

# **A Comparative Analysis of Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions Among University Lecturers in Nigeria**

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*The job satisfaction and turnover anomaly are employment challenges in Nigerian universities. This volatile situation often results in industrial actions by lecturers that cause higher education sector logjams. The author pondered the reasons behind job dissatisfaction and the turnover intention of academics. Was there a need to extend the breadth of knowledge already available - thus providing fresh input to address the parlous employment debacle? Did the passage of time, the changing educational ethos, changes in demographics, social needs and expectations demand a review of available knowledge to stabilise the retention of academics? In response, the researcher developed the Three-Factor concept to counter employment's revolving door at Nigerian Universities. Consequently, the researcher's Three-Factor Model highlighted previously unknown job dissatisfaction factors at selected universities. This study allows policymakers and other stakeholders to have a more informed understanding of the turnover anomaly that was not identified by previous theoretical models.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

Labour turnover always concerns both practitioners and scholars because when employees leave any organisation, the high overhead recruitment costs affect the budget and weaken the cumulative experience of institution-specific human capital (Price, 2001; Wagner, 2004; Wright and Bonett, 2007; Jo, 2008; Siebert and Zubanov, 2009). Furthermore, Lambert, Hogan, and Barton (2001) noted that employee intention to leave includes the interplay of many factors, including the work environment, job satisfaction, co-worker behaviour, and workplace social relations. Several models in developed countries identify lecturers' job satisfaction needs (Oshagbemi 2003; Castillo and Cano, 2004) and their intention to resign because of job discontentment. Nonetheless, because of the changing work environment, the increasingly diverse internal and external pressures on both the organisation and staff, ongoing research will undoubtedly inform stakeholders of turnover issues (Bar-Yam et al. 2002). Nevertheless, a developing country like Nigeria needs more research on academics and job satisfaction and turnover because of its traditional tribalistic structure (Adeyanu, n.d.).

Therefore, this paper comparatively analyses job satisfaction and turnover intentions among lecturers in public and privately-owned universities in Nigeria. Any nation requires the input from the tertiary institution – they are one of the core hubs to advance education and one of the prime sources to feed national and international development (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley, 2009; Gbenu, 2013; Satope, 2013 and Ukonu, Wogu and Obayi, 2012). Academic staff are a fundamental component of the knowledge base of higher education, and play a critical educational role in research, preparing individuals

for employment, and the formal dissemination of knowledge (Machado-Taylor, 2016). However, despite the available literature addressing job satisfaction and turnover in Nigerian universities, there is still a high rate of staff turnover in its tertiary education sector (Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade, 2006; Gbenu, 2013). The subsequent debilitating outcomes impact negatively on the university environment and militate against productive teaching and learning (Machado-Taylor et al., 2016) as lecturers seek other employment offering a pleasanter working environment (Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade, 2006; Satope and Akintunde, 2013).

Studies by Nigerian academics have focused on job satisfaction and turnover of academic staff of universities in the federation's South-West (Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade, 2006; Adekola, 2012; Ologunde, Akindele, and Akande; 2013; Omonijo et al., 2015; Olusegun, 2013) and the South-South (Osakwe, 2014) sectors. Research revealed that Nigerian-based studies, seeking an answer to the conundrum, focussed mostly on Herzberg's Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors (Fapohunda, 2012; Gbenu, 2013; Ubangari and Bako, 2014; Nwakpa, 2015). Nonetheless, there is a dearth of Nigerian literature on academic staff job satisfaction at public and private universities in North Central Nigeria. Consequently, the writer sought for a model that Nigerian universities could use as a means to improve their human resource policies and practices to reduce the voluntary turnover of lecturers. Consequently, this Nigerian-focussed study focuses on the factors that lead to satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and turnover intentions at universities in the North Central sector to see how they compare with findings from the existing research by Nigerian academics at public and private universities in South-West and South-South Universities in Nigeria.

Nigeria has 40 Federal Universities, 44 State Universities and 68 Private Universities (NUC, 2017). The public (federal and state universities) and private universities are categorised based on their unique attributes of funding, ownership and structure. Public universities are government-owned while faith-based institutions and individuals own private universities.

There is much debate comparing Nigerian public and private universities regarding students' academic experience and lecturers job satisfaction. In Nigeria, like most developing countries, the employee turnover cycle in the education sector has been the cause of subsequent crises (Albert, 2014; Aljazeera, 2014). These crises, according to Mon and Nelson (2002) emanate from the deteriorating conditions within the tertiary education institutions because of the lack of teaching and related facilities, concerns about the welfare of those engaged in the profession and the ever-increasing cost of education (Gbenu, 2013). The situation has often culminated in industrial actions by lecturers through their umbrella associations such as the Academic Staff of Nigerian Universities (ASUU) and the Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU). Consequently, the mass exodus of lecturers has placed a significant responsibility on management to recruit new academic staff.

Satisfying staffing quotas is an ongoing problem (Ologunde, Asaolu and Elumilade 2006; Clark and Ausukuya, 2013). Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade (2006) also concluded that lecturers, especially those in public institutions, resign because of unfavourable working conditions. It is noteworthy that the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC) statistics show an increase of thirty-four universities - from one hundred and eighteen in 2009 to one hundred and fifty-two in 2017 (NUC, n.d.). Lecturers, therefore, have more potential employment opportunities. However, some tertiary institutions continue to experience staffing shortages (Shu'ara, 2010; Clark and Ausukuya, 2013) and lose qualified faculty members who leave for higher ranked tertiary institutions (Satope and Akintunde, 2013). The labour turnover continues despite successive government administration attempts to resolve lecturer discontent.

Despite the nation's wealth and status, the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) has not had the necessary resources to support research and the development of universities. For example, the absence of funding resulted in ASUU embarking on a continuum of strike actions (Gbenu 2013) and resulted in "violent revolts, protests, unrests as well as the incessant closure of schools for months" (Adoga, 2014, p.46). Furthermore, the lack of sufficient resources, paralleled by the high turnover of Nigerian academics, continues to raise concerns (Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade, 2006). The revolving door syndrome challenges university management, and studies indicate that the high rate of turnover includes poor working conditions (Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade, 2006). Adding to the unstable scenario is the

lack of facilities, understaffing and underfunding (Oladapo, 1987; Ajayi and Ogunjobi, 2001 cited in Ologunde, Asaolu, and Elumilade, 2006; Clark and Ausukuya, 2013).

As highlighted, previous studies on the Nigerian higher education sector, reveal that most factors leading to job dissatisfaction and subsequent turnover are related to extrinsic factors (e.g. dissatisfaction with salary, poor working conditions, inadequate funding, bad human resource practices and so forth). However, the developing field of human relations in education indicates that there is a need for a new, empirically supported investigation to explore the possibility of yet unrecognised variables impacting on Nigeria's turnover reality. Consequentially, to investigate the academic staff turnover intention at Nigerian public and private universities, the researcher developed the Three-Factor conceptual framework – an integration of aspects of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) intrinsic and extrinsic factors concept and Hackman and Oldham's (1976, 1980) core job dimensions' model. This study suggests that by combining and fine honing the historical models into a unified approach, stakeholders will more effectively identify and address job satisfaction factors.

## **THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES**

Studies show that staff turnover is associated with push and pull factors and job satisfaction (Smith, Kendal, and Hulin, 1985). However, the primary determinant is job satisfaction (Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Dickter, Roznowski, and Harrison, 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Ghiselli et al., 2001; Lu, While, and Barriball, 2005; Tuzun, 2007; McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin, 2010; Swider, Boswell, and Zimmerman, 2011). However, some 3,300 dimensionally different studies on job satisfaction fail to provide an authoritative commentary on job satisfaction (Jerrell, 1983 as cited in Boone, 2003, p.10). Human resource professionals, psychologists, and other scholars often use the term "Job Satisfaction" to explain employee opinions on the working environment and the welfare support of employees by employers. Some studies suggest that organisations that periodically review their human resource practices to improve job satisfaction experience higher worker productivity (Thomas, Buboltz, and Winkelspecht, 2004). Thus, underscoring the principle that when employees are happy with their jobs, they are more productive (Wright and Staw, 1999; Thomas, Buboltz, and Winkelspecht, 2004).

However, scholars (e.g., Locke, 1976; Spector, 1997; Oredin and Alao, 2009) differ on job satisfaction, and therefore a cohesive definition is yet to be established. Arguably, the core difficulty derives from the abstract meaning of the words, due in large part to the conceptual nature of "job satisfaction" (Machado-Taylor et al., 2016). However, because an understanding of the designated wording fits into human resource practice, employees define job satisfaction as a positive or negative reaction to the job and working conditions (Boone, 2003; Oredin and Alao, 2009). Notwithstanding, research within the last decade defined job satisfaction as the employees' emotional response to their job (Tang and Kim, 1999; Acker, 1999; Williamson, 1996 cited in Boone, 2003, p.11). 21st-century studies suggest that the definitions still reflect an employee's emotional state towards their job (Lambert, Hogan and Barton, 2001; Trevor, 2001).

Contemporary studies on academic job satisfaction in other countries are relevant in developing a global understanding of job satisfaction and its impact on higher education institutions. Studies from within a country, however, provide a culture-specific approach (Sands, 2010; Kana'iaupuni, Ledward, Jensen, 2010). For example, a study in the United Kingdom by Abouerie (1996), examined the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction. The findings revealed that majority of the academic staff (74 percent) rated work overload as the most significant cause of stress in their lives while 40.3 percent of the academic staff suggested that conducting research was the core cause of stress on the job. Masum et al. (2015) studied the dominant factors that enhance or reduce academic job satisfaction in private universities in Bangladesh. The study identified three major factors that led to academic job satisfaction as fringe benefits, job security and working conditions.

Leung, Siu and Spector's (2000) identified sources of stress and its impact on academics' job satisfaction and psychological distress from four tertiary institutions in Hong Kong. The study found that "recognition, perceived organizational practices, and financial inadequacy were [the] best predictors of

job satisfaction” (Leung, Siu and Spector’s, 2000, p.121). Corroborating this, Pan et al.’s (2015) investigation of job satisfaction factors among university teachers in Shenyang, China found that turnover intention, job-related stress and protracted disease all had adverse impacts on job satisfaction. However, perceived organisational support, psychological capital and higher monthly salary linked positively to job satisfaction among the academics. According to the authors, increased perceived organisational support is very likely to increase academic job satisfaction.

Furthermore, Ssesanga and Garrett (2005) investigated the factors contributing to academic satisfaction and dissatisfaction in two universities in Uganda. Their findings revealed that the significant job satisfaction of the academics were co-worker relationships, rapport with supervisors and the intricate facets of teaching. Contra wise, academic dissatisfaction were mainly extrinsic related reasons such as “remuneration, governance, research, promotion, and working environment” (Ssesanga and Garrett, 2005, p.33). Oshagbemi (2003) probed the link between gender, age, rank and the length of service of academics at UK universities. The study revealed that academic staff rank is a predictor of job satisfaction while gender, age and length of service are not significantly associated directly with overall job satisfaction. Khalid et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between various facets of job satisfaction among university academicians in Punjab Province, Pakistan and the impact on overall job satisfaction. The study found that academics at private universities were more satisfied with pay, supervision and opportunities for promotion than their public counterpart. However, academics at public universities experienced higher job satisfaction with job security and co-worker relationship.

These studies on job satisfaction of academics in specific countries have shown different reasons for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While some may have shown similar outcomes, other studies have shown that some factors that may lead to job satisfaction of employees may and can at the same time, result in dissatisfaction for other employees (Oshagbemi, 1997 and Ssesanga and Garrett, 2005; Masum et al., 2015). Therefore, job satisfaction for a country or region specific or organisation using related research is crucial to understanding the phenomenon of the study population. This Nigerian-specific conceptual model derives from the contribution to the literature by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman’s (1959) Two-Factor Theory, Hackman and Oldham’s (1976, 1980) Job Characteristics Theory and the Mobley et al. (1979) Turnover Intention Model. Thus, developing the Three-Factor concept.

### **Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory**

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman introduced their Two-Factor Theory in 1959, and although controversial at the time, the concept became one of the most widely used theories in explaining job satisfaction (Stello, 2011). The Two-Factor Theory is relevant to this study because the factors under consideration have continued to be a cause for concern for both employers and their employees. The theory assumes that motivation and hygiene factors are responsible for either the increase (motivators) or decrease (hygiene) in job satisfaction (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995). The motivators are ‘job content’ factors viz. they are intrinsic to the job and identify the core importance of achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and the possibility of growth (Hancer and George 2003 cited in Ning-Kuang, Yin and Dellmann-Jenkins, 2009, p.326). The hygiene factors, on the other hand, are ‘job context’ factors listed as: company policy, supervision, relationship with supervisors, work conditions, relationship with peers, salary, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and job security (Graham and Messner, 1998; Kosmoski, 1997 cited in Ning-Kuang, Yin and Dellmann-Jenkins, 2009, p.327).

In support, recent studies on job satisfaction and turnover in Nigeria (Bello et al. 2017; Gbenu, 2013, Fapohunda, 2012) focussed mostly on intrinsic and extrinsic factors to understand job satisfaction and turnover. Nonetheless, the fundamental limitations and criticisms of Herzberg’s work caught the attention of the writer (c.f. Stello, 2011). Even though Herzberg’s renown had captivated much of the Nigerian literature, the writer’s objectivity motivated the need also to explore a comparative analysis on job satisfaction, and turnover intention of the academics. In parallel, Stello (2011) who notes that the Two-factor Theory requires modification, other critics of Herzberg cited his study’s shortcomings focused more on satisfaction than motivation research (Hansom, 1996). Furthermore, House and Wigdor (1967)



argue that the theory focuses on satisfaction but ignored productivity, and Nigerian based-literature had only referenced Herzberg's (1987) limited appeal to motivators (intrinsic) and hygiene (extrinsic) factors. The criticisms of Oshagbemi (1997), Ssesanga and Garret, (2005) challenged Herzberg's (1987) theory that motivators caused satisfaction and the absence of hygiene factors led to dissatisfaction, arguing that either motivators or hygiene could lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

### **Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Theory**

Several scholars have contended that one method of enhancing an employee's performance and fulfilment on the job is through job enrichment (Brian et al., 1975). According to Brian et al. (1975, p.280), "... job enrichment can be viewed as an organizational intervention designed to restructure jobs with the intent of making them more challenging, motivating, and satisfying to the individual". The Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976) Job Characteristics Model is a widely cited theory in job satisfaction studies (c.f. Brian et al., 1975) and its parallel asset posits that high core job dimensions lead to high job satisfaction and low turnover intention (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; 1976). The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) suggests: when employees' core job dimensions are high (such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback), there is a corresponding increment in the critical psychological states viz. experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work and knowledge of the actual results of the work (Tiegs, Tetrick and Fried, 1992).

Nonetheless, and despite its appeal, "the job design literature has recognized the difficulties associated with introducing change in jobs" (c.f. Fried and Ferris, 1987 p.315). Furthermore, according to the literature, Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory did not address the gaps (e.g. working conditions and company policy). In parallel, Faturochman (1997) also showed another weakness of the Job Characteristics Model viz. the questionable Motivating Potential Score (MPS) index and suggested that the JCM instrument required improvement (Wall, Clegg and Jackson, 1978; Faturochman, 1997). In brief, the Hackman and Oldham's (1975, 1976) models produce outcomes related only to the core job dimensions and critical psychological states.

### **Turnover Intention**

Job satisfaction is important to understand turnover (Ghiselli, La Lopa and Bai, 2001). Several studies have revealed that turnover intention is the best predictor of actual turnover viz. (Porter et al. 1974; Lee and Mowday, 1987; Michaels and Spector, 1982; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Hendrix et al. 1999; Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000; Elangovan, 2001; Mor, Nissly and Levin, 2001). Employees leave an organization for a number of reasons including but not limited to: job dissatisfaction (from either intrinsic and extrinsic related variables), low organisational commitment, age and tenure (Wim, Van and Steensma, 2004), when supervision is not favourable (Jo, 2008), limited advancement opportunities (Sousa-Poza and Henneberger, 2002), person-organisation misfit (Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner, 2003; Kristoff-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005), opportunity and kinship (Mueller and Price, 1990 and Price, 2001), job stress (Abouserie, 1996; Kim and Stoner, 2008), and an unbalanced work-life experience (Morrell, Clarke and Wilkinson, 2004; Yasbek, 2004).

This study focuses on the definition by Schyns, Torcka, and Gossling (2007) viz. that turnover intention is when an employee decides to resign. Tett and Meyer (1993) corroborate Schyns et al., (2007) definition and Sager (1994) contribute an added dimension that defines turnover intention in three forms viz. attitudinal, where the employee thinks about leaving, the decisional (the reasons) for leaving and behavioural (searching for alternative employment). According to Mobley et al. (1979), intentions provide a better understanding of the process by taking into account employee perceptions and the evaluations of available jobs (Lum et al. 1998). Nevertheless, Wagner (2004), defines turnover as the separation of employees from their organisations resulting from decisions taken by either the employer or the employee, which can either be voluntary (the ruling of the employee) or involuntary (the employer's decision).

Voluntary turnover has become a significant concern for organisations because of the subsequent organisational disruptions created by premature resignations (Price, 2001; Wagner, 2004; Jo, 2008).

Studies in voluntary turnover indicate that the perceived ease with which employees change jobs is because of available alternatives - the strength and attractiveness of local, national and international markets. Thus, the desire to move from one position to another relates usually to an employee's anticipated fulfilment from a new job (Mitchell et al. 2001). Mobley (1977) holds the view that when employees are unhappy with their jobs, they begin to search for alternative jobs. Importantly, however, employee turnover does not always impact negatively on an organisation but handling the outcomes, can still prove challenging. For example, when there is a high level of voluntary turnover, the subsequent costs associated with recruiting and training, plus the time spent in addressing low staff morale and attending to lost productivity (Branham, 2000; O'keefe 2000 as cited in Jo, 2008, p.566) incurs costly overheads. Although the voluntary action of employees to leave intensifies the economic pressure of an organisation, it is a managerially possible and might even be desirable (Nienaber and Masibigiri, 2012).

## **THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

The Three-Factor Model integrated aspects of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) Two-Factor Theory and Oldham and Hackman's (1976) Job Characteristics Model (JCM) to compare public and private universities lecturers on intrinsic and extrinsic factors, core job dimensions and turnover intentions. The Job Characteristics Model is a vital inclusion because it was developed to address the shortcomings of the Herzberg's Two-Factor Model. Because the Nigerian literature had focussed only on intrinsic and extrinsic factors, their findings were limited. Consequently, the researcher added a previously ignored area. The Core Job Dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model offers a new and more robust understanding of core employment strengths to reduce staffing turnover. Therefore, the findings from this study resulted in not only intrinsic and extrinsic factors but also the core job dimension variables that require attention and for consideration by policymakers.

### **Hypotheses**

Interestingly, comparative studies of academic staff from public and private educational institutions produce different results. Some research shows that lecturers in public universities have lower job satisfaction than their private counterparts (Bas and Ardic, 2002; Khalid, Irshad, and Mahmood, 2012). Other studies reveal that academic staff in public universities experienced higher job satisfaction than academics in private educational institutions (e.g. Munaf, 2009 and Latif et al., 2011).

In Nigeria, public university strikes called by the Nigerian Academic Staff Union of Universities have been a significant reason for academic turnover in public universities (Gbenu, 2013). Also, the rate at which private universities are springing up in Nigeria (Akpotu and Akpochafo, 2009), and with the shortage of academics in public universities (Shu'ara, 2010; Gbenu, 2013; Ologunde, Akindele and Akande, 2013), some public university lecturers accept part-time teaching jobs in private universities where working conditions are relatively stable (Ologunde, Akindele and Akande, 2013). The Ologunde, Asalu, and Elumilade (2006) study of public universities in Southwest Nigeria revealed that lecturers' intention to leave resulted from low motivation and sub-standard service conditions. Then the Fapohunda (2012) and Oyedeji (1995) studies on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors contributing to both the satisfaction or dissatisfaction among academics in public and private educational institutions. Finally, the aforementioned studies and the studies on academics' intention to leave by Ologunde, Asalu, and Elumilade (2006) and Gbenu (2013) lead to this research that hypothesised:

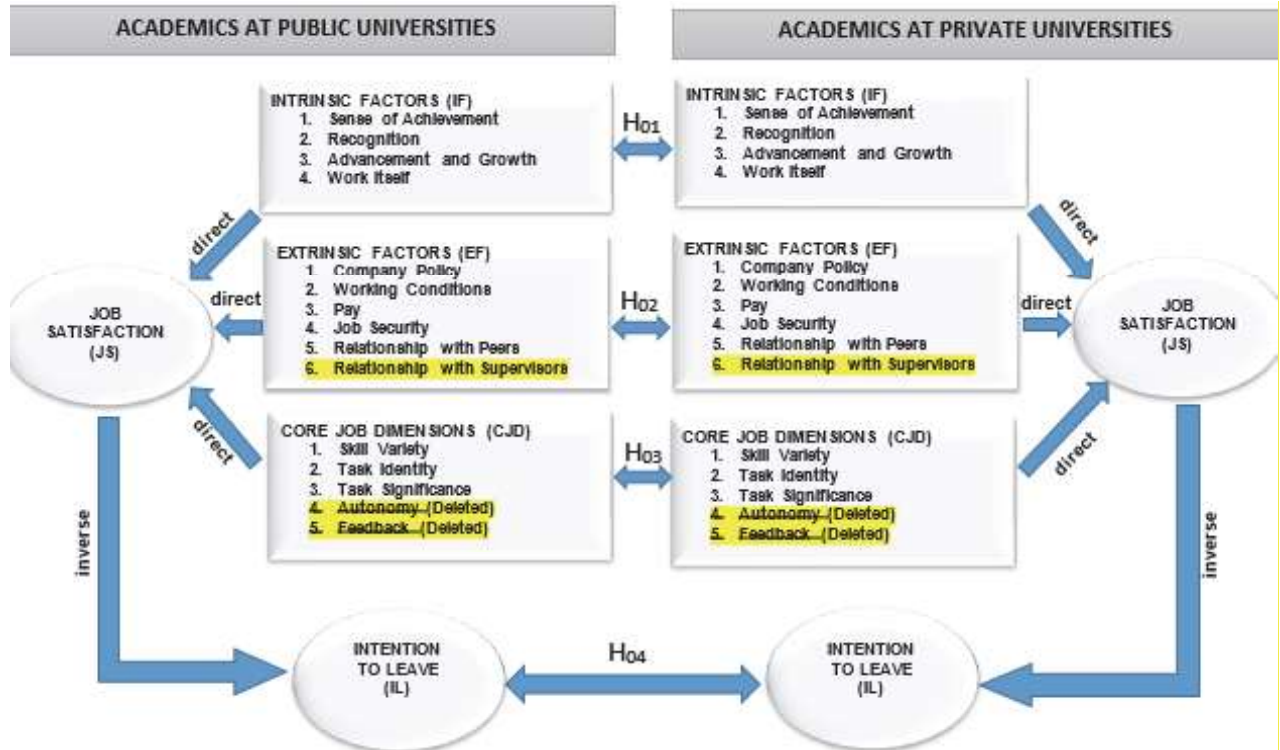
*Hypothesis 1:* There is no difference in the level of intrinsic job satisfaction between lecturers in public and private universities.

*Hypothesis 2:* There is no difference in the level of extrinsic job satisfaction between lecturers in public and private universities.

*Hypothesis 3:* There is no difference in the level of job dimension between lecturers in public and private universities.

*Hypothesis 4:* There is no difference in the level of turnover intention between lecturers in public and private universities.

**FIGURE 1**  
**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK COMPARING JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION AT PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES**



“Autonomy” and “Feedback” variables deleted because the variables fall under “Relationship with Supervisors”

## METHODS

### Sample and Procedure

The study used a mixed method and convenience sampling technique to analyse the responses from 280 lecturers at 164 public and 116 private universities from 10 higher education institutions in the North-Central region of Nigeria. The rationale for selecting convenience sampling is because previous studies had covered universities within the South-West and South-South Zones, whereas this research focuses on the North Central Zone, thus adding to the limited knowledge base. The factors behind the methodology included the purpose(s) of the research, the characteristics of the study's participants, the funds available for the investigation and the researcher's environment (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). The sample size consisted of data from three hundred and eighty-eight (388) lecturers based on a confidence level of 95%, and a confidence interval of 5 from a population of 37, 504 lecturers (Clark and Ausukuya, 2013). This sample size is supported by Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for selecting a sample size from a known population. The survey recorded data from five public and five private universities – ten institutions. The researcher surveyed thirty-eight lecturers from three faculties at each university. Two hundred and eighty (286) respondents completed and returned their questionnaires – a 73.7 percent return. Of the 286 returned questionnaires returned, six were incomplete and therefore rejected. The 280 completed questionnaires accounted for a 72.2 percent return - 164 replies from the public and 116 from private universities.

Final data collection followed two phases. The first step to collect data used the quantitative approach (survey questionnaire) composed of both closed and open-ended questions. After that, the second phase involved gathering data from ten semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interviews targeted professors and senior and junior lecturers, thus enabling the researcher to understand the issues. The reason for having these categories was to record the opinion of the academics at different levels - to have a balanced assessment of their respective viewpoints. The respondents consented to the recording of the interview. The reason for using mixed methods was to offset any defects of one approach with the qualities of another.

The Mann-Whitney U-Test analysed the quantitative data by testing the four hypotheses. The researcher adopted the Mann-Whitney U Test, the non-parametric alternative to the T-Test because:

1. The data failed the normality assumption test (a condition for using the parametric test)
2. The Mann-Whitney U Test “test[s] for differences between two independent groups on a continuous measure” (Pallant, 2013, p.235) - in line with this study's objectives. Therefore, the Mann-Whitney U Test tested two independent samples by comparing the medians and mean ranks of the samples (Pallant, 2013).
3. The data was measured on a categorical scale for the public, and private universities and the ordinal (Likert-type scale) analysed questionnaire.
4. The researcher had a better knowledge (and confidence) of the Mann-Whitney U Test - based on Pallant's (2013) simplified explanation of the procedures and interpretation – and used it as an analytical instrument – over and against the other non-parametric techniques considered.

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the interview data. Thematic analysis is a qualitative research method that aims at searching through data to identify guides to develop into themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). It is a method for recognising, arranging systematically and generating intuitions into structures or arrangements of interpretation in data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The thematic analysis enabled the researcher to identify, analyse and report on patterns within the data which enabled the researcher to derive deductive meanings from occurrences.

The questionnaire comprised four parts (A, B, C, and D) covering aspects of job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic), job dimension, intention to resign and demographics respectively. This study uses the shortened Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) to measure the lecturers' job satisfaction. The MSQ is a widely-adopted instrument for assessing job satisfaction and produces reliable and valid outcomes (Fields, 2002; Buitendach and Rothmann, 2009, Kabungaidze, Mahlatsana, and Ngirande, 2013). The short form of the MSQ is preferable to the long MSQ because respondents are more willing to participate in less time-consuming surveys and as a subset of the long form, it also addresses the intrinsic and extrinsic factors considered within the context of this study (c.f. Weiss et al. 1967, p.24). The JDS collected information about the lecturers' jobs' characteristics to determine how productivity and satisfaction can be improved to reduce turnover (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The Intention to Resign Questionnaire used the three-item scale viz. "I think a lot about leaving this organisation; I am actively searching for an acceptable alternative to this organisation; and when I can, I will leave the organisation" (Mobley et al. (1978) as cited in Hsu et al., 2003, p.364).

Section A of the questionnaire focused on Job Satisfaction measures. Using the Likert Scale, academics chose a number between one to seven, to indicate satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the factors mentioned. Section B focused on the Job Dimension measures. Using the Likert Scale rating from one to seven each respondent indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. Section C covered the intention to resign aspects. Using the Likert Scale grading from one to seven, respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements.

Widely adopted theoretical constructs gave legitimacy to the study, and methodological triangulation accounted for the credibility and validity of the results. The values of Cronbach's Alphas confirmed reliability. The value of Cronbach's Alpha, based on the standardised items for each of the constructs under investigation (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011), was 0.794 for the job satisfaction measure, 0.708 for the job dimension measure and 0.675 for the turnover intention measure. These values are acceptable and reliable as suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), Bland and Altman (1997), DeVellis (2003) and Hair et al. (2006).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### Intrinsic Factors: Hypothesis 1

**TABLE 4**  
**INTRINSIC MEASURE - HYPOTHESIS TEST SUMMARY**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
<sup>1</sup>	The distribution of Intrinsic Measure is the same across categories of Private and Public University.	Independent Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.710 <sup>1</sup>	Retain the null hypothesis

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

<sup>1</sup>The exact test significance for this test.

The results from Table 1 show that the probability value ( $p=0.71$ ) is not less than or equal to 0.05. Consequently, this study fails to reject the null hypothesis. The first hypothesis showed no statistically significant differences but indicates that the advancement and growth factor was higher among public university lecturers than their counterparts at private universities. The differences illustrated the effects of government funding initiatives (Tertiary Education Trust Fund) not available to private universities. The reward system enhanced the academic job satisfaction at some private universities – thus supporting existing studies that suggest recognition (such as verbal praise and rewards) enhances employee performance and job satisfaction (Cameron and Pierce, 2000; Ali and Ahmed, 2009; Jehanzeb et al. 2012; Sarwar and Abugre, 2013).

## Extrinsic Factors: Hypothesis 2

**TABLE 5**  
**EXTRINSIC MEASURE - HYPOTHESIS TEST SUMMARY**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
<sup>1</sup>	The distribution of Extrinsic Measure is the same across categories of University.	Independent Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.902 <sup>1</sup>	Retain the null hypothesis

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

<sup>1</sup>The exact test significance for this test.

From the hypothesis test results presented in Table 2, the probability value ( $p=0.902$ ) is not less than or equal to 0.05. Therefore, this study fails to reject the null hypothesis - no statistically significant differences in the overall extrinsic job satisfaction between public and private universities lecturers. Notwithstanding, private university lecturers experienced better working conditions while public university lecturers experienced higher job security. The individual extrinsic factors that revealed no significant differences between public and private universities were: university policies, pay relationship with peers amongst lecturers and relationship with supervisors amongst lecturers.

Also, the findings revealed that the work overload of lecturers ranked as the first stress factor at both public and private universities. In contrast, Fapohunda's (2012) study found that academics in public universities had a lesser workload than their private university counterparts. One reason for the smaller workload in public universities could be the result of flexible working hours and less supervision than at private universities. According to Olatunji and Akinlabi (2012) and Wilkes et al., (1998), the workload is a source of strain among academics and if not properly handled can lead to psychological problems or even death (Ubangari and Bako, 2014). Furthermore, many Nigerian universities lack administrative accommodation (Anijaobi-Idem and Archibong, 2012) and the findings from this study revealed that 'inadequate office space' ranked third on the list of challenges at both public and private universities. Unsurprisingly, public university academics experienced higher job security corroborating the works of Munnell and Fraenkel (2013) and Fapohunda (2012). The findings also correlate with existing studies indicating that factors affecting academics' job dissatisfaction and satisfaction in Nigerian universities are predominantly extrinsically related factors (Fapohunda, 2012; Gbenu, 2013; Ubangari and Bako, 2014; Nwakpa, 2015).

## Job Dimension Factors: Hypothesis 3

**TABLE 6**  
**JOB DIMENSION MEASURE - HYPOTHESIS TEST SUMMARY**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Job Dimension factors is the same across each university category.	Independent Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.535 <sup>1</sup>	Retain the null hypothesis

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

<sup>1</sup>This test shows an exact significance.

From the results presented in Table 3, the probability value ( $p=0.535$ ) is not less than or equal to 0.05. Consequently, this study fails to reject the null hypothesis - no statistically significant difference in job dimensions between public and private university lecturers. The test of job dimension measure comprises a pool of data drawn from all the factors vis-à-vis skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The individual factors showing no significant differences were: task identity, task

significance, autonomy and feedback. The only factor that showed a statistically significant difference was the skill variety where private universities lecturers had greater liberty to use their experience and expertise. In consequence, as supported by Hackman and Oldham's (1976, 1980) assumption, this would lead to higher job satisfaction and a consequential low turnover intention at private universities.

Hackman and Oldham (1974) argued that job dimension factors such as autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback from the job make employment more satisfying for workers, thus, reducing their intention to leave. However, skill variety is only one out of the five job dimension characteristics and may not result in high job satisfaction if the other factors are low. Notwithstanding, other grounds may account for the turnover intention of academics. Hackman and Oldham's (1974) concept of work redesign (job enlargement) is essential for public universities because job enlargement could address the challenges emanating from skill satisfactions needs.

#### **Turnover Intention: Hypothesis 4**

The findings from the fourth hypothesis showed statistically significant differences in the level of turnover intentions between lecturers at public and private universities. Private university academics reported higher turnover intentions. The researcher suggests that job security (cf. Fapohunda, 2012), advancement and growth (as result of research for funding available to academics at public universities) plus the lack of Trade Unions at private universities, are the contributory reasons for higher turnover intentions. Thus, implying that private universities are likely to lose more lecturers because actual turnover is a consequence of turnover intention (Mobley et al. 1977; Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner, 2000). There were no statistically significant differences in the reasons for turnover intention given by the academics at both public and private universities because the reasons on why a lecturer might want to leave were similar for both public and private universities. Furthermore, this study identifies the four top-ranked reasons viz. work overload (Salami, 2006), inadequate funding for research and scholarship (Gbenu, 2013), small office space (Anijaobi-Idem and Archibong, 2012) and inadequate work facilities (Akunyili, 2010) as negatively experienced factors.

#### **LIMITATIONS**

The study adopted the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U Test. However, some statisticians argue that the non-parametric tests might not be as accurate as the parametric tests (e.g. Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998; Sokal and Rohlf, 2012) and therefore, "may be less sensitive detecting a relationship or a difference among groups" (Pallant, 2013, p.116). Therefore, to address the shortcomings of the non-parametric analysis, the researcher also used interviews (where clarifications enabled respondents to understand the questions) and, as Suessbrick, Schober and Conrad (2001) state, this methodology increases the uniformity of understanding among those interviewed.

Relying on self-reported data is another limitation. Research by Belson (1981, 1986) suggests that some respondents have different ways of interpreting questions (cited in Suessbrick, Schober and Conrad, 2001, p.907). For example, in the Likert scale options, some respondents might be 'extreme responders' who use the ends of the scales, while others stay within the central points (Clarke, 2001; Harzing, 2006; Dolnicar and Grün, 2007) – thus, affecting the validity of the data. Therefore, to counter this possibility, the triangulation method was employed to collect data and, as O'Hara and Schober (2004) suggest, the variety of research methods help to capture respondents' interpretations accurately.

Another limitation is the nonprobability sampling technique employed by the study viz. convenience sampling from selected public and private universities within North-Central Nigeria. However, some researchers (e.g. Yeager et al., 2011; Farrokhi, and Mahmoudi, 2012) contend that the nonprobability sampling has limitations due to its subjective sample selection and is therefore not a true representative of the population (Schillewaert, Langerak, and Duhamel, 1998). Nevertheless, this sampling method was necessary because of the researcher's limited ability to gain access to the target population and, as Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) affirm, this method works within the boundaries of available data collection. Other reasons for selecting the convenience sampling method are because previously

researched areas covered the South-West, and South-South Zones and security concerns prevented safe access to some zones. Surveys using these approaches can, at best, serve only to give some guidance or indication about what the population might be thinking, feeling or doing (Crouch and Housden, 2003 cited in Iornem, 2014, p.6).

Finally, this privately funded research had a stringent budget limited to data collection from a sampled selection of universities within the North-Central region.

## CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

This study contributes to knowledge in four unique ways because:

**It explores an un-researched environment.** Existing studies comparing academics at public and private universities in Nigeria have focused on most universities in South-West and South-South Geopolitical Zones. This study concentrates on the comparative analysis of academics at public and private universities in North Central Area (a previously un-researched area) thereby contributing to the Nigerian literature on job satisfaction and turnover intention within the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

**Nigerian literature has relied on intrinsic and extrinsic factors to explain job satisfaction and turnover** but has ignored the core job dimension factors. In response to these fragmented and inadequate approaches, this study's new conceptual framework integrates both Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's Two-Factor theory (1959) and Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1976, 1980) to create a Three-Factor Model. This Three-Factor Model introduces the neglected factors to provide a more robust, unified and inclusive rationale for the constant, incapacitating turnover of academics in Nigerian Universities.

**The findings are unique and different from existing studies.** Sequentially, the key findings, in line with the research objectives, identify the top grounds for dissatisfaction, satisfaction and the significant whys and wherefores for turnover intention. Structurally, this arrangement differs from other studies because the ranked composition helps to classify, consecutively, the problems relating to retaining academic staff at public and private universities. For example, the findings note that there is a higher turnover intention of academics at private universities than at public universities. However, the reasons were because of the exclusive public university access to the Tertiary Education Trust Fund - not available to private university lecturers, and a greater sense of job security at public than at private universities. Furthermore, and to highlight another salient, previously unidentified anomaly, the absence of Trade Unions at private universities had contributed to its comparatively higher turnover intention than that at public universities. The Trade Union viz. ASUU at public universities however, brought the education sector to a standstill in the form of strikes until the government responded to their demands. The private universities do not have Trade Unions and therefore, do not enjoy the benefit derived from the collective bargaining power.

**The study provides empirically supported data.** This empirically supported data enriched and added to the existing Nigerian literature that provided mixed outcomes from public and private universities studies on job satisfaction. To address Nigeria's apocryphally-engendered, swirling debates about job satisfaction variables, this study established that more private university lecturers would prefer to work at public universities. This preference is attributed to the findings that private sector tertiary bodies did not benefit from the provisions of the government-funded TETFUND, there was also a relatively higher job security at public universities and the relative protection and support of Trade Unions (ASUU) at public universities. Nonetheless, it is important to note that this research only covered some public and private universities in the previously unresearched North Central Geopolitical Zone.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research on job satisfaction in other zones, particularly the North East, could lead to an understanding of the views of academics and whether their location (security threat – an extrinsic



influence) has any impact on job satisfaction and turnover. Also, comparative research involving universities in other geopolitical zones might also indicate significant responses on job satisfaction from academics.

Also, further research could incorporate the economic environment, the local context and cultural ramifications of job satisfaction and turnover intention in the different geopolitical zones. A fresh study could establish whether these factors (cultural dimension and the economic parameter) may influence allegiance and attachment to organisations, pay levels and related employment benefits, which could collectively impact on turnover.

Furthermore, the Three-Factor Theory can be applied to other organisations to identify and address not only intrinsic and extrinsic factors but also some unknown core job dimension factors affecting job satisfaction and turnover.

The Three-Factor Model is applicable to other universities in West Africa, in particular, universities from member states of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) because of their shared Africanised educational, cultural and geopolitical ties. The findings might reveal what additional variables might emerge and how these compare to the findings in the Nigerian-based literature on academic staff job satisfaction and turnover.

## **IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE**

This study's findings have relevance for the Nigerian Government, the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC), researchers, students, lecturers, management of tertiary institutions, policymakers, Trades Unions and the public. Each could benchmark the good practices adopted by some public and private universities with higher job satisfaction among academics and thus address the unnecessary, endemic turnover realities.

## **PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **High Workload**

Work overload is rooted in two circular challenges viz. low staff (inadequate staffing) creating more workload or universities not respecting their carrying capacities. Universities often exceed their carrying capacities because of the revenue generated from tuition fees – this adds to the workloads of lecturers. Recruitment or contracted appointments might ease the logjam. Conversely, universities should observe their admissions capacities. Besides the work overload, there are safety and public health implications arising from excesses in carrying capacity.

### **Inadequate Office Space/Accommodation**

For people to be motivated, the work environment needs to be comfortable (Albattat, Som and Helalat, 2013). The North-Central, for instance, is a zone where the climate is harsh. Therefore, a conducive environment where offices have air conditioning, fans and comfortable furniture would serve a beneficial purpose that could also positively impact on teaching and morale (Anijaobi-idem and Archibong, 2012).

### **Inadequate Funding**

The data showed that finance is a challenge for both public and private universities. As a suggestion, universities could have multiple funding streams. For example, a partnership with industries and endowment fund projects (the TETFUND supports the physical development of the universities). Part of the mandate of the universities could include fundraising, approaching venture capitalists and major industries to fund specific projects. Therefore, universities should consider a closer working relationship with industries.

### **Non-payment of Salaries**

The delays and non-payment of salaries are regular in Nigeria (Punch, 2016; Yabagi, 2016). Herzberg's (1987) asserts that contracted remuneration (the extrinsic factor) does not lead to job satisfaction, but money not paid (or delayed), cause dissatisfaction. Therefore, to address this discontent, the timeous payment of remuneration remains a priority for government and private university managers.

### **Lack of Reward and Recognition System in Many Universities**

All public and private universities could acknowledge and reward exceptional performance. The findings note, for example, that a private university earned high job satisfaction from academics because of the reward and recognition system.

## **CONCLUSION**

The Three-Factor Model - based on integrating aspects of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) Two-Factor Theory and Hackman and Oldham's (1976, 1980) Job Characteristics Model - provides a fresh approach for practitioners investigating the causes of job dissatisfaction and academics' intentions to resign. In consequence, this study suggests that the findings be of relevance to both the wider public and private sector environments. However, further research could also broaden the scope of the enquiry and provide the fresh information for practitioners to address the core reasons behind job turnover and intentions to resign.

The Nigerian-based Three-Factor Model has practical implications for policymakers, administrators and university management because it identifies the topmost job dissatisfaction factors and most significant reasons for turnover. Furthermore, the Three-Factor Model incorporates previously ignored variables such as "Skill Variety" and "Task Significance" that have impacted on academics. Therefore, the model is relevant because policymakers and other stakeholders should now have a fuller understanding of the turnover anomaly not identified by the cited theoretical models.

Finally, there are usually debates and mixed outcomes about which tertiary sector (public or private) provides higher academic job satisfaction. The data from the study's findings are limited to universities in North Central Nigeria and show that the majority of lecturers at private universities preferred to move to either a federal or state university - citing research opportunities, job security, good salaries and high academic standards amongst other reasons.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

The author expresses his appreciation to Professor Dr Bruce Duncan for proofreading and editing. The author also wishes to acknowledge the constructive feedback from Dr Hillary Shaw, Dr John Koenigsberger and the two anonymous peer reviewers from the British Academy of Management that led to the development of the final paper. However, the author is responsible for the content and any unintentional errors in the paper.

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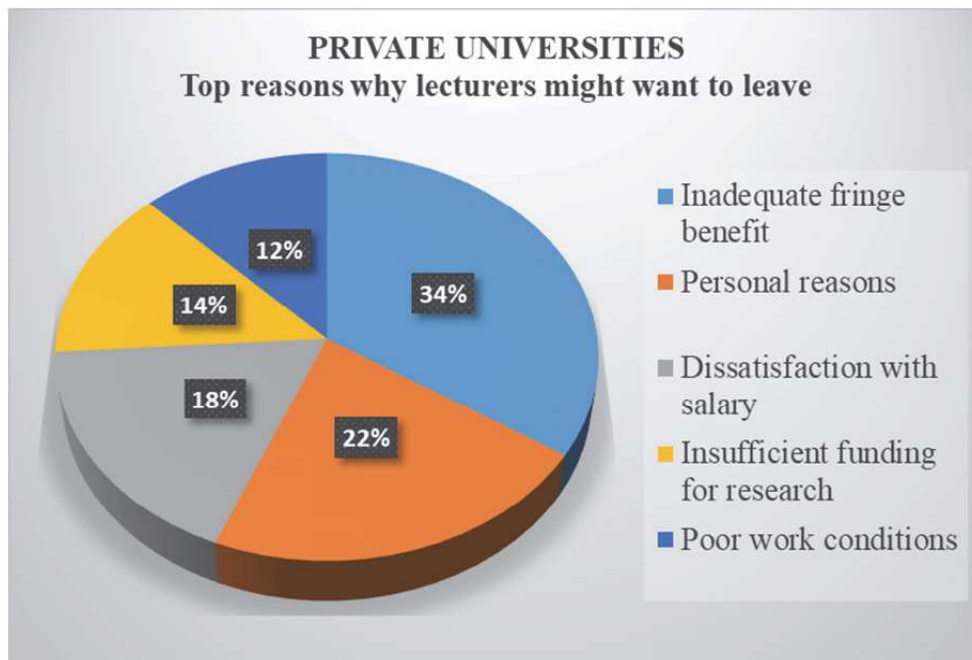
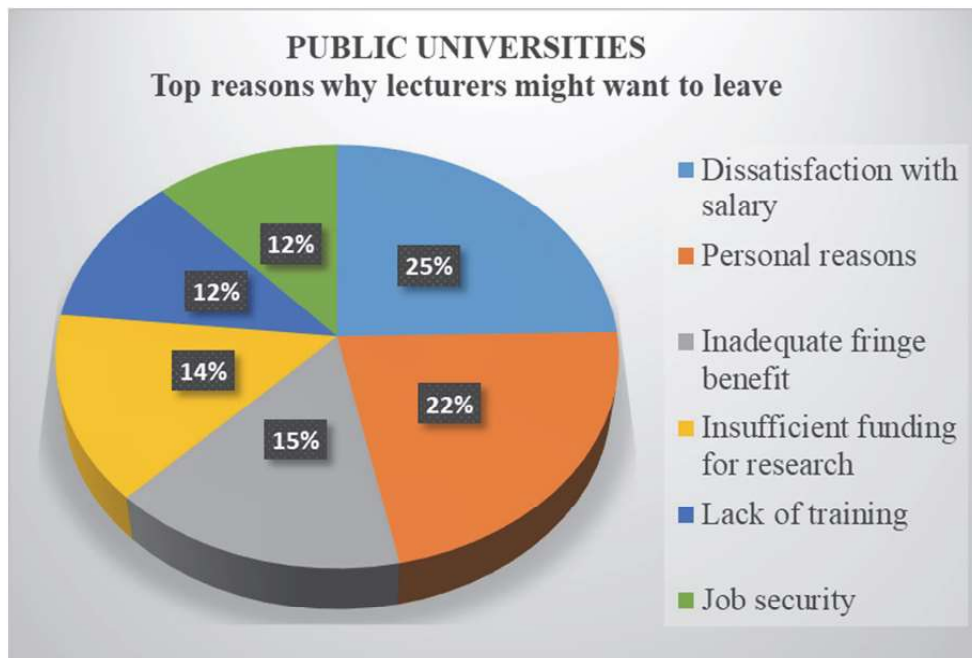
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**APPENDICES**

**TABLE 7  
TOP FIVE REASONS WHY LECTURERS MIGHT WANT TO LEAVE**

Public Universities			Private Universities	
Rank	Reasons	Frequency	Reasons	Frequency
1	Inadequate fringe benefit	25	Dissatisfaction with salary	19
2	Personal reasons	16	Personal reasons	17
3	Dissatisfaction with salary	13	Inadequate fringe benefit	12
4	Insufficient funding for research	10	Insufficient funding for research	11
5	Poor work conditions	9	Lack of training Job security	9 9

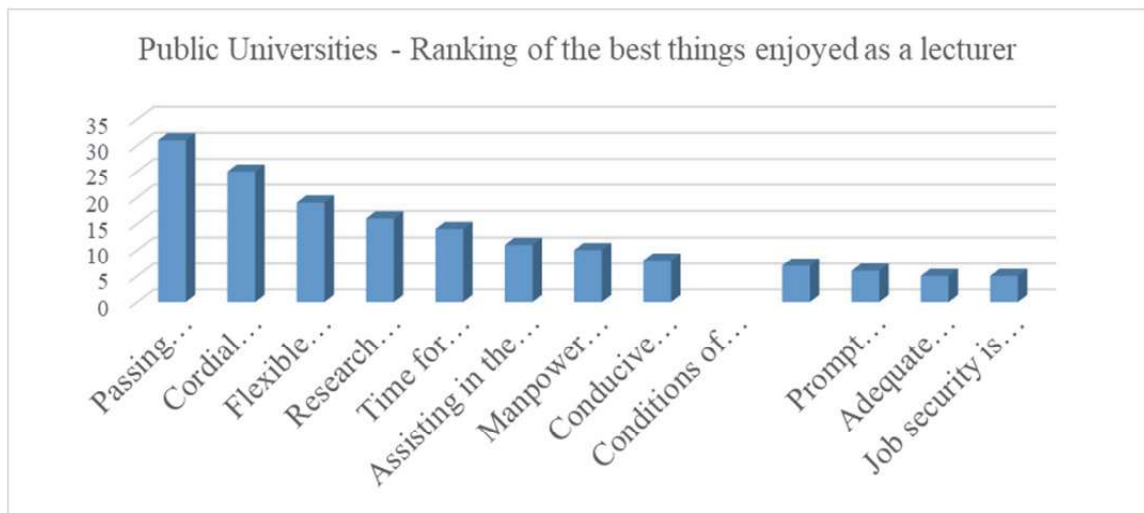
**FIGURE 2**  
**TOP REASONS WHY LECTURERS MIGHT WANT TO LEAVE**



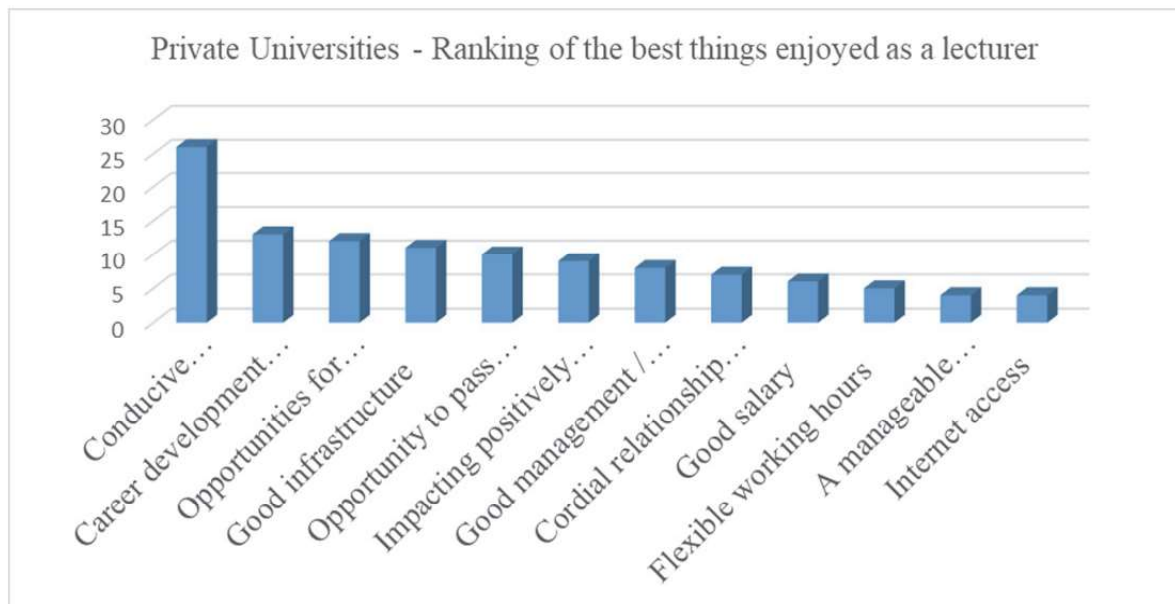
**TABLE 8**  
**RANKING OF RESPONSES – BEST THINGS ENJOYED BY LECTURERS**

<b>Best things enjoyed as a lecturer</b>				
<b>Rank</b>	<b>Public Universities</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Private Universities</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
1.	Passing knowledge to the younger generation.	31	Conducive environment for learning	26
2.	Cordial relationship amongst staff and colleagues	25	Career development opportunities	13
3.	Flexible working hours	19	Opportunities for self-improvement	12
4.	Research opportunities and academic advancement	16	Good infrastructure	11
5.	Time for personal development and pursuit of personal ambitions	14	Opportunity to pass knowledge and experience to young people	10
6.	Assisting in the career development of students	11	Impacting positively on the religious lives of the students	9
7.	Workforce training by Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND).	10	Good management/university policies	8
8.	Conducive atmosphere	8	Cordial relationship amongst staff and colleagues	7
9.	Conditions of service and university policies	7	Good salary	6
10.	Prompt payment of salaries	6	Flexible working hours	5
11.	Adequate security system within the university environment	5	A manageable number of students.	4
12.	Job security is guaranteed	5	Internet access	4

**FIGURE 3**  
**PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES - RANKING OF THE BEST THINGS ENJOYED AS A LECTURER**



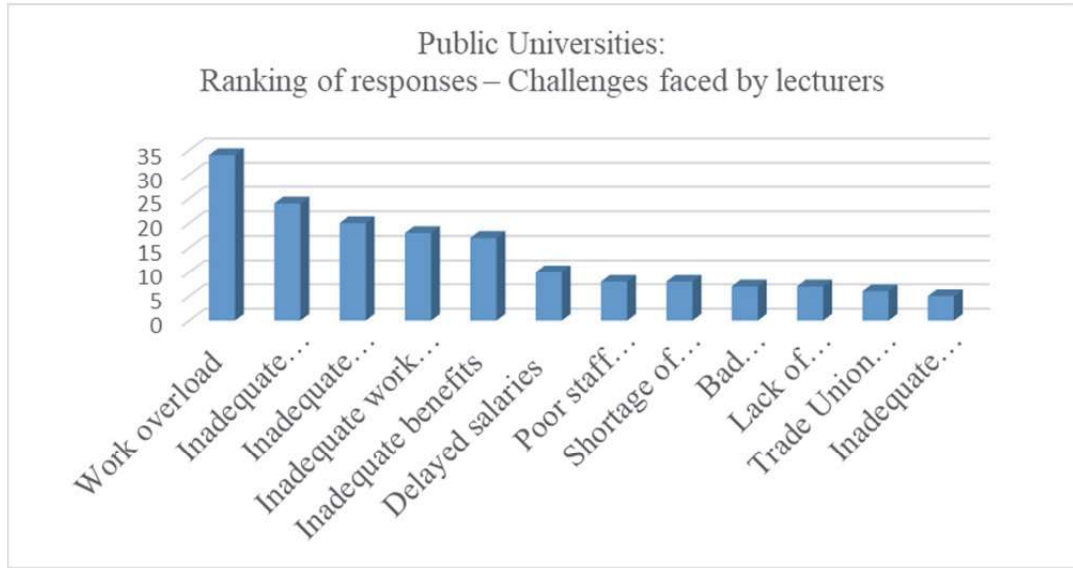
**FIGURE 4**  
**PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES - RANKING OF THE BEST THINGS ENJOYED AS A LECTURER**



**TABLE 9**  
**RANKING OF RESPONSES – CHALLENGES FACED BY LECTURERS**

<b>Challenges faced as a lecturer</b>				
<b>Rank</b>	<b>Public Universities</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Private Universities</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
1.	A large population of students per lecturer given - rising to work overload.	34	Work overload	20
2.	Inadequate funding for research and scholarship.	24	Irregular payment of salaries	17
3.	Inadequate office space	20	Inadequate office space	15
4.	Work facilities are inadequate.	18	Poor salary and remuneration	12
5.	Inadequate benefits, salary and security risk.	17	Inadequate infrastructure for teaching and learning	11
6.	The occasional delay of salary payments	10	Job insecurity	10
7.	Poor staff welfare and motivation	8	Incoherent policies and dictatorial tendencies on the part of the university management	8
8.	Shortage of accommodation for staff.	8	Lack of research sponsorship by the government for private universities	7
9.	Poor management/university policies	7	Lack of career development opportunities	6
10.	Lack of consultation before making decisions on some issues.	7	Insufficient seriousness and commitment on the part of the students.	5
11.	The constant levels of industrial strike actions by the Academic Staff Union of Universities ASUU.	6	Lack of promotion	4
12.	Inadequate internet facilities	5	Inflexible working hours	4

**FIGURE 5**  
**PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES: RANKING OF RESPONSES –**  
**CHALLENGES FACED BY LECTURERS**



**FIGURE 6**  
**PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES: RANKING OF RESPONSES –**  
**CHALLENGES FACED BY LECTURERS**

