $p<0.01$

Table 5.26 above shows the results of the post-hoc analysis for dissatisfaction with university governance and support between academic staff members by academic rank groups. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the three means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with three Tukey HSD tests. The difference between lecturers and assistant professors was statistically significant,  $t(396)= 0.80, p= 0.028$ . The differences between other rank groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.02 which is a lower effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different rank group was rejected.

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**Table 5.27**

*Post-hoc analysis for salary among academic staff members by academic rank groups, (n= 400)*

<b>Rank group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Lecturer</b>	<b>Assistant professor</b>	<b>Associate professor</b>
Lecturer	345	2.89	1.306		0.019*	0.773
Assistant professor	52	2.14	1.050	0.019*		0.494
Associate professor	3	3.16	1.181	0.773	0.494	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, NS= not significant. \* indicates significance at p<0.05

Table 5.27 above shows the results of the post-hoc analysis for dissatisfaction with salary among academic staff members by academic rank groups. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the three means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with three Tukey HSD tests. The difference between lecturers and assistant professors was statistically significant,  $t(396)= 1.20, p= 0.019$ . The differences between other rank groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.03 which is a lower effect based on Cohen’s (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different rank group was rejected.

**Table 5.28**

*Post-hoc analysis for workload among academic staff members by academic rank groups, (n= 400)*

<b>Rank group</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Lecturer</b>	<b>Assistant Professor</b>	<b>Associate Professor</b>
Lecturer	345	3.74	1.346		0.001**	0.604
Assistant Professor	52	3.01	1.253	0.001**		1.000
Associate Professor	3	3.00	1.452	0.604	1.000	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, NS= not significant. \*\* indicates significance at p<0.01

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Table 5.28 above shows the results of post-hoc analysis for satisfaction with workload among academic staff members by academic rank groups. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the three means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with three Tukey HSD tests. The difference between lecturers and assistant professors was statistically significant,  $t(396) = 0.30$ ,  $p = 0.001$ . The differences between other rank groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.03 which is a lower effect based on Cohen's (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different rank group was rejected.

**Table 5.29**

*Post-hoc analysis for class size among academic staff members by academic rank groups, (n= 400)*

Rank group	N	Mean	SD	Lecturer	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor
Lecturer	345	2.7674	0.92411		0.080	0.325
Assistant Professor	52	2.4712	0.93234	0.080		0.666
Associate Professor	3	2.0000	0.25000	0.325	0.666	

Table 5.29 above shows the results of post-hoc analysis for satisfaction with class size among academic staff members by academic rank groups. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the three means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with three Tukey HSD tests. The comparative result did not show difference between academic staff members with different experience group. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different experience group was accepted.

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**Table 5.30**

*Post-hoc analysis for Academic freedom among academic staff members by academic rank groups, (n= 400)*

Rank group	N	Mean	SD	Lecturer	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor
Lecturer	345	3.0449	0.98378		0.004*	0.608
Assistant Professor	52	2.5673	0.99276	0.004*		0.993
Associate Professor	3	2.5000	1.39194	0.608	0.993	

**Note:** n=total respondents, SD=standard deviation, NS= not significant. \*\* indicates significance at p<0.01

Table 5.30 above shows the results of post-hoc analysis for satisfaction with academic freedom among academic staff members by academic rank groups. To evaluate the nature of the differences between the three means further, the statistically significance ANOVA was followed-up with three Tukey HSD tests. The difference between lecturers and assistant professors was statistically significant,  $t(396) = 0.87, p = 0.004$ . The differences between other rank groups were not statistically significant. Eta squared was estimated at 0.02 which is a lower effect based on Cohen’s (1988) guideline. Thus, the null hypothesis of no differences between the means of the different rank group was rejected.

**5.5 RESEARCH QUESTION 3: WHAT ARE THE CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE DIFFERENT FACTORS THAT AFFECT JOB SATISFACTION?**

Research question three and the hypotheses derived from it were intended to investigate if there were significant correlations between the different variables and the job satisfaction of academic staff members. This hypothesis was tested by means of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results are illustrated in Table 5.31



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**Table 5.31**

*Correlations of the variables that affect job satisfaction of academic staff members, (n= 400)*

No	Variables	Job satisfaction	
		Pearson correlation	Significance (2-tailed)
1	.University governance and policies		
1.1	Students admission policy	0.16	0.001**
1.2	Promotion policy	0.08	0.103
1.3	Students' discipline policy	0.18	0.000**
1.4	University governance and support	0.19	0.000**
2	Working conditions		
2.1	Salary	0.16	0.002**
2.2	Workload	0.11	0.024*
2.3	Class size	0.17	0.001**
2.4	Academic freedom	0.19	0.000**
2.5	Reward	-0.08	0.118
5.6	Communication	0.28	0.000**
3.	Student achievement	0.08	0.107

\*=significant difference on the 0.05-level

\*\*=significant difference on the 0.01-level

According to Table 5.31, the correlations result can approximately be interpreted as follows: 0.8 and higher = very high; 0.6 to 0.79 = high; 0.4 to 0.59 = moderate and below that a low correlation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:234-235). Based on this guide, Table 5.27 reveals that all the constructs were significantly correlated with job satisfaction except promotion policy, reward and students' achievement. There was positive and low correlations between job satisfaction and students' admission policy, students' discipline, university governance and support policy, salary, workload, class size, academic freedom and communication  $r(398)=0.16$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $r(398)=0.18$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $r(398)=0.19$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $r(398)=0.16$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $r(398)=0.11$ ,  $p<0.05$ ,

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$r(398)=0.17$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $r(398)=0.19$ ,  $p<0.01$ , and  $r(398)=0.28$ ,  $p<0.01$  respectively. Thus, the null-hypothesis may be rejected for these constructs. In all instances the correlations were positive which implies that the higher the one variable increases, the higher the other variables also increase.

*“Coefficient is a way of expressing the degree to which there is common properties or characteristics. To obtain an estimate of the proportion of the variance that the two measures share..., the coefficient must be squared”*, (McMillan and Schumacher, 2012:234). In this study result, the correlation of communication is 0.28 and when it is squared the result will be 0.078 which is the coefficient of determination. This implies that the two variables namely job satisfaction and communications have 7% of their variance in common. Thus, 93% is left unexplained by the correlation of 0.28. From Table 5.27 it is deduced that the four constructs contribute to job satisfaction in the following rank order: communication: 7% (0.28 squared); University governance and support policy: 3% (0.19 squared), academic freedom: 3% (0.19 squared) and students’ discipline: 3% (0.18 squared). These results suggest that dissatisfaction with communication is likely to play a highly significant role in determining the job dissatisfaction of academic staff members in Ethiopian universities. This may hamper proper teaching/learning and quality of education.

### **5.6 RESEARCH QUESTION 4: WHAT IS THE LEVEL OF OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF?**

Research question four was intended to investigate the overall level of job satisfaction of academic staffs. This result is illustrated in Table 5.32

**Table 5.32**

*Frequencies of the overall job satisfaction of academic staff. (n= 400)*

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Strongly disagree (%)</b>	<b>Disagree (%)</b>	<b>Neither disagree nor agree (%)</b>	<b>Agree (%)</b>	<b>Strongly agree (%)</b>
1. Over all I am satisfied with my job.	2.06	1.644	265(66.3)	28(7)	6(1.5)	20(5)	81(20)

Table 5.32 shows the opinion of academic staff on the level of overall job satisfaction. The majority of the respondents (73.3%) replied that they were dissatisfied with their job, 25% responded that they were satisfied with their job and only 1.5% of the respondents responded that they were neither dissatisfied nor satisfied. This implies that academic staff members were dissatisfied with their job.

**5.7 RESEARCH QUESTION 5: WHICH ASPECTS OF THEIR JOBS GAVE ACADEMIC STAFF THE LEAST JOB SATISFACTION?**

Research question five was intended to find out the factors that least satisfy academic staff in universities. For this purpose four open-ended questions were posed to the respondents to delve in to factors that most or that least influence academic staff members' job satisfaction, what the impact was and what action was to be taken to boost their motivation and job satisfaction levels. The responses on the factors that least satisfy academic staff in universities are tabulated and analysed in the following table.

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**Table 5.33**

*Frequencies of factors that give academic staff least job satisfaction, (n= 400)*

No	Factors	Frequency	Percentage
1	Low salary, incentives and benefits	395	98.8%
2	Unfair payment for extra work (regular, continuing and distance programme)	395	98.8%
3	Poor achievement of students	392	98.0%
4	Limited linkage/partnership with international universities and local organizations	390	97.5%
5	Large number of students in lab or class/class size	389	97.3%
6	Inadequate infrastructure and facilities (electricity, internet, water, toilet, recreation, rest room, transportation service, classrooms, offices and residence for instructors).	386	96.5%
7	Too much tax from salary and benefits	385	96.3%
8	Poor educational material supply	385	96.3%
9	Student disciplinary problems	379	94.8%
10	Poor leadership	364	91.0%
11	Absence/lack of academic freedom	348	87.0%
12	Shortage of finance/budget for research and community service	337	84.3%
13	Difficult rules and regulations including legislation	315	78.8%
14	Delayed payments of allowances for extra work	292	73.0%
15	Unfair education opportunity provision	286	71.5%
16	Staff discrimination in position assignment and promotion	280	70.0%
17	Poor communication	279	69.8%
18	Disrespecting of academic staff	276	69.0%
19	Workload	253	63.3%
20	Office politics	220	55.0%

Table 5.33 consists of 20 factors that were identified by the respondents in their written comments as contributors to least satisfaction of academic staff in their universities. These factors were pervasive through the various groups of academic staff from all sampled universities. Out of these, the top four factors with high score value were low salary, incentives and benefits 395 (98.8%) and unfair payment for extra work (regular, continuing and distance programme) 395 (98.8%), poor achievement of students 392 (98.0%) and limited

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linkage/partnership with international universities and local organizations 390 (97.5%). The twelve factors that moderately contribute to job dissatisfaction as identified by the respondents were: large number of students in lab or classroom 389 (97.3%), inadequate infrastructure and facilities 386 (96.50%), too much tax from salary and benefits 385 (96.3%), poor educational material supply 385 (96.25%), students' disciplinary problems 379 (94.8%), poor leadership 364 (91.0%), absence/lack of academic freedom 348 (87.0%), shortage of finance/budget for research and community service 337 (84.3%), difficult rules and regulations including legislation 315 (78.8%), delayed payments of allowances for extra work 292 (73.0%), unfair education opportunity provision 286 (71.5%), staff discrimination in position assignment and promotion 280 (70.0%). The factors that least contribute to job satisfaction as pointed out by the respondents were poor communication 279 (69.8%), disrespecting academic staff 276 (69.0%), workload 253 (63.3%) and lastly office politics 220 (55.0%).

### **5.8 RESEARCH QUESTION 6: WHAT CAN BE INTRODUCED TO IMPROVE JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN ETHIOPIAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES?**

The last open ended question was intended to get academic staff suggestions to university leaders, board of universities, ministry of education, other education managers and beneficiaries on how to enhance the job satisfaction of academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia. These suggestions were related mainly to salary and benefits, infrastructure and resources, work environment, university governance and policy issues. The responses are depicted in table 5.34.

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**Table 5.34**

*Frequencies of suggestions of respondents on ways of improving job satisfaction of academic staff, (n= 400)*

<b>No</b>	<b>Factor</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1	Improve the rate of payment per hour for extra work in the regular continuing and distance teaching programmes	389	97.3%
2	Work on partnership with local and international partners	375	93.8%
3	Raise benefits and incentives	372	93.0%
4	Sufficient budget for research and community service	369	92.3%
5	Payment of different benefits on time	369	92.3%
6	Fair salary and continual salary raise	363	90.8%
7	Amending (revising) and enforcing existing academic rules and regulations	356	89.0%
8	Maintain minimum students in each classroom	338	84.5%
9	Continuous training for students on ethics and good behaviour.	325	81.3%
10	Low taxation rate on salary and benefits	320	80.0%
11	Improving the infrastructure	319	79.8%
12	Sufficient resource supply (fulfilling lab equipment, instruments, raw materials and chemicals)	315	78.8%
13	Good leadership/governance	305	76.3%
14	Ensuring open and healthy communication among the university community	295	73.8%
15	Fair further education opportunity provision	276	69.0%
16	Transparent and fair promotion	275	68.8%
17	Ensure secularism in the university	265	66.3%
18	Academic freedom	258	64.5%
19	Low/balanced workload	252	63.0%
20	Respecting academic staff	243	60.75%

As it is depicted in Table 5.34, the respondents suggested 20 factors that must be given due attention to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff. Almost, these suggestions are more or less the reverse actions of the factors that least satisfy academic staff members mentioned above. As it is shown in Table 5.34, the most important suggestions listed by the majority of the respondents to improve job satisfaction of the academic staff were improving the rate of payment per hour for extra work in the regular, continuing and distance teaching programmes 389 (97.5%). Based on this suggestion of the respondents, a checklist that can be used to prepare a

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guideline to ensure fair payment for instructors that participate in extra work in the regular, distance and continuing program are indicated in the recommendation part of this thesis. Other suggestions for improving job satisfaction of academic staff members were work on partnership with local and international partners 375 (93.8%), raise benefits and incentives 372 (93.0%), sufficient budget for research and community service 369 (92.3%), payment of different benefits on time 369 (92.3%), fair salary and continual salary raise 363 (90.8%), amending (revising) and enforcing existing academic rules and regulations 356 (89.0%), maintain minimum students in each classroom 338 (84.5%), continuous training for students on ethics and good behaviour 325 (81.3%), low taxation rate on salary and benefits 320 (80.0%), improving the infrastructure 319 (79.8%), sufficient resource supply (fulfilling lab equipment, instruments, raw materials and chemicals) 315 (78.8%), good leadership/governance 305(76.3%), ensuring open and healthy communication among the university community 295 (73.8%), fair further education opportunity provision 276 (69.0%), transparent and fair promotion 275 (68.8%). Additional actions recommended by the respondents were: ensure secularism in the university 265 (66.3%), academic freedom 258 (64.5%), low/balanced work load 252 (63.0%) and, finally respecting academic staff 243 (60.8%).

### **5.9 OTHER OPINIONS OF RESPONDENTS FROM THE OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS**

#### **5.9.1 Factors that mostly raise level of job satisfaction of academic staff members**

In the first open ended question, participants of the study were asked to mention the factors that lead them to job satisfaction. Factors that academic staff members found to be most satisfying were common across gender, age, experience, qualification and academic rank. Table 5.35 clearly depicts the factors that currently satisfy academic staff members most.

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**Table 5.35**

*Frequencies of factors that mostly raise job satisfaction, (n= 400)*

No	Factors	frequency	Percentage
1	No satisfying factors	268	67.0%
2	Further education opportunity	132	33.0%
3	Good infrastructure and greenery	132	33.0%
4	Promotion opportunities	128	32.0%
5	Good relationship between some devoted students and academic staff	128	32.0%
6	Staff professional commitment (love of the teaching profession)	126	31.5.0%
7	Provision of laptop for each staff member	125	31.3%
8	Low workload	124	31.0%
9	Cooperation and good communication between academic staff	114	28.5%
10	Opportunity for research and community service and incentive for publishing papers in reputable journals	105	26.3%
11	Good leadership	93	23.3%
12	Sufficient salary and incentives	61	15.3%

The satisfying factors identified by the respondents are centred within the university environment and the government. Table 5.35 reveals that most of the academic staff had strong negative views that there were no satisfying factors in their respective universities and this was stated by 268 (67.0%) of the respondents. The satisfying factors mentioned by other respondents who do not belong to the above group in sequential order were further education opportunity 132 (33.0%), good infrastructure and greenery 132 (33.0%), promotion opportunity 128 (32.0%), good relationship between some devoted students and academic staff 128 (32.0%), staff professional commitment (love of the teaching profession) 126 (31.5%), provision of laptops for each staff member 125 (31.3%), low workload 124 (31.0%), cooperation and good communication between academic staff 114 (28.5%), opportunity for research and community



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service and incentive for publishing papers in reputable journals 105 (26.3%), good leadership 93 (23.3%) and sufficient salary and incentives 61 (15.3%).

### 5.9.2 The effect of job dissatisfaction

The third open ended question which was raised to respondents was intended to get academic staff opinion on the different effects of job dissatisfaction. The responses are depicted in table 5.36.

**Table 5.36**

**Frequencies of effects of job dissatisfaction, ( $n= 400$ )**

No	Factor	Frequency	Percentage
1	Poor quality of education	388	97.0%
2	Low performance	371	92.8%
3	Poor quality of graduates	352	88.0%
4	Carelessness by academic staff members	339	84.8%
5	Failure to discharge responsibilities related to teaching, research and community service properly.	328	82.0%
6	Turnover/quitting the job	285	71.3%
7	Loss of senior staff	264	66.0%
8	Grievance	375	93.8%
9	Poor relationship/communication	269	67.3%
10	Insecure/unstable academic staff	260	65.0%

Table 5.36 indicates the ten factors that were related to effect of job dissatisfaction identified by academic staff. The top effects that were listed by respondents were: poor quality of education 388 (97.0%), low performance 371 (92.8%), poor quality of graduates 352 (88.0%), carelessness of academic staff members 339 (84.8%), failure to discharge responsibilities related to teaching, research and community service properly 328 (82.0%), turnover/quitting the job 285 (71.3%), loss of senior staff 264 (66.0%), grievance 375 (93.8%), poor relationship/communication 269 (67.3%) and finally insecure/unstable academic staff 260 (65.0%).

## **5.10 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

In this section, discussions on major findings of the study are presented in subsequent paragraph. Furthermore, the similarities, differences and uniqueness of the results of this study from other researchers' finding are discussed.

### **5.10.1 Level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their jobs**

#### ***5.10.1.1 Student' admission policy***

Academic staff members were satisfied with the students' admission policy in university in Ethiopia (see Table 5.5). Specifically, academic staff members were satisfied with the privilege given to students who are disadvantaged due to location and disabilities. This might come as a result of cognizance of the social service inequality, particularly education service delivery problems in the pastoral and emerging regions of the country and to the students who have different needs while they were in elementary and high schools. However, academic staff members were not happy with special educational needs students and students who came from emerging regions that achieved the lowest scores in the courses they are taught regardless of the special privilege given to them. This particular finding of satisfaction with student admission policy among academics was key outcome in this research. Similar findings cannot be found in the literature. Therefore, this study's finding is taken as valid contribution in filling the gap of knowledge in the area of satisfaction with university policy, particularly satisfaction with students' admission policy among academic staff in higher education institutions.

### ***5.10.1.2 Promotion policy***

The finding of this study indicated that academic staff members were satisfied with promotion (see Table 5.6). This finding is inconsistent with Seraj et al.'s (2014) study among academic staff in Iran, Byrne et al.'s (2012) study among academic staff in Ireland and Toker's (2011) study among academic staff members in Turkey. Satisfaction of academic staff in Ethiopian public universities might be caused by the possibility of promotion due to the easy nature of the criteria or due to easy policy to promote from a lower academic rank to a higher one.

### ***5.10.1.3 Students' discipline policy***

Academic staff members were dissatisfied with the students' discipline policy in universities in Ethiopia (see Table 5.7). Although there are student discipline policies and students are respecting their instructors, as is shown in Table 5.7 above, the most dissatisfying factors related to students' discipline were: leniency of the university leadership to take disciplinary action on misbehaving students, dependency of students on other students to do assignments and to write examinations, failure of some students not to attend classes regularly and the growing number of students with different disciplinary cases. This study result is inconsistent with Dave and Raval's (2014) study among MBA faculty members in India where they found satisfaction of academic staff with student interaction, students' IQ, student curiosity and eagerness to learn. Expansion of universities in different regions of Ethiopia and the establishment of corners surrounding universities where substance abuse and related criminal activities are taking place might contribute to negligence of students not to do individual and group assignments and the growing number of students with disciplinary problems which brought about dissatisfaction among academic staff members.

### ***5.10.1.4 University governance and support***

According to the results of this study, academic staff members were dissatisfied with university governance and support (see Table 5.8). Even though there was good infrastructure (electricity, internet, water and others) as confirmed by the majority of the respondents, key issues of dissatisfaction were failure of the leadership to engage academic staff in participatory decision-making, insufficient support given, unfair leadership, failure to provide sufficient resources required and, finally, insufficient budget allocation for academic, research and development activities and community services. Universities that are under-resourced and have poor leadership cannot be considered as functional and vibrant universities that can properly discharge their triple mandates (teaching-learning, research and community service). It is also very discouraging to work under such circumstances for the academic staff which will end up in job dissatisfaction. The finding of this study on the overall level of satisfaction with university governance and support is in support of the work of Seraj et al. (2014), where they found that academic staff in an Iranian university were dissatisfied with the quality of leadership and administration, Gardner (2012), where he found that academic staff in Land Grant University, USA, were dissatisfied with lack of resources to support faculty work and lack of consistent and quality leadership and, finally, with the results of the study by Noor (2013), where he found moderate satisfaction with government and universities' policies and support among academic staff in Malaysian Universities.

### ***5.10.1.5 Salary***

In a nutshell, respondents mentioned that they were dissatisfied with salaries. This implies that salary was not considered as a motivator towards satisfaction, more among university leaders. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education or the leadership had a problem trying to

improve the salary rate and salary raises for academic staff members due to an emerging economy. Some of the respondents raised issues regarding the unfair amount of salary for the work they do, lower rate of salary compared to other professional jobs, and incompatibility between salary raises with inflation rate as the main factors for their dissatisfaction with their salaries. It was indicated that respondents had dissatisfaction with salary (see Table 5.9). This finding supports similar outcomes of Seraj et al. (2014), Kim (2011), and Noor (2013), but is not in accordance with the findings of Ahmad and Abdurahman (2015), Johnson (2010), Wilson and Zhang (2010), Du and Lo (2010), Viet (2013), Gahfoor (2014), Jaffar et al. (2015), Naseem and Salman (2015), Tai and Chuang (2014), Dave and Raval (2014), Yoganandan and Sowndarya (2015) and Çavuş and Abdılđaev (2014), where they found that salary was the satisfying factor.

Moreover, this is consistent with the argument of Herzberg's (1971) Two Factor Theory in which the amount of hygiene factors for a worker affect job satisfaction. Hence the finding of the current study substantiates Herzberg's Theory that when the hygiene factor such as salary is not addressed properly, each of the academic staff members will not be satisfied. According to the two-factor theory, increasing satisfaction depends on the fulfilment of motivation factors. To decrease dissatisfaction, health care factors need to be improved. This result is also in conformity with Maslow's needs hierarchy that basic necessities need to be satisfied first before individuals satisfy higher needs, even if some individuals pursue higher level need satisfaction bypassing lower level need satisfaction.

The finding of current study corroborated the impact of the Ethiopian economic condition in determining the dissatisfaction with salary among university academic staff as it is visioning towards becoming one of the lower middle income countries. The importance of having a higher financial income had become one of the priorities among the academic staff members in

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developing countries such as Ethiopia. Although 25% of the national annual budget is allocated to the education sector and out of this 33.57% is allocated to higher education (MOE, 2015), academic staff salaries remain a debatable issue.

### ***5.10.1.6 Workload***

The result of this study regarding workload is dissatisfaction by academic staff (see Table 5.10). The reasons for this, as mentioned by the respondents, were the onerous task of extended paper work which includes correcting, marking and grading students' work and special tutorial programmes devoted to female students, to students from emerging regions and to low achievers as a remedial measure to fill their academic gap and deficiencies that demand extra time, energy and devotion by academic staff. This study supports the findings of Kim (2011), Mir (2012) and Byrne et al. (2012) where they found academic staff dissatisfaction with working condition in South Korean, Pakistan and Ireland universities respectively. However, this result is against the finding of Vuong and Duong (2013) where they found teaching load as a factor of satisfaction by academic staff in Vietnamese universities.

### ***5.10.1.7 Class size***

As per the results of this study academic staff members were dissatisfied with class size (see Table 5.11). Some of the reasons for this, as posited by the respondents, were failure to uphold the standard class size and instructor and student ratio which is mentioned in the Higher Education Proclamation and legislation. They are also dissatisfied with this aspect of their jobs because large numbers of students in a class severely affected the active learning method in universities that they are expected to use to make teaching and learning lively through it. As class size is one of the working conditions in universities, the result of this study supports the

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findings of Kim (2011), Mir (2012) and Byrne et al.(2012) where they found academic staff's dissatisfaction with working conditions in South Korean, Pakistan and Ireland universities respectively.

### ***5.10.1.8 Academic freedom***

Based on the result of this study the academic staff members were dissatisfied with their academic freedom (see Table 5.12). They emphasised that, regardless of the applicability of duties and responsibilities given to them by the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation in their work and the freedom they have to exercise thought, enquiry, conscience and expression, they are dissatisfied with the lack of freedom in decision making in academic affairs and the limited autonomy they are given as instructors. This result is inconsistent with Kim (2011) and Vuong and Duong (2013) where they found academic staff satisfaction with academic freedom in South Korean and Vietnamese universities.

The finding of this study is consistent with the argument of Herzberg's (1971) Two Factor Theory, in which the amount of motivating factors for a worker affect job satisfaction. The role of academic staff members should be enhanced so that they can take on more responsibilities and have greater opportunities to develop their expertise. They should be given opportunities and responsibilities for participation and development in decision-making respectively. These opportunities would allow academic staff members to gain practical training and increase their responsibilities, achievements, growth, and self-esteem that result in job satisfaction.

### ***5.10.1.9 Reward***

This study found that academic staff members were dissatisfied with the reward system in the universities (see Table 5.13). Contributing factors mentioned by the respondents were few rewards for best performers, unfair criteria used to screen the best performers among academic

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members, reprehensible reward practice and, finally, the reward received is not satisfactory when compared to the reward given in other organisations. The result of this study is consistent with the findings of Kanwal et al. (2015) and Yoganadan and Sowndarya (2015) where they found dissatisfaction of academic staff with reward in Pakistan and Indian universities. However, the results are inconsistent with the finding of Noor (2013) in which he found moderate satisfaction with contingent rewards among academic staff in Malaysia.

The finding of this study is also consistent with the argument of Herzberg's (1971) Two Factor Theory in which the amount of motivating factors for a worker affect job satisfaction. Therefore, a reasonable and fair reward system can encourage academic staff members to progress and to contribute to universities because reward remains important factor for academic staff members.

### ***5.10.1.10 Communication***

Interpersonal communication among different parties in universities is vital as teaching learning, research and community service demand collective action and interactions between different members in universities. Especially meaningful communication between academic staff members and leaders at different post is invaluable. In this study it was found that academic staff members were satisfied with their interpersonal communication. However, they were dissatisfied with lack of encouragement for open communication by the president, absence of harmonious superior/subordinate relationships and unfriendly relationships between academic staff and leaders (see Table 5.14). This finding is inconsistent with those of other researchers such as Noor (2013), Vuong and Duong (2013), Gahfoor (2014), Jaffar et al. (2015) and Naseem and Salman (2015), Dave and Raval (2014), Vasita and Prajapati (2014), and Cavus and Abdildaev (2014) where they found communication or colleague academic interaction and social relationships as



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factors for job satisfaction of academic staff among Malaysian, Vietnamese, Pakistani, Indian and Turkey universities respectively.

### ***5.10.1.11 Students' achievement***

Academic staff in this study indicated that they were dissatisfied with students' achievement in the subjects they taught (see Table 5.15). They have found the curriculum and assessment policy appropriate and they are also happy with students who get pass marks in the subjects they teach. Contrary to this, they indicated that large numbers of students in a class have made exam administration difficult. Moreover, although students got pass marks in the end, they were not willing to do different academic work given to them as individuals and as a group. Consequently the employment rate of graduates was not satisfactory to the academic staff members. All of these three factors have led academic staff to feel dissatisfaction with students' achievement. Similar findings cannot be found in the literature. Therefore, this study's finding is considered as an important contribution in the area of dissatisfaction with students' achievement among academic staff in higher education institutions.

### **5.10.2 Significant difference in level of job satisfaction between different demographic groups**

#### ***5.10.2.1 Differences in satisfaction with students' admission policy***

ANOVA result shows that academic staff members that were 40-52 years of age were more dissatisfied than the other age groups (see Table 5.17). Moreover, from the t-test findings of the study, there were statistical differences in satisfaction with students' admission policy among PhD degree holders than the master's degree holders (see Table 5.20). This might be due to the appreciation of the students' admission policy by the academic staff members with PhD degree. Similar findings cannot be found in the literature. Therefore, this study's finding can be taken as an important contribution in the area of satisfaction with students' admission policy among academic staff members in higher education institutions. The eta squared result for the 40-52 years of age group was 0.02 and the result for PhD degree holders was 0.20 which show low and high practical effect respectively.

#### ***5.10.2.2 Differences in satisfaction with promotion policy***

From the t-test findings of the study, males were statistically significantly more satisfied with promotion policy than females (see Table 5.16) which yielded the same outcome as Byrne et al. (2012), Noor (2013), Vuong & Duong (2013), Bataineh (2014) and Ghafoor (2014). The reality in the Ethiopian context shows that statistically males are dominant among university staff including academic staff members in public universities. According to the national education abstract, the Ethiopian male academic staff constituted 89.82% compared with female academic staff (MOE, 2015).

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Therefore, it is not astonishing to find female being less satisfied in terms of promotion in the Ethiopian context, as the wrong attitude that men are always more capable of being a leader or do difficult jobs better is not totally eroded. In addition to this, the pool of female academic is small which hinders their participation to compete with male academic staff in any promotional opportunity. Absence of or a minimum number of role model female leaders in top leadership positions in universities could also be one of the factors. According to Education Sector Development plan V, in the Ethiopian context there was only one female president in one of the public universities (MOE, 2015). All of these might have contributed to problems of positional and professional advancement of females which results in low satisfaction with promotion on the part of females. Moreover, the result of this study shows significance differences in satisfaction with promotion policy among academic staff members who have PhD degree than the academic staff members with master's degree. Nonetheless, the eta squared calculated were 0.3 for female academic staff members and 0.27 for PhD degree holders which imply that the differences have high practical effect.

### *5.10.2.3 Differences in satisfaction with students' discipline policy*

With regard to differences in dissatisfaction level with students' discipline, t-test result shows that females were more dissatisfied than their counter parts (see Table 5.16). Moreover, ANOVA result shows that academic staff members that were lecturers were statistically and significantly more dissatisfied with students' discipline policy than the associate professors (see Table 5.24). This might be due to the failure of young academic staff to tolerate some of the misbehaviours of some students. Similar findings cannot be found in the literature. Therefore, this study's finding can be taken as an important contribution in the area of dissatisfaction with university policy, particularly dissatisfaction with students' discipline policy among academic

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staff members in higher education institutions. Eta squared results were -0.4 for female group and 0.01 for lecturers group which imply that the differences have high and low practical effects respectively.

### ***5.10.2.4 Differences in satisfaction with university governance and support***

From the findings of this study, female academic staff members and academic staff members with master's degrees were significantly more dissatisfied with university governance and support than the other groups (see Table 5.16 & Table 5.20). This might result from the positive feelings that lecturers had on governance and the support given to them by their universities, cognizant of the low economic status of the country and visioning the bright future they have. This result is different from Noor (2013) who found no statistical significant difference in satisfaction with government and university policies and support among different gender groups. However, he found that there was a statistically significant difference in satisfaction with government and university policies and support among academic staff whose ages were between 46 and 55 years than in the other group.

Moreover, the findings of this study show that lecturers were more dissatisfied than assistant professors (see Table 5.24). Eta squared results were below -0.5, -0.39 and 0.02 which imply that the differences have high practical effect for female group and master's degrees holders and low practical impact for lecturers group respectively.

### ***5.10.2.5 Significant differences in satisfaction with salary***

As far as differences in the satisfaction level with salary, females were more dissatisfied than males (see Table 5.16) and this supports the finding of Hagos and Abrha (2015), a study which was conducted in one of the universities in Ethiopia but went against the outcomes of Kim (2011), Bozeman and Gaughan (2011), Sajjadi et al. (2013), Ghafoor (2014), Byrne et al. (2012), Noor (2013), Vuong and Duong (2013), Bataineh (2014) and Ghafoor (2014). The finding of this study is also consistent with the argument of Herzberg's (1971) Two Factor Theory in which the

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amount of hygiene factors for worker affect job dissatisfaction. There were no variations in terms of salary paid to both male and female academic staff members in Ethiopian universities. However, as per the results of this study, females tend to be more dissatisfied because of the leniency of different leaders to take the affirmative actions that would have given them the opportunity to get a position in universities to get additional benefits from the universities.

This study revealed significant difference in dissatisfaction with salary among 53-60 years of age group of academic staff (see Table 5.17) which is against the results of Toker (2011), Noor (2013), Bataineh (2014) and Kim (2011) in which older academic staff members were found to be more satisfied than the younger ones. This result in Ethiopian public universities may be due to the minimum amount of salary paid to all age groups that bring no differences in satisfaction level among the academic staff members.

Academic staff members that have six and less years of teaching experience were significantly more dissatisfied with salary than the other experience groups (see Table 5.21). This might be due to the expectation of this group to get high salary after the vast opportunity created for the younger generation to get employment particularly in the second and third generation universities here in the country.

Finally, associate professors were significantly more dissatisfied with salary than lecturers (see Table 5.24) and this might be due to the fact that most of the associate professors had more experience and have not accepted the salary scale, recently introduced to universities, which was relatively higher compared to the previous salary. Other studies indicated that lower-ranked academic staff members were less satisfied with their jobs than higher-ranked staff; professors were more satisfied with their jobs than associate professors, assistant professors and

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lecturers (Gahfoor, 2014; Bataineh, 2014 & Byrne, 2012). In all cases eta squared calculated was 0.1 for age and 0.03 for rank which implies low practical effect.

### ***5.10.2.6 Difference in satisfaction with workload***

With regard to difference in satisfaction with workload, female academic staff members were significantly more dissatisfied than male academic staff (see Table 5.16). Moreover, academic staff members that were master's degree holders and academic staff members that were lecturers were significantly dissatisfied with workload than the other groups (see Table 5.20 and Table 5.24). These differences might result due to the problems of females to balance their work and life responsibilities vested in them both at home and work place and lecturers might be bored of the different teaching research and community service activities as they are having low work experience in universities. The eta squared calculated was below -0.22, -0.25 and 0.03 for female, master's degree holders and lecturers groups which imply high practical effect.

### ***5.10.2.7 Differences in dissatisfaction with class size***

Regarding gender differences with class size, lecturers were significantly more dissatisfied with class size than assistant professors (see Table 5.24). This might be due to the lack of tolerance to maintain normal work and life balance by lectures that hinder their effectiveness related to teaching-learning where there is relatively high number of students with in a class room.

### ***5.10.2.8 Differences in satisfaction with academic freedom***

Regarding rank group differences, lectures were significantly more dissatisfied with academic freedom than assistant professors (see Table 5.24). This might be due to the absence of support that is given to assistant professors to exercise their academic freedom based on the provisions of the Higher Education Proclamation that clearly specifies the right and responsibilities of academic staff related to teaching-learning, research and community service. The eta squared calculated was below 0.02 which implies low practical effect.

### ***5.10.2.9 Differences in satisfaction with reward***

Concerning differences in reward satisfaction, the findings of this study showed that males were more dissatisfied than females (see Table 5.16). Female academic staff members may think that they were getting more rewards and benefits, cognizant of the burden of dual responsibility they have at home and in the work place in the Ethiopian context. The eta squared calculated was below 0.32 which implies high practical effect.

### ***5.10.2.10 Differences in satisfaction with communication***

Provision of quality education, conducting research and doing community service requires proper communication among the different parties in universities. In this study it was found that males and academic staff members that had 26 years and above years were significantly more dissatisfied with communication than their counter parts (see Table 5.16 and Table 5.21). This difference may be due to the capability of males and academic staff members with high experience to have better relationships with different co-workers in universities than the other groups. This result is different from the result of Saygi et al. (2011), where they found females to entertain a higher level of satisfaction with staff members they work with than male members in

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Turkish universities. Contrary to this, Noor (2013) found that females were more satisfied than males with communication. The eta squared calculated was below -0.38 for gender which implies high practical effect.

### ***5.10.2.11 Differences in satisfaction with students' achievement***

With regard to gender, females were significantly more dissatisfied than male colleagues (see Table 5.16). This might be due to differences in achievement level of students in the subjects that females taught students than the subjects taught by male academic staff members. Moreover, students' achieve may not be satisfactory after the female academic staff treated the students as a mother and provide more advice to students to work hard not only to score good grades but also to be competent in the world of work after graduation. Similar findings cannot be found in the literature. Therefore, this study's finding is taken as an important contribution in the area of job dissatisfaction with students' achievement among academic staff in universities. The eta squared calculated was below -0.62 which implies high practical effect.

### **5.10.3 Correlation of the variables that affect job satisfaction**

As indicated in Table 5.31, all the nine variables were significantly correlated with job satisfaction. The correlations of these variables were both positive and negative which means as one variable increases, job satisfaction also increases and vice versa. The correlation between university governance and support and job satisfaction was high ( $r=0.19$ ). This suggests that dissatisfaction with students' discipline play a relatively high significant role in shaping the job dissatisfaction of academic staff members in Ethiopian universities.



### **5.10.4 Overall job satisfaction of academic staff**

Regarding the overall job satisfaction of academic staff, nearly 73.3% of the academic staff confirmed dissatisfaction (see Table 5.32). This implies that most of the academic staff members were not satisfied with most of the factors related to their jobs in their respective universities.

### **5.10.5 Factors that least satisfy academic staff**

According to the statements of the respondents in the open ended questions, the factors that were causing least satisfaction to academic staff were evident through the various groups and the working place of academic staff. Out of the 20 factors stated (see Table 5.33), the top five factors mentioned by the academic staff in their degree of influence were: low salary, incentives and benefits, unfair payment for extra work in the regular, distance and continuing programme, poor achievement of students and limited linkage/partnership with international universities and local organizations. Some of the results are consistent with the results of the close ended response discussed elsewhere in this study.

### **5.10.6 Some of the actions suggested by respondent to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff**

In Part IV of the open-ended questions, in addition to the question posed to respondents to state the factors that caused least satisfaction with their jobs, which was discussed in the previous section, they were also asked to state the factors that currently satisfy them in their work places, the effect of job dissatisfaction and finally their views on the actions that should be taken to improve or raise job satisfaction of academic staff in the future.

As mentioned in Table 5.35, the factors that currently satisfy job satisfaction of academic staff members were evident across all groups of respondents. These factors were related to the

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university work environment and the government. Among the twelve factors mentioned, the top five were: No satisfying factors, further education opportunity, good infrastructure and greenery, promotion opportunity and good relationship with some devoted students and academic staffs.

With respect to the effects that job dissatisfaction has, the responses of academic staff (see Table 5.36) were not specific to any group but they were common to most academic staff across all groups. The ten factors included were: poor quality of education, low performance, poor quality of graduates, carelessness of the academic staff members, failure to discharge responsibilities related to teaching research and community service properly, turnover/quitting the job, loss of senior staff, grievances, poor communication and insecure/unstable academic staff. The effects mentioned above are detrimental to both the individual academic staff members, and to the universities and to the society unless corrective action is not taken timely.

Finally, regarding the actions that can be taken to raise job satisfaction levels of academic staff, they cited an improvement in the rate of payment per hour for the extra hours of work done in the regular, continuing and distance teaching programmes; work on partnerships with local and international partners particularly with universities, raising benefits and incentives, allocation of sufficient budget for research and community service, payment of different benefits on time and fair salary and continual salary raises, , (see Table 5.34). In addition, academic staff identified the following actions to be taken to improve job satisfaction of academic staff members in universities:

- Amending/revising and then enforcing the current academic rules and regulations.
- Maintain minimum students in each classroom. This is possible by adhering strictly to the standard class size set in the harmonized legislation for universities.
- Provision of continual training to students on ethics and good behaviour to be exhibited.

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- Minimize the taxation rate on salary and benefits.
- Improve the infrastructure such as internet, greenery, walkways, water, electricity and health break facilities.
- A favourable work environment to conduct teaching by ameliorating resource supply like laboratory chemicals and equipment, instruments and raw materials.
- Enhance good leadership by assigning experienced, qualified and hard-working leaders.
- Ensure open and healthy communication among the university community members.
- Ensure fair further education opportunities provision for academic staff.
- Ensuring transparent and fair promotion.
- Properly work on implementing the principle of secularism in universities.
- Ensure academic freedom.
- Ensure low/balanced workload to academic staff.
- Finally respecting of academic staff

### 5.11 CONCLUSION

The chapter indicated the results of this study. Based on the results, it showed the general effect that the different factors had on the job satisfaction of academic staff. It also emphasised on the impacts that job dissatisfaction had on academic staff and how these effects impacted on different aspects of human and work related issues at universities. Based on the results of the study, urgent interventions needed were suggested to be taken by the government to improve job satisfaction of academic staff in order to discharge the triple mandates of universities.

The summary of the study findings, conclusions and recommendations are briefly indicated in the chapter that follows. Moreover, contribution and limitations of the study are shown.

**CHAPTER 6**

**SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND  
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

**6.1 INTRODUCTION**

There is little doubt that academic staff members are number one resources in universities to ensure the proper accomplishments of the triple mission of universities. Cognizant of this fact, many universities strive for assuring academic staff members' job satisfaction but not all of them are attaining this goal, particularly in the Ethiopian context. That was why this study was undertaken to investigate the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities and how this could be improved which was the aim of the study.

This chapter presents the summary of the study undertaken, research findings and conclusions, recommendations from the study, contributions of the study, limitations of the study, avenues for further research and concluding remarks of the study. The summary presents the gist of the whole study from chapter one to chapter six which is followed by a discussion of the research findings and conclusions that emerged from the literature review and the empirical investigation. Moreover, conclusions are drawn from the literature review and the empirical study and key recommendations are made in view of the findings on how job satisfaction of academic staff members of public universities in Ethiopia may be improved. Contributions of the study, limitations of the study, avenues for further research and concluding remarks are also indicated towards the end of this chapter.

### 6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

As it is shown in Chapter 1 (cf. Chapter 1.1), many problems in the teaching-learning process were mentioned. Some of the academic staff in the universities were fresh graduates and did not have experience in teaching university students. Both senior and fresh academic staff members were complaining about the working environment, the number of academic staff leaving the universities were increasing from time to time and there were misbehaviours observed among some academic staff members. For instance they were not attending meetings and trainings hosted by the universities, some of them were working for other institutions of higher education or industries to get additional income, they did not conduct continuous assessment, tutorial programmes for low achievers and for female students were not taking place, and advisory and supervisory services to students were not provided. There were also “*some academic staff who do not make necessary preparation for teaching and learning and who were absent from class particularly in the afternoon*” (Ministry of Education b, 2015:13-14). Hence the status of job satisfaction of academic staff needs to be assessed and improved to bring them on board. This was the main reason to launch this research. Based on this, the main research question is: ‘What is the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities and how can this be improved?’(cf. Chapter 1.3) and from this research question, sub-research questions were formulated as a stepping stone to conduct the study: (cf. Chapter 1.4). The eight sub-research questions posed that required exploring existing literature and testing through data collection and analysis were the following:

- What are the relevant theories on job satisfaction? (addressed in Chapter 2)
- What is the current state (according to research results) of job satisfaction in the working place among academic staff in various countries? (addressed in Chapter 3)

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- What is the level of job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia with regard to various aspects of their job?
- What are the differences in level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities with regard to demographic factors such as gender, age, experience, qualification and academic rank?
- What are the correlations between the different factors and job satisfaction?
- Which aspects of their jobs give academic staff the least job satisfaction?
- What is the level of overall job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia?
- What can be introduced to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities?

Chapter 1 outlined the introductory framework for the research. This chapter focused on the introduction to Chapter 1 (cf. Chapter 1.1), background to the study (cf. Chapter 1.2), the research problem (cf. Chapter 1.3), aims and objectives of the study (cf. Chapter 1.4), the research methodology (cf. Chapter 1.5) reliability and validity of the study (cf. Chapter 1.6), ethical issue considered in the study (cf. Chapter 1.7), chapter division (cf. Chapter 1.8), contribution of the study (cf. Chapter 1.9), definition of key terms (cf. Chapter 1.10) and summary of chapter 1 were discussed at the end of this chapter.

Chapter 2 focused on the theoretical framework for this study which outlined introduction to Chapter 2 (cf. Chapter 2.1), the concept of job satisfaction (cf. Chapter 2.2), the different theories of job satisfaction categorized under content (needs) theories that included Maslow's Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) Theory, McClelland's Need Theory, McGregor's Theory X and Y, and Process Theories that Included

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Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, Self-Efficacy Theory, Value Theory, Job Characteristics Theory and Reinforcement Theory (cf. Chapter 2.3). Among all the theories that have been linked to this study, the study mainly refers to Herzberg's Two-Factor (Hygiene-Motivator) Theory as a means to highlight several key factors of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities.

Chapter 3 outlined job satisfaction among university academic staff in various countries. Major subtopics discussed under Chapter 3 were: factors that affect job satisfaction in the working force in general and in universities in particular (cf. Chapter 3.2), factors relating to job satisfaction among academic staff in a few selected countries (cf. Chapter 3.3), factors relating to job dissatisfaction among academic staff in a few selected countries (cf. Chapter 3.4), the relation of demographic factors on job satisfaction (cf. Chapter 3.5), and possible factors affecting job satisfaction among university academic staff in Ethiopia (cf. Chapter 3.6). Earlier studies were not able to provide complete and deep information concerning job satisfaction among academic staff. Student discipline and student achievement were not taken into consideration as factors of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Moreover, the studies carried out in Ethiopia were also limited in scope and focus. Therefore under this chapter it was mentioned that this study would try to fill these gaps as much as possible. Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 were mainly focused on addressing research questions one and two posed in this study. More specifically, what is mentioned above is clearly related to address the first two sub-research questions asked which posed the following two questions: What are the relevant theories on job satisfaction? What is the current state (according to research results) of job satisfaction in the working place among academic staff in various countries? (cf. Chapter 1.3).

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Chapter 4 dealt with the research design and methodology. The different subtopics addressed in this chapter include: research design in which the research paradigm and approach (cf. Chapter 4.2), population and sampling (cf. Chapter 4.3), and ethical considerations (cf. Chapter 4.4) included. In addition, the chapter includes the data collection instruments and variables in which the quantitative research approach using a five scale questionnaire was used to address the objective of the study (cf. Chapter 4.5), and the pilot testing procedure and the result (cf. Chapter 4.6). Data collection procedure (cf. Chapter 4.7), data analysis and presentation (cf. Chapter 4.8), validity, reliability, objectivity and generalizability of the study (cf. Chapter 4.9) were discussed in detail in this chapter. The validity, reliability and ethical consideration were discussed in order to ensure that this study followed the ethical standards set forth by the University of South Africa and other relevant issues.

Chapter 5 focused on the empirical analysis of data collected from respondents by means of a Likert-scale questionnaire. The data collection was intended to address the sub-research questions stated (cf. Chapter 1.4). Pilot testing was conducted and necessary adjustments were made after editing the questionnaire. In addition, the data gathered from the Likert-scale questionnaire was subjected to Cronbach's alpha estimates and inter-item correlations in order to test structural validity and reliability. The final data collected was processed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Biographical data was presented in the form of tables from which explanations of the findings were presented (cf. Chapter 5.2).

The data obtained from the Likert-scale questionnaires was presented and analysed. The data presentation and analysis followed the same sequence of the sub-research questions posed in question 3 to 8. The chapter identified the major issues that are related to dissatisfaction and satisfaction of academic staff which emerged from the respondents in the public universities. The



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biographical data of the respondents was analysed (cf. 5.2), level of job satisfaction of academic staff with different aspects of their jobs were discussed (cf. 5.3), test results for significance between different groups were identified (cf. 5.4), the test for correlation between the different variables and job satisfaction was examined (cf. 5.5) and overall levels of job satisfaction, factors that least satisfy, that most satisfy and actions to be taken to improve job satisfaction were also identified in subsequent sections (cf. 5.6, 5.7, 5.8 & 5.9).

The analysis of the data gathered particularly from respondents using the open ended questions resulted in identifying the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction of academic staff members. The factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction as identified by the respondents were: Inadequate infrastructure, educational material and facilities, low salary, incentives and benefits, poor leadership, unfair payment for extra work in regular, distance and continuing programmes, students disciplinary problem, too much tax from salary and benefits, poor educational material supply, poor achievement of students, delayed payments of allowances for extra work, limited linkage/partnership with international universities and local organizations, unfair education opportunity provision, staff discrimination in position assignment and promotion, poor communication, disrespecting academic staff, workload, lack of academic freedom, large class size, shortage of finance/budget for research and community service, office politics, and finally difficult rules and regulations including legislation. These suggestions by respondents and other results from the study were used to develop the actions, indicated under recommendations of the study, that need to be taken to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff members in public universities in Ethiopia.

Chapter six examined the results and aligned the discussion with the sub-questions of this research. The chapter also offered a detailed summary of the whole study which is

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followed by the findings and the conclusions drawn from literature review and the empirical study, recommendations from the study, contributions of the study, limitations of the study, avenues for further research, and concluding remarks.

### **6.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS**

#### **6.3.1 Introduction**

In this section of the study, the summary of findings of the study is discussed. In doing so, the sub-research questions are taken into consideration. This discussion helps to make a comparison and integrate the findings from chapter 2 and Chapter 3 with the findings in Chapter 5 in order to identify the relationship between the literature reviewed and the data gathered from respondents. This ended up with recommendations with regard to the actions to be taken to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff members of public universities. Following the same order of the research sub-questions, the findings of this study are presented as follows.

#### **6.3.2 Major findings related to research question 3: What is the level of job satisfaction among academic staff with regard to various aspects of their jobs?**

The academic staff members' response was nearly divided in two equal parts with university policies that included four constructs: students' admission policy, promotion policy, students' discipline policy and university governance and support. However, overall academic staff members felt dissatisfied with working conditions that included seven constructs: salary, workload, class size, academic freedom, reward, students' achievement and communication (cf. Table 5.4 under paragraph 5.3.2).

With regard to satisfaction with university policies, the academic staff members were satisfied with the admission of students with special educational needs and students from

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emerging regions that were disadvantaged due to their location and the poor economy when they were in high schools. Nevertheless, they felt dissatisfied with the poor academic performance of these students (cf. Table 5.5).

From the results depicted in Table 5.6 under section 5.3.3, it can be deduced that the academic staff were satisfied with the promotion policy: The opportunity for promotion is open to any academic staff member that satisfies the promotion requirements and there was also the prospect of carrier advancement opportunity through the scholarship given to them to pursue a PhD degree, postdoctoral training and fellowship.

Regarding students' discipline policy, academic staff members believed that the presence of a student discipline policy and the respect that students show to their instructors is satisfactory (cf. Table 5.7). However, they were dissatisfied with the leniency of university leaders with students who have disciplinary problems, an alarming increase of cases of students with disciplinary problems, failure of students not to be self-dependent to write assignments and examinations and the manifestation of students not to attend classes regularly were increasing.

The finding in Table 5.8 highlighted academic staff members' opinion regarding university governance policy and support. Academic staff members relatively felt happy with the infrastructure of the university including electricity, internet, water and others. However they were dissatisfied with the failure of university leaders to engage academic staff in participatory decision-making, failure to support academic staff in some aspects and failure to act as a good example of a fair leader. Other dissatisfactory factors include insufficient resource supply and scarcity of budget allocated for achieving the triple mandates of universities.

Regarding salary, as highlighted in Table 5.9, academic staff members felt that they were not being paid fairly for the onerous work they do. They were dissatisfied with the fact that their

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salary is not comparable to other professional jobs, and with the low salary raises that do not keep up with the ever changing inflation rate in the country. Thus, under such a discouraging environment academic staff members will not be motivated to discharge their responsibilities.

In terms of job satisfaction of academic staff members in relation to workload as shown in Table 5.10, academic staff members believed that their workload was high. Contributing factors identified by them were tiresome paper work when correcting, marking and grading student work and the special tutorial programmes for female students and low achievers perceived as an unnecessary additional burden by them. Many academic staff members were dissatisfied not only with their heavy workloads but also with class size (cf. Table 5.11). Most academic staff members thought that the number of students that they teach in class was above the minimum class size determined in legislation and the minimum standard of instructor and student ratio which is 1:20 was not maintained. Consequently active learning implementation became difficult for academic staff members.

As it is shown in Table 5.12, overall academic staff members were not satisfied with the academic freedom they had because the freedom to make decisions related to education was not fair and consequently they felt that they were not autonomous as an instructor. Nonetheless, they have found that the duties and responsibilities vested by the higher education proclamation were applicable and they have freedom to exercise thought, enquiry, conscience and expression to some extent.

The academic staff members' views corroborated that there were few rewards for best performers in their respective universities. However, they were not happy with the criteria used to screen best performers and they felt that the reward given was not meritorious. Furthermore, they felt that the benefits they receive were not as good as most other organizations offer (cf.

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Table 5.13). This negative academic staff members attitude towards the reward and benefit system led to dissatisfaction.

As it is shown in Table 5.14, academic staff members did not view their presidents to be active in encouraging open communication among the university community. Academic staff members did not also find the superior-subordinate communication to be harmonious and they found that the communication between academic staff and leaders was not friendly. Nonetheless, they enjoyed pleasant communication with the academic staff they work with.

Lastly as it is shown in Table 5.15, overall academic staff members were dissatisfied with students' achievement due to difficulty of administering examinations in large classes, and lack of interest on the part of students to do different academic work, which may result in dependency on other students to write their assignments and examinations, and high unemployment rate of graduates. The academic staff members were satisfied by the curriculum, assessment policy and the minimum pass mark obtained by the students in universities.

### **6.3.3 Major findings related to research question 4: What are the differences in level of job satisfaction among academic staff with regard to demographic factors?**

The t-test results in Table 5.16 show that male academic staff members were more satisfied with promotion policy and they were more dissatisfied with reward than female academic staff members. However, female academic staff members were more dissatisfied with students' discipline policy, university governance and support, salary, workload, communication and students' achievement than males. There were no significant differences among the two genders with admission policy, class size and academic freedom.

Regarding age, Tukey HSD test results that followed ANOVA results found more satisfaction with students' admission policy among the 40-52 years age group than academic

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staff members with 53-60 years of age and more dissatisfaction with salary among the 26 years and less age group than the 40-52 years age group. ANOVA results found no significance differences in satisfaction levels of academic staff members among different age groups with the other nine constructs (cf. Table 5.17).

Another t-test results in Table 5.18 show that PhD degree holders were more satisfied with student admission policy and promotion policy than master's degree holders, whereas, Master's degree holders were more dissatisfied with university governance and support and workload than PhD degree holders. T-test results found no significance differences in satisfaction levels of academic staff members among different qualification groups with the other seven constructs.

In terms of academic staff members' work experience as instructors, ANOVA test results show that academic staff members with six and less years of experience were found to be more dissatisfied with their salary than academic staff members with 26 and above years of experience (cf. Table 5.21). Furthermore, the result shows that academic staff members with 26 years and above experience were found to be more dissatisfied with their communication than those with 6 and less years of experience (cf. Table 5.21). With regard to academic rank, the result revealed that lecturers were significantly more dissatisfied with their students' discipline policy, university governance, workload, class size and academic freedom than assistant professors and associate professors (cf. Table 5.24). Associate professors were more dissatisfied with salary than the other rank groups. Being a holder of high academic rank may impact negatively on satisfaction. Contrary to this, there was no significant difference in level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with students' admission policy, promotion policy, reward, communication and students' achievement among academic staff members.

### **6.3.4 Major findings related to research question 5: What are the significant correlations between the different factors and job satisfaction?**

As indicated in Table 5.26, Pearson correlation results showed that there were significant correlations between the eight variables and job satisfaction of academic staff members. The correlations between job satisfaction and students' admission policy, students' discipline policy, university governance and support, salary, class size, academic freedom and communication were significant on the 0.01 level. Moreover, the correlations between job satisfaction and the other eight variables were significant on the 0.05 level. The correlations between job satisfaction and the eight constructs were positive and low. Dissatisfaction with communication was with the highest correlation result and plays a highly significant role in determining the job satisfaction of academic staff members.

### **6.3.5 Major findings related to research question 6: What is the level of overall job satisfaction of academic staff?**

Regarding the overall level of job satisfaction of academic staff members in the public universities, the majority of them replied 'dissatisfaction' (cf. Table 5.32). This result is consistent with results discussed under section 5.3 where academic staff expressed their dissatisfaction with nine job related factors out of eleven. Related to this, academic staff members were asked to mention the effect of job dissatisfaction in the open ended questions. Out of the ten effects mentioned, the highest effect mentioned was poor quality of education (cf. Table 5.36 for the rest of the effects mentioned).

### **6.3.6 Major findings related to research question 7: Which aspects of their job give academic staff the least job satisfaction?**

One of the open ended questions was intended to solicit information on which aspects of academic staff members' jobs gave them the least satisfaction. The responses summarized using thematic method showed that least satisfaction was related to 20 aspects of their job. The top two aspects of their jobs that mostly brought least satisfaction to them were: Low salary, unfair payment for extra work in the regular continuing and distance programmes (cf. Table 5.33 for the rest of the 18 factors mentioned). Contrary to this, academic staff members were asked to mention the factors that currently satisfy them in their work areas. They stated twelve factors in response to this question. Out of these, the top factor mentioned was no satisfying factors (cf. Table 5.35 for the rest of the factors mentioned).

### **6.3.7 Major findings related to research question 8: What can be introduced to improve job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities?**

In the open ended questions the respondents were asked to state the factors that need immediate actions to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff in universities. The responses were organised under twenty thematic areas. As shown in Table 5.30, out of these the first suggestion of respondents to improve job satisfaction was improving the rate of payment per hour for extra work in the regular, continuing and distance teaching programmes (cf. Table 5.30 for the rest of the factors mentioned). They have also listed all the tasks that needs to be considered when improvement of payment for extra work they do. The list of tasks was included in the check list recommended to be used in guideline preparation.



### **6.3.8 Conclusions**

It is clear from the above mentioned findings that the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 and the results of responses from respondents in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 are associated with the sub-research questions structured in Chapter 1 of this study. This implies that the study has tried to achieve the research goal by answering the main research question posed at the outset. Following are the recommendations regarding the sub-research questions.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.4.1 Introduction**

A quantitative survey was selected to carry out this study as it provides freedom to the respondents to use their conscience and write what they feel is appropriate to address the problems related to job satisfaction of academic staff members. Based on the reviewed literature, field survey empirical data and the above mentioned findings, major recommendations were pointed out. In this section of the study clear and structured recommendations regarding each of the sub-research questions are identified. The recommendations are set out to assist the enhancement of job satisfaction of academic staff members in the public universities in Ethiopia by taking immediate action. The recommendations include those related to implications for practice, improving the existing policy documents and introducing new policies that enhance job satisfaction of academic staff members to perform the triple mandates, i.e. teaching-learning, research and community service, effectively in universities. The recommendations are expected to be enacted and applied by policy-makers, university boards and/or university leaders and relevant others.

### **6.4.2 Recommendations for improving job satisfaction levels of academic staff members**

#### ***6.4.2.1 Improving student admission policy and the support to students***

In all of the Ethiopian public universities, as one aspect of affirmative action, the Ministry of Education, through the National Educational Assessment and Examination Agency (NEAEA), carry out the placement of students including the students from emerging regions, female students and students with special needs in universities by following special entry criteria such as lower university entrance examination results than the minimum cut-off point required for other students. This privilege is given to these groups of students because they were disadvantaged during their high school education where resources and experienced teachers are lacking. As it is mentioned under par. 3.6.2.1 above, once these students are admitted, universities are expected to support them with money, educational materials, awareness creation training and consultation. In addition to these, special tutorial programmes must be organized by academic staff members further to the regular time allotted for each subject to assist the students to be successful academically. However, in this study, these students were found to be least achievers in universities. Consequently academic staff members' were dissatisfied with this.

To alleviate this problem and enhance job satisfaction of academic staff, the tutorial programme provision and the incentives given to the academic staff members need to be revised. First of all, the department heads should be responsible to organise, prepare schedule and supervise the provision of the tutorial programme for these students in each subject. Second, the academic staff members should be aware about the problems of these students and be committed to actively engage in the tutorial programme. Third, there should be payment to academic staff members involved in the tutorial programme regardless of the total workload they have. Fourth, the Ministry of Education should prepare a comprehensive guideline on provision of tutorial

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programmes that can be applied uniformly in all public universities in Ethiopia. Moreover, placement of special needs students in relatively well established universities such as the first generation universities that would accommodate the educational and other needs of the students are crucial. The recently built universities do not have the infrastructure and facilities that can meet the interest of students with disabilities. Above all improving the admission criteria to admit students with special needs and students who came from emerging regions by taking similar and minimum cut-off point required for other normal students is invaluable. Moreover empowerment of such students should start at high school level by supporting the schools with all the facilities, equipment and other resources required.

### ***6.4.2.2 Improving promotion policy of academic staff***

Regarding promotion, the finding of this study showed that academic staff members were satisfied with promotion (cf. Table 5.6). However, in the open ended question in which respondents were asked to mention factors that lead to least job satisfaction, most of the respondents mentioned that there was staff discrimination in promotion (cf. Table 5.33). Academic staff members who would like to get promotion had two avenues, namely promotion through change of qualification or through satisfying other requirements set in the harmonized university legislation to get promotion up to the level of professor rank both master's degree holders and PhD holders. The criteria include the length of service with a given rank, effectiveness in teaching, publications in reputable journal, participation in the affairs of the university and service given to the public at various capacities (MOE, 2012:25). One of such service given to the public is working in one of the management position. Therefore, least job satisfaction of academic staff might be caused by the stringent nature of the requirements for promotion, particularly the need to work in any management position for some times. All

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academic staff members cannot have the opportunity to work in any management position or some of them might not be willing to work in these positions; as a result this might create problems for academic staff members not to get promotions.

As a remedy to this problem, the academic staff members' promotion policy needs to be restructured to accommodate criteria that are directly related to the triple mandates of academic staff members to give equal opportunity to all academic staff members to compete for promotion. Moreover, the career structure of promotion in the promotion policy which is limited to seven tiers starting with graduate assistant I and ending with professor should be increased to at least nine tiers by introducing new titles after professor like senior professor and super professor so that the academic staff can work hard and pursue these new ranks. This will help to satisfy their interest to be promoted and get a better salary. In addition to fulfilling publication and other requirements, upgrading existing educational qualifications by academic staff members is needed for promotion to the next academic rank. Provision of education opportunity to academic staff members to upgrade their qualifications should be based on fair and transparent competition using clear criteria disclosed to contestants that give equal opportunity to academic staff members.

### ***6.4.2.3 Improving students' discipline policy and implementation***

Academic staff members were dissatisfied with students' discipline policy (cf. Table 5.7). As it is indicated in par. 5.10.1.3 in this study, the most dissatisfying factors related to students' discipline were: leniency of the university leadership to take disciplinary action on misbehaving students, dependency of students on other students to do assignments and to write examinations, failure of some students to attend classes regularly and the growing number of students with different disciplinary cases. This might result from the unrestricted autonomy

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given to students in universities to prevent them from any kind of mistreatment and harm by academic staff members or other staff in the university or outside. The influence of the surrounding environment of universities might have also contributed to student disciplinary problems.

So far there is no separate and detailed policy on student discipline that is applicable in all public universities. Only a few statements on disciplinary measures to be taken on students who misbehaved are spelt out in the harmonized legislations for Ethiopian public universities. Therefore, the Ministry of Education should take the initiation to produce a separate student discipline policy by expanding the existing statements in the legislation to replace the existing fragmentary student discipline policies in different universities. The presence of a separate students' discipline policy alone cannot guarantee obedience of students to university's rules and regulations and smooth teaching and learning in universities. University leadership should be committed to make awareness creation on the policy to new entrant students and implement the policy when problems arise. By doing all these, students' discipline will be enhanced and academic staff members' job satisfaction will be improved.

### ***6.4.2.4 Improving university governance and support***

In this study, results showed that academic staff members were dissatisfied with university governance and support (cf. Table 5.6). The major causes of dissatisfaction were failure of the leadership to engage academic staff in participatory decision-making, insufficient support given, unfair leadership, failure to provide sufficient resources required and finally insufficient budget allocation for academic work, research and development activities and community services. Regarding the issue of scarcity of resources at the workplace, several respondents in the open ended question suggested that basic requirements to teach, conduct research and community

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service should be fulfilled and well maintained by the university to sustain the smoothness of the teaching, research and community service process. To alleviate the problems, it is clear that leadership at universities has significant role to play in resource soliciting, allocation and utilization to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff members.

According to the Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE, 2009:5015), the university president is appointed by the Minister or by the head of the appropriate state organ from a short list of nominees provided by the board after the vacant position of the president is publicly advertised by a body designated by the board. The vice presidents of public universities are also appointed by the Board based on merit and through competition. Ideally the candidate presidents and vice presidents of a public university shall have, among others, commendable academic leadership and managerial ability as well as demonstrable commitment to institutional change and development and to the constitution and government policies. However, there is no clear guideline and checklist used to identify the most capable candidate for these leadership positions and this may have an impact on their performance when the leaders start their jobs and fail to play their leadership roles properly. Therefore, Ministry of Education needs to update the existing guidelines to be used in the recruitment, selection, appointment and capacity building of the new leaders assigned as presidents or vice presidents of public universities in Ethiopia. Prior to the assignment of new presidents and vice presidents, orientation, mentorship, and training on leadership skills are very important. For this purpose the establishment of a leadership academy is essential in the long run. This should be followed by performance agreement and evaluation of their performance continually when they start leading the universities. This will help the university leaders to make fair decisions, promote open discussions and share experiences

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between themselves and the academic staff members which is more or less the character of a transformational leader.

The budget allocated by government is always insufficient to supply all the required resources needed to conduct effective teaching and learning and to conduct research, community service and other projects. In order to get additional finance, materials or services, university presidents need to take the initiative to have multilateral or bilateral partnerships with domestic and international organizations and industries. Joint research, technology invention, innovation and transfer, senior staff exchange, material supply, short term and long term training and other related aspects can be the area of partnership with different partners. Furthermore, grant writing and soliciting financial support is also mandatory. By doing all these, the work environment can be supportive, the support to academic staff members will be improved and job satisfaction of academic staff can be enhanced.

### ***6.4.2.5 Improving salary***

In this study, the results showed that academic staff members in the sample universities were dissatisfied with salary. Some of the respondents raised issues of unfair amount of salary for the work they do, lower rate of salary compared to other professional jobs, and incompatibility between salary raises with inflation rate as the main factors for their dissatisfaction with salary. This corroborates with the idea that academic staff members' salaries in public universities of Ethiopia are lower than the salaries paid to academic staff members in the Pakistan public university shown in Table 3.1 and the discussion under it in Chapter 3 of this study. The government of Ethiopia should introduce new salary packages that take into account the experience of other countries and the economic growth level of the country. This should be accompanied by salary raises on a yearly basis to cope with and withstand the ever-growing

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inflation rate in the country. Due consideration should also be given to provision of new benefits such as transport allowance, health insurance, interest free loan to construct their own house instead of the existing house allowances given to them that does not take into account the ever rising rate of house rentals in Ethiopia. Paying high salaries and benefits to academic staff members with higher experience and higher qualifications cognizant of the huge resource and prolonged time required to invest in them in the past is also vital, instead of managing the crisis after these academic staff members leave the universities for better salaries and benefits in industry or elsewhere. Another issue that needs to be looked at is the reduction of the high tax rate which is 35% for salaries above 3000 Ethiopian Birr which leads to a low amount of money that goes to the academic staff members.

### ***6.4.2.6 Improving workload***

In this study it was found that academic staff members were dissatisfied with their workload. The reasons for this, as mentioned by the respondents, were the onerous task of extended paper work which includes correcting, marking and grading students' work and the special tutorial programmes devoted to female students, to students from emerging regions and to low achievers as a remedial measure to fill their academic gaps and deficiencies that demand extra time and energy from academic staff. These are, of course, in addition to the expected research, project and community service workload which is 39 hours per week. One important action to be considered by university leaders would be reduction of the teaching load through employing additional academic staff members. An alternative solution would be compensation for the extra and cumbersome job that academic staff members perform by introducing new attractive benefits and incentive packages and guidelines.



### ***6.4.2.7 Improving class size***

Academic staff members in this study's finding were dissatisfied with class size. Some of the reasons for this mentioned by the respondents were failure to uphold the standard class size and instructor and student ratio which is mentioned in the Higher Education Proclamation and legislation and the consequence of a large number of students in a class is that it severely affected the use of the active learning method in universities that they are expecting to utilise to make teaching and learning lively through it. For this purpose, this study recommends that the universities comply with the number of students per class in different subjects as legislated. Shortage of classrooms and academic staff members need to be emphasized and addressed by constructing new classroom buildings instead of building others that are serving non-recurring events and activities and by recruiting new and competent instructors respectively. Actions must be taken to minimize the high academic staff turnover by giving due attention to the critical and pressing needs of academic staff such as those already sorted out and others to come next. This would consistently result in better performance as a result of job satisfaction in academic staff members.

### ***6.4.2.8 Improving reward***

This study found that academic staff members were dissatisfied with the reward system in the universities because of few rewards for best performers, unfair criteria used to screen the best performers among academic members, reprehensible reward practice and finally the reward received is not satisfactory when compared to the rewards given in other organisations. Absence of comprehensive and detail reward and recognition guidelines that can be applied unanimously in universities led to the use of different and precarious reward systems developed by the universities to recognize best performers among academic staff members. This practice has its

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own limitations in that academic staff that perform well but work for different universities may be awarded differently and the reward given might not be satisfactory and consequently will lead to dissatisfaction of the academic staff members. Therefore, the Ministry of Education in consultation with the Public Service Ministry has to develop a comprehensive reward and recognition guidelines and benefits that can be applied uniformly in all public universities. In the guidelines more emphasis should be given to set clear and comprehensive criteria, very attractive rewards comparable with that of non-academic institutions and others. Knowing the criteria that would be used to screen best performers and the type of reward that would be given to best performers ahead of time necessarily helps academic staff to be competitive, devote more time and energy to perform best to get the reward. In the end, levels of performance and job satisfaction of academic staff members will be improved.

### ***6.4.2.9 Improving academic freedom***

Academic staff members were dissatisfied with the lack of freedom in decision-making in academic affairs and the limited autonomy they are given. Regarding academic freedom, the higher education proclamation (FDRE, 2009) stated that every academic staff member is granted to have the right to exercise academic freedom based on the universities mission, but details of the freedom that the academic staff can exercise are not clearly stated. Therefore, a guideline that clearly specifies the right and duties and gives academic autonomy that can help academic staff members to exercise academic freedom in the Ethiopian public universities must be issued by the Ministry of Education. This can be started by updating the old Higher Education Proclamation.

### ***6.4.2.10 Improving communication***

The findings of this study revealed that academic staff members were satisfied with their interpersonal communication whereas they were dissatisfied with lack of encouragement for open communication by the president, absence of harmonious superior/subordinate relationships and unfriendly relationships between academic staff and leaders. Academic staff can realize success through cooperative interaction and assistance from others which requires smooth and effective communication. As a starting point, an inclusive, friendly environment based on shared responsibility mutual cooperation and knowledge needs to be exercised among all parties engaged in teaching, research and community service activities, that is, between academic staff and leaders, within the academic staff and among the leaders. University leaders must ensure unity and harmonious communication by taking different initiatives that can enhance communication. Such initiatives can be involvement of academic staff in decision making through their representative, conducting workshops, seminars and other relevant activities to ensure smooth communication.

An open door policy must be followed for grievance hearings and appeals and the responses- be they positive or negative - should be communicated orally and in written form. These all are possible when there is mutual respect and the feeling of belongingness is promoted among all parties in universities. Moreover, communication with the local community, parents and local administration need to be encouraged given that universities are service centres to produce the future productive citizens of the community and the country at large. Community representatives need to have a consultative forum on regular time to solve problems encountered. Real commitment directed to promote and enhance communications serve to enhance and raise academic staff members' job satisfaction.

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Eccentricity is not as such entertained in any work environment including in the Ethiopian public universities. Instead, academic staff members are expected to work collectively. The Ethiopian Ministry of Education actively promotes the culture of working in groups, as evidenced by the introduction of cooperative working and one to five teaming in recent years. Moreover, academic staff members are expected to do research and community service in groups. Budget is not allocated for a research proposal prepared by a single academic staff member. Universities should strictly work on proper implementation of these systems that promote collective interaction.

### ***6.4.2.11 Improving students' achievement***

In this study academic staff indicated that they were dissatisfied with students' achievement in the subjects they taught. They have identified large numbers of students in a class which has made exam administration difficult, lack of willingness by students to do different academic work given to them as individuals and as a group that contribute to their poor performance and low employment rate of graduates in the world of work as consequence of poor achievement of students. Therefore this study suggests that a more comprehensive, commonly agreed, mutually acceptable and organised action be taken. Students must get counselling service by counsellors from student service units and academic advisory service by instructors assigned for each subject to improve students' work culture and discipline. In addition to this, the new initiative taken by Ethiopian Ministry of Education in 2018 to enhance quality in higher education using the term 'deliverlogy' approach that mainly focus on education service delivery improvement has to be implemented. This new approach has seven strategies, namely: English language improvement programme for students and beginner instructors, academic staff development, career service to students, enhancing internship, instructors' performance appraisal

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improvement, student assessment improvement, and tracer study and has to be implemented properly by all responsible bodies in universities for better students' academic achievement. By so doing job satisfaction of academic staff could be improved.

### **6.5 THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY**

In this competitive world, the presence of trained manpower is very crucial. The academic staff members are the most important resource in universities, the key organizations in society serving the new generation, and ensuring the preservation and dissemination of knowledge and technology. The academic staff members have a major role in achieving the objectives related to teaching, research and community service. To this end, leaders in universities and the Ministry of Education should facilitate a smooth work environment conducive to academic staff members to discharge their responsibilities effectively.

The results in this study showed that academic staff members faced job dissatisfaction that hinders their performance and lowers quality education at universities. Addressing these problems is highly significant for the nation that is visioning to join the lower middle income countries through producing competent graduates who can contribute a lot in the economy. This is an urgent issue emphasized in the new Ethiopian education roadmap afoot to enhance quality education to all levels of the education system. Ensuring job satisfaction of academic staff members in public universities is a prominent agenda that needs to be emphasised. Therefore, the first objective of the Ethiopian Ministry of Education should be targeted towards maximising academic staff members' satisfaction for the benefit of the academic staff members and the students. The findings of this study elucidated several issues related to the eleven constructs for university leaders, the Ministry of Education and other relevant stakeholders that should be emphasised to enhance academic staff members' satisfaction.

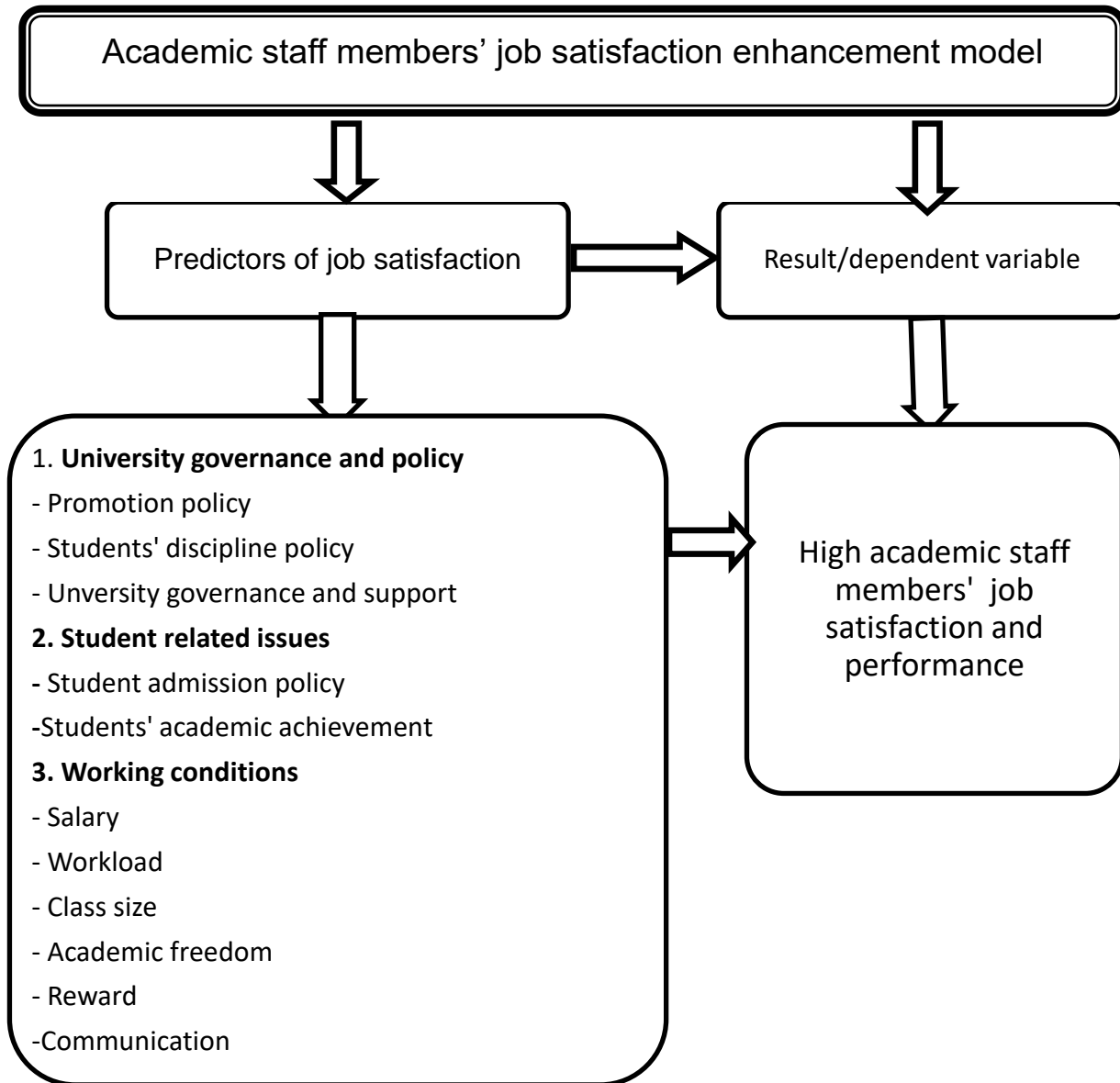
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One of the important contributions of this study is the incorporation of students' admission policy and students' academic achievement as factors of job satisfaction. Research findings that corroborate this study's result could not be found in the literature particularly on the satisfaction with students' admission policy and students' academic achievement among academic staff members in Ethiopian public universities or elsewhere in the world. Therefore, the current study's findings related to these two variables are taken as an important benefaction in the area of job satisfaction among academic staff members.

The findings of the study on job satisfaction of academic staff members in public universities lead towards the development of university academic staff members' job satisfaction model. The findings of this study indicate that university governance policies consisting of three variables, student related issues consisting two variables and working conditions composed of six variables totalling eleven variables are joint enablers of job satisfaction of academic staff for better performance and quality of education, research and community service.

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**Figure 6.1** shows the model developed from the finding of the study deduced from the opinions of academic staff members through a questionnaire that explicitly indicated significant predictors and the outcome that is job satisfaction of academic staff.



**Figure 6.1:** Model of enhancing job satisfaction of academic staff members

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In addition to the aforementioned contributions, this study has made four other major contributions to the literature on job satisfaction of academic staff in public universities in Ethiopia and elsewhere in the world.

Firstly, the study has tried to create awareness and put forth suggestions for immediate actions to be taken by the Ministry of Education, leaders of universities including board of trustee members, and policy makers. The first action to be taken is revising some of the policies and developing new ones that were identified previously to make a greater contribution to enhance job satisfaction of the academic staff members in the public universities in Ethiopia. These policy documents need to be endorsed by the Ethiopian Council of Ministers or the House of Representatives in the Ethiopian parliament and be implemented in universities.

Secondly, this study is the first in its type carried out at national level to study job satisfaction of academic staff in public universities of Ethiopia and has moved ahead towards understanding of what needs to be improved to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff members in public universities for better performance. Therefore, the findings of the study can be used as a stepping stone for future researchers to conduct research on a larger scale using different methods.

Third, the present study confirms previous findings and contributes additional facts that suggest further investigation of the concept of job satisfaction of academic staff. The concept and challenges of enhancing job satisfaction provide valuable, relevant and up to date information regarding enhancing job satisfaction practices. The study results also influence the understanding of university leaders, boards of trustees and policy makers in the Ministry of Education or elsewhere in the world. Therefore, the findings of this study could attract other researchers' attention to this discipline.



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Fourth, the results obtained from this study further contribute to the model of enhancing job satisfaction of academic staff members and the method of identifying challenges associated with enhancing job satisfaction. Potential solutions to problems related to enhancing job satisfaction of academic staff to perform their roles emerged from this research.

The majority of the respondents identified the need for developing uniform and complete reward and incentive guideline that can be applied by all public universities in the regular, continuing and distance education programmes to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff members. Thus, the last contribution of this study is a checklist that can be used to prepare reward and incentive guidelines that should be used in different public universities uniformly. In the Ethiopian context universities have autonomy to generate revenue by engaging in different businesses, by soliciting funds from other organizations and universities locally and internationally; however, they are not allowed to use these budgets without the approval of the House of Representatives. Moreover, they can prepare separate rewards and incentive guidelines for the academic staff members who participate in distance and continuing programmes by referring to the amount of incentives paid for the extra work done in the regular programmes and use it after the board of trustee approve it. The existing fragmentary guidelines used in different universities are varied in the amount of money paid for academic staff for doing the same academic work in the distance and continuing programmes. As a result of this, there are complaints on the existing guideline and demand for preparing new harmonized reward and incentive guidelines that can be used uniformly in all public universities of Ethiopia. In order to prepare the guidelines, a checklist is needed that consists of different types of extra work that need incentives to be paid for the academic staff members involved in the extra work, particularly in distance and continuing programmes. The check lists that consist of the tasks were

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conglomerated using thematic method from the suggestions of the respondents in the open ended questions and from the existing guidelines in some universities are shown in the tables that follow.

**Table 6.1**

*Checklist to be used to prepare national reward and incentive guidelines for academic staff members who participate in **module preparations for undergraduate and postgraduate distance and continuing education programmes***

<b>Number</b>	<b>Type of module prepared</b>	<b>Pages</b>	<b>Amount per page</b>	<b>Amount per page for pedagogy and language editing</b>
1	Module for one credit hour course	50 to 60 pages		
2	Module for two credit hour course	70 to 100 pages		
3	Module for three credit hour course	101 to 120 pages		
4	Module for four credit hour course	120 to 140 pages		
5	Module revision	Per page		

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**Table 6.2**

*Checklist to be used to prepare national reward and incentive guidelines for academic staff members who participate in teaching and other activities in undergraduate distance and continuing programmes*

Number	Teaching, workshop or laboratory activities	Unit	Academic rank and payment rate					
			Technical assistance	Assistance lecturer and below that	Lecturer	Assistance professor	Associate professor	Professor
1	Preparation of entrance exam for distance and continuing programme students	Package						
2	Administering entrance examination to distance and continuing programmes students	Package						
3	Marking distance and continuing programme student's entrance exam paper	Students						
4	Incentive for participating in distance and continuing programmes	Credit hour						
5	Marking distance and continuing programmes students' assignment paper	Students						
6	Preparation of final exam for distance and continuing programmes students							
7	Preparing, administering and marking final exam for students who stood for second round exam in distance and continuing programmes.	Students						
8	Advising distance and continuing programme students to prepare senior essay individually	Thesis						
9	Internal examiner's pay for examining a senior essay prepared by individual student	Thesis						
10	External examiner's pay for examining a senior essay prepared by individual distance and continuing programmes students	Thesis						
11	Administering final exam for distance and continuing education students	Students						
12	Preparing assignment or project for distance and continuing education students	Students						
13	Engaging students in practicum	Students						
14	Guiding students to prepare portfolio	Students						
15	Other activities	Students						

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**Table 6.3**

Checklist to be used to prepare national reward and incentive guidelines for academic staff members who participate in **teaching and other activities in postgraduate distance and continuing programmes**

Number	Teaching, workshop or laboratory activities	Unit	Academic rank and payment rate				
			Technical assistance	Lecturer	Assistance professor	Associate professor	Professor
1	Preparation of entrance exam for postgraduate distance and continuing programmes students	Package					
2	Administering entrance examination to postgraduate distance and continuing programmes students	Package					
3	Marking postgraduate distance and continuing programme students' entrance exam paper	Students					
4	Participating in postgraduate distance and continuing teaching programmes.	Credit hour					
5	Marking postgraduate distance and continuing programme students' assignment paper	Students					
6	Preparation of final exam for postgraduate distance and continuing programmes students	Exam					
7	Preparing, administering and marking final exam to postgraduate students who stood for second round exam in distance and continuing programmes	Students					
8	Advising postgraduate distance and continuing programme students to prepare thesis/dissertation individually	Thesis/ dissertation					
9	Internal examiner's pay for examining a thesis/dissertation prepared by individual postgraduate student	Thesis/ dissertation					
10	External examiner's pay for examining a thesis/dissertation prepared by individual postgraduate distance and continuing programmes students	Thesis/ dissertation					
11	Chair person's pay for facilitating examination of a thesis/dissertation prepared by distance and continuing programmes postgraduate students	Thesis/ dissertation					
12	Preparing assignment or project for distance and continuing education postgraduate students	Students					
13	Other activities of postgraduate program students	Students					

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**Table 6.4**

Checklist to be used to prepare national reward and incentive guideline for academic staff members who participate in **overload teaching and other activities in undergraduate and postgraduate regular programmes**

Number	Teaching, workshop or laboratory activities	Unit	Academic rank and payment rate				
			Technical assistance	Lecturer	Assistant	Associate professor	Professor
1	Participating in regular undergraduate and graduate teaching programmes	Credit hour					
2	Advising regular undergraduate and postgraduate programme students to prepare senior essay/thesis/dissertation individually	Thesis/ dissertation					
3	Advising regular undergraduate and postgraduate programme students to prepare senior essay/thesis/dissertation in group	Thesis/ dissertation					
4	Internal examiner's pay for examining a senior essay/thesis/dissertation prepared by individual students	Thesis/ dissertation					
5	External examiner's pay for examining a senior essay/thesis/dissertation prepared by individual regular undergraduate and postgraduate programmes students	Thesis/ dissertation					
6	Chair person's pay for facilitating examination of a thesis prepared by regular undergraduate and postgraduate programmes students	Thesis/ dissertation					
7	Other activities	Students					

### 6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

This study explored job satisfaction among academic staff at Ethiopian public universities using quantitative data collection methods. Although some valuable findings were obtained, this

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study is limited in its broad applicability. Further research is recommended to corroborate the findings of this study. Further research is recommended in the areas listed below.

Ways of improving students' discipline and students' academic achievement in public universities effectively are topics that need to be further deeply investigated. The results of this study indicated that both have implications for academic staff members' job satisfaction.

The study highlights eleven determinants of job satisfaction of academic staff members in public universities in Ethiopia. A study that uses mediating variables such as work life balance and consequence of job dissatisfaction such as occupational stress, organizational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, perceived organizational support, and absenteeism is needed. Further insights into the relationship between job satisfaction of academic staff of public universities and turnover rate must be investigated to arrive at a better model for enhancing job satisfaction of academic staff members.

This study focused on public universities in Ethiopia but not the private universities. A comparative study of job satisfaction of academic staff in public and private universities in Ethiopia could be undertaken. A separate study on job satisfaction of academic staff members in private universities in Ethiopia could be another perspective that could be considered for future research.

Job satisfaction is an emotional concept and it is dependent on the perceptions that employees have about work. Perceptions are likely to change with the continuous changes that are taking place in Ethiopian public universities. Replication of a similar study may lead to similar responses or different responses. Extended and additional investigations are required to know more about job satisfaction of academic staff in universities.

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Further research should include the use of additional research methods, such as interviews, observations and focus group studies. A questionnaire survey is limited in that it relies on self-reporting. Using different methods are very useful in providing deep insights because richer and more detailed information can be obtained when not using just a single method.

### **6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study was confined to eight public universities chosen from 30 public universities that were in full operation when the data was collected. Ten additional universities that were under construction when this research was conducted were not included in this study. Moreover, the two universities that were accountable to the Ministry of Science and Technology were not included as they have a different culture and salary scale for the academic staff members. Hence, the findings of this study may not necessarily be applicable to these universities. Cautious generalizations have been made for that purpose.

Another limitation of the present study is that the study reflects the opinions elicited by academic staff members who have academic rank from lecturer up to associate professor. During data collection, professors were not available in their respective universities and as a result they did not participate in this study and their opinions were not included.

### **6.8 SUMMARY**

Chapter 6 is the last but not least chapter of this study. The aim of the study was to delve in to job satisfaction of academic staff members in Ethiopian public universities. For this purpose, a literature review was conducted on related theories and on the findings of research carried out previously on the issue and this was followed by an empirical investigation. The research design was a quantitative method with some qualitative data collected using open ended questions and

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the result integrated in the final result discussed above. A self-administered questionnaire was completed by 400 respondents from eight universities systematically selected from the three generations of universities.

The results of this study enrich the literature on the different factors that affect job satisfaction among academic staff members in Ethiopian public universities. This study demonstrates the associations between eleven pertinent factors of satisfaction and demographic factors with the job satisfaction of academic staff in Ethiopian public universities as depicted in the conceptual framework in Figure 1.1.

Students' discipline policy and students' academic performance are two other factors that have been included as constituents of the framework of academic staff members' job satisfaction. Finally, the impact and interrelationship between all the factors of job satisfaction with satisfaction of academic staff members was found. As asserted in the study, several key findings in the current study vitally contribute to the body of knowledge with regard to job satisfaction studies. Also identified were the effects of low levels of job satisfaction which barefaced themselves in many forms in academic staff members, resulting in negative consequences that greatly affect the quality of education at universities.

The limitations and recommendations for the university and policy makers, and future research suggest clearly the current state of job satisfaction particularly among academic staff members in Ethiopian public universities which also paves the way for future action and research to ensure a favourable workplace for academic staff in universities.



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# ANNEXES

## ANNEXE A

### ETHICS CLEARANCE LETTER

#### UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE



Date: 2017/06/14

Ref#: **2017/06/14/57645523/25/MC**

Name: Mr BM Damtae

Student#: 57645523

Dear Mr Damtae,

**Decision:** Ethics Approval from  
2017/06/14 to 2022/06/14

#### Researcher:

Name: Mr BM Damtae

Email: 57645523@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Telephone#: 251116812867

#### Supervisor:

Name: Prof RJ Botha

Email: Botharj@unisa.ac.za

Telephone#: 082 411 6361

#### Title of research:

**Job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian Public Universities**

**Qualification:** D Ed in Education Management

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2017/06/14 to 2022/06/14.

*The low risk application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2017/06/14 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

## JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date 2022/06/14. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

*Note:*

The reference number **2017/06/14/57645523/25/MC** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.

Kind regards,



**Dr M Claassens**

**CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC**

mcdtc@netactive.co.za



**Prof V McKay**

**EXECUTIVE DEAN**

Approved - decision template – updated 16 Feb 2017

University of South Africa  
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane  
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150  
[www.unisa.ac.za](http://www.unisa.ac.za)



## JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

### ANNEX B

#### **REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FROM THE VICE MINISTER FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN MINISTRY OF EDUCATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SELECTED PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES OF ETHIOPIA**

Title of the research - JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN ETHIOPIAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

Date July 15, 2017

Name of the person to who the researcher address the request: Dr. Samuel Kifle

Office of Vice Minister for Higher education

Contact details of the person (telephone number: +251 111-559705 and email address: Samuel.kifle@ethernet.edu.et.)

Dear Dr. Samuel,

I, Bekele Meaza Damtae, am doing research under supervision of \_RJ (Nico) Botha, a professor in the Department of Educational Leadership and Management towards a PHD in education at the University of South Africa. We have funding from your esteemed ministry to cover tuition fee. We are requesting you to give us permission letter to involve some academic staff members in some universities to participate in a study entitled JOBSATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN ETHIOPIAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES.

The aim of the study is to investigate the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities.

Some universities have been selected because of the systematic sampling technique used to screen the universities.

The study will entail survey method and questionnaires will be used to collect information for the study from voluntary participants who will be given brief explanation on ethical issues and other aspect of the study.

The benefits of this study are that the final result could be used to make some amendments on existing policies, legislations and guidelines or to produce new one which will help to raise the

## JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

level of job satisfaction of academic staff members and reduce the adverse effect of dissatisfaction.

There are no potential risks associated to the study that may bring harm to the participants.

There will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research.

Feedback procedure will entail submission of the final study result to your esteemed ministry and summary of the study result will be sent to each university through email.

Yours sincerely

Damtae, B.M

Researcher

## JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

### ANNEX C QUESTIONNAIRE

#### **Title of the questionnaire: Job satisfaction survey**

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire forms part of my doctoral research entitled: JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN ETHIOPIAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES for the degree of PhD in Education at the University of South Africa. You are selected by stratified and systematic sampling strategy from the population of academic staff members in public university. Hence, I invite you to take part in this survey.

The aim of this study is to investigate the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities. The findings of the study will benefit academic staff members if the result is used by policy makers to make some amendments on the existing policies, legislations and guidelines or to produce a new one which will help to raise the level of job satisfaction of academic staff members and reduce the adverse effect of dissatisfaction.

You are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire, comprising five sections as honestly and frankly as possible and as to your personal views and experience. No foreseeable risks are associated with the completion of the questionnaire which is for research purposes only. The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The researcher kindly requests you to follow the instructions carefully, respond to all the questions and to answer anonymously. If you have any research-related enquiries, they can be addressed directly to me. My contact details are: telephone 0911777099, e-mail: medbekele@gmail.com

Thank You.

**Instruction:** Please circle the appropriate number in front of the choices for the questions in part I. For questions under part II and part III, put a tick mark under the scale in front of each

## JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

question on the questionnaire to indicate your answer. On part IV you are allowed to give your personal view about the questions posed.

### Part I: PERSONAL DETAILS

01. My gender is:

- Male 1
- Female 2

02. My age is:

- 26 years and younger 1
- 27 - 39 years 2
- 40 - 52 years 3
- 53 - 60 years 4
- 61 years and older 5

03. My years of teaching experience are:

- less than 6 years 1
- 6 - 15 years 2
- 16 – 25 years 3
- 26 years and longer 4

04. Academic rank that I currently hold

- Lecturer 1
- Assistance professor 2
- Associate professor 3
- Professor 4

05. My highest qualification is:

- Doctoral Degree 1
- Master's degree 2
- Other degree 3

JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

**Part II: UNIVERSITY POLICIES AND SUPPORT FACTORS THAT AFFECT JOB SATISFACTION (Put a tick mark under the scale which you feel is appropriate).**

No	Items	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREED NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREED	For Researcher use
	<b>Students' admission policy</b>						
06	I am happy with the placement of students with special educational needs who got the lowest university entrance cut-off points.						AP 1
07	I support the placement of disadvantaged students through affirmative action.						Ap2
08	Majority of students who joined universities through affirmative action are least performers						AP3
	<b>Academic staff members' promotion policy</b>						
09	I am satisfied with my opportunities for promotion.						PP1
10	The requirements of promotion to be fulfilled are not difficult.						PP2
11	I have opportunities for professional advancement						PP3
	<b>Students' discipline policy</b>						
12	I am happy with the presence of the student discipline policy in the university.						SDP1
13	I feel that due attention is given to accountability of students with disciplinary problems.						SDP2
14	Cases of students with disciplinary problems are reducing.						SDP3
15	Students are self-reliant in examination room.						SDP4
16	I feel that students do their home assignments independently.						SDP5
17	I feel that my students attend my classes regularly.						SDP6
18	I feel that my students respect me.						SDP7
	<b>University governance and support policy</b>						
19	Leaders at my university engage academic staff in participatory decision-making.						UGSP1
20	The university management support academic staff members.						UGSP2
21	University management sets a good example of fair leadership.						UGSP3

## JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

22	Sufficient resources are availability in my university.						UGSP4
23	There is good infrastructure in my university (electricity, internet, water and others).						UGSP5
24	I feel that government budget allocated for academic work, research, community service and other activity is sufficient.						UGSP6

JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

**PART III: WORKING CONDITIONS (FACTORS) THAT INFLUENCE JOB SATISFACTION**  
**(Put a tick mark under the scale which you feel is appropriate).**

No	Items	STRONGLY	DISAGREE	NEITHER	DISAGREE	STRONGLY	For Resear
		Y	2	AGREE	2	AGREE 5	cher use
				NOR			
				DISAGREE			
				AGREE 4			
	<b>Salary</b>						
25	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.						RP 1
26	My salary compares to other professional jobs.						RP2
27	Salary raises keep up with inflation in the country.						RP3
28	Salary raises are too few.						RP4
	<b>Workload</b>						
29	The paper work in correcting, marking and grading students' work is tiresome.						WL1
30	My workload is high						WL2
31	The special tutorial programme for female students and low achievers is an unnecessary additional burden.						WL3
	<b>Class size</b>						
32	Number of students that I teach in my class is large.						CS1
33	The minimum class size determined in legislation is respected.						CS2
34	The minimum standard of instructor and student ratio which is 1:20 is maintained.						CS3
35	The current class size enhances active learning method implementation.						CS4
	<b>Academic freedom</b>						
36	The amount of freedom I have in decision-making in academic affairs is fair.						AF 1
37	I am satisfied with my autonomy as a teacher						AF2
38	My duties and responsibilities vested by the higher education proclamation are applicable.						AF3
39	I have freedom to exercise thought, enquiry, conscience and expression.						AF4
	<b>Reward and recognition</b>						
40	There are few rewards for best performers.						RR1
41	I am happy with the criteria used to measure academic staff members' performance.						RR2
42	The reward given to best performers is meritorious.						RR3
43	The benefits I receive are as good as which most other organizations offer.						RR4

**JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS**

44	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.						RR5
	<b>Students' achievement</b>						
45	I feel that the curriculum is appropriate to prepare the students for the economy.						SA1
46	I feel that the student assessment policy is appropriate.						SA2
47	Examinations are administered properly regardless of the large number of students in a class.						SA3
48	My students get pass marks in my subject.						SA4
49	I feel that the assessment modality does not help to discriminate students according to their ability.						SA5
50	Students are willing to do different academic work.						SA6
51	I am not satisfied with the employment rate of my students after graduation.						SA7
	<b>Communication</b>						
52	My president encourages open communication among the university community.						C1
53	There is a harmonious superior-subordinate communication.						C2
54	The communication between academic staff and leaders in the university is friendly.						C3
55	I have good communication with the people I work with.						C4
56	<b>Overall I am satisfied with my job</b>						AS1

**PART IV Please answer the following questions briefly.**

57. In your university what are the factors that mostly leads to job satisfaction of academic staff members currently?

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58. In your university what are the factors that mostly leads to job dissatisfaction of academic staff members at the present?

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JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

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59. In your view, what is the effect of lack of job satisfaction on academic staff members?

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60. In your view what can be done to raise the level of job satisfaction of academic staff members?

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Heartfelt Thanks for your cooperation.

JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

**ANNEX D**

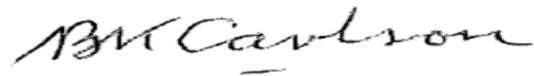
**LETTER CONFIRMING LANGUAGE EDITING BY PROFESSIONAL EDITOR**

8 Nahoon Valley Place  
Nahoon Valley  
East London  
5241  
07 July 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that I have proofread and edited the following doctoral thesis using the Windows 'Tracking' system to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the student to action:

*Job satisfaction among academic staff in Ethiopian public universities* by BEKELE MEAZA DAMTAE, a thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PhD in Educational Management in the College of Education at the UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA.



Brian Carlson (B.A., M.Ed.)  
Professional Editor

Email: [bcarlson521@gmail.com](mailto:bcarlson521@gmail.com)

Cell: 0834596647

Disclaimer: Although I have made comments and suggested corrections, the responsibility for the quality of the final document lies with the student in the first instance and not with myself as the editor.

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