FACTORS AFFECTING ACADEMIC JOB PERFORMANCE IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES; A CASE STUDY OF DELTA STATE UNIVERSITY and IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY OKADA

M. Odigiri, University of Sunderland, United Kingdom

Dr. D. Watson, University of Sunderland, United Kingdom

Dr. Fanos Tekelas, UCLAN, Cyprus

Prof C. Hayes, University of Sunderland, United Kingdom
ABSTRACT

This study critically evaluates the factors affecting employees’ job performance among academics between the private and public Higher Educational Institutes (HEIs) in Nigeria. Two universities were selected as case studies; one public, Delta State University Abraka (DELSU), and the other private, Igbinedion University Okada (IUO). A mixed method was adopted for this research. The sample size was 96 questionnaires that were statistically analysed using SPSS, including Pearson’s correlation and MS-Excel. A further eight individual interviews were also conducted and thematically analysed.

The findings revealed four key factors: Firstly, increased teaching load and the high demand on teaching has a significant effect on academic job performance. Secondly, the pressure to publish papers has an effect on academics’ morale. Thirdly, academics feel that the pressure to engage in third stream activities is eroding their professional identity. Finally, changes in government policy and a lack of funding have had a negative effect on academic performance.

INTRODUCTION

How much a nation advances often correlates with the quality of human resources and the educational achievement of its citizens. Universities, just like any other organisation, depend on the performance of their employees to achieve their strategic goals, which in education are predominantly about imparting knowledge to its students (Ali et al., 2014). The fulcrum of an organisation’s success hinges on how management utilises their employees’ capabilities in achieving organisational goals and objectives. Those employees who are generally happy in their employment invariably help and sustain organisational growth (Armstrong and Taylor, 2014).

In the 21st century, job performance is a constant challenge for any organisation. It acts as a barometer to gauge employee efficiency and effectiveness in carrying out their roles. By definition job performance is the extent to which an organisational employee contributes to the realisation of the organisational goals and objectives (Davoudi and Allahyari, 2013). Rees and French (2010) defined job performance as the skills that an employee possesses in performing the job required by the employer. Javed et al. (2013) further explain that the management of the organisation, the job itself or even the employee’s own behaviour influences their job performance. In essence, good job performance does not just drive productivity in organisations but it directly influences employee extrinsic and intrinsic self-accomplishment.

RATIONALE FOR RESEARCH

A report by the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC, 2011) highlighted that whilst there has been a planned strategic expansion in Nigerian universities, there has been a contraction in the morale of academic staff which has eroded job performance in both private and public educational institutions (Obhineli, 2013). In order to control and manage this trend, there is a need to find out the contributory factors that have led to the decline in job performance.

The aim of this research is to investigate the internal and external pressures affecting academic staff job performance in two selected Nigerian universities, namely Igbinedion University Okada (IUO) and Delta State University Abraka (DELSU).

The objectives are as follows:

1. To investigate the factors creating low morale amongst academics in universities.
2. To investigate if academics' participation in third-stream activities could affect their job performance.
3. To investigate if salaries and incentives affect the job performance of academics.

The study will be based on the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Increased teaching load and the high demand on teaching has a significant effect on academic job performance.
Hypothesis 2: High demand for research affects the morale and job performance of academics.
Hypothesis 3: The increased pressure of ‘third stream’ or ‘third mission’ activities significantly affects teaching and academic morale.
**CONTEXT OF STUDY**

Nigerian HEIs can be grouped into three categories, namely federal universities, state universities and the private or individually owned universities (NUC, 2011). They can be further classified according to their year of establishment. First generation universities were established in the country before the 1970’s. Second generation universities are those established in the 1970’s. Third generation universities are those established either by the federal or state governments in the 1980’s and 1990’s. Finally, fourth generation universities are those established in the late 1990’s and 2000’s mainly by private individuals or organisations (Obineli, 2013). Furthermore, the Nigerian University Commission (NUC) funds the federal institutions while the state-owned universities receive funds through the state ministries of education or the governors’ office (Akindoju et al., 2010).

Established in 1999, the fourth generation Edo-state IUO in Okada was the first premier private university in Nigeria. Operating on a collegiate system of tertiary education (IUO, 2012), it has 5000 students. Its founder provides 70% of funds and the remaining 30% is sourced from companies and agencies (IUO, 2012). Whilst DELSU is a government-funded institution, historically recorded as a centre of education, this university is one of the third generation universities established in 1970s, as a College of Education and awarded a Certificate of Education (N.C.E.). However, in 1992 it was converted into a state university and is funded by the state government (NUC, 2011).

**CHANGE IN NIGERIAN GOVERNMENT POLICIES THAT AFFECT ACADEMIC STAFF**

Nigerian universities recognise three prominent unions. They are the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), the Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU) and (NASU) the Non-Academic Staff Union (Osakwe, 2014). It is the major objective of these unions to protect the interests of their members against government policies and changes. However, one needs to be mindful that these unions are all under the umbrella of the Nigerian University Commission (NUC) which oversees the affairs of all institutes whether private or public.

The issues of funding and changes in policies have always been a source of crisis in the Nigerian educational system (Obineli, 2013). The aforementioned unions have regularly expressed their concerns to the Nigerian government concerning the poor funding of the educational system. Amusa et al. (2013) reported in 2012, that 5.1% of the federal government’s national budget was spent on education. When related to the GDP, Federal government expenditure on education averages 1.1%. Furthermore, UNESCO (2012) stated that Nigeria spends 1.1% of its GDP/GNP on education while other African nations like Ghana spend 3.6%, Kenya 6.2% and Zimbabwe 9.5%.

The effect of poor funding has resulted in the low morale of academics, especially those in the federal and state universities (Gbenu, 2013). The issue of government funding has led to several stand-offs between the federal government and the various academic unions and this has subsequently led to numerous strikes in Nigerian HEIs. Osakwe, (2014) stated that, at an institutional level, university management/authorities and academics staff unions have not had a cohesive relationship.

Nigerian vice chancellors have often been in dispute with unions, predominantly concerning payment of outstanding allowances, salaries and the funding of various university projects. For instance, when government funding is allocated, there are occasions when university management apportion those funds to projects that have no bearing on teaching and learning (Ifedili and Ifedili, 2012). Olagunju, (2014) suggested that the vice chancellors’ inability to successfully manage the limited resources available to their institutions is because management had acquired unrestricted power to manipulate university funds to their own gains.

Nigerian policy changes have historically been influenced by the disagreement between the government and the unions. There are many examples in which the Nigerian government has passed polices to counter ASSU strike actions. Such policies have included the seizure of salaries under the pretext of ‘no work no pay’, ejection of academics from government quarters, etc. (Arikewuyo, 2010). Osakwe (2014) noted that such governmental action leads to further job dissatisfaction among academics.
Universities produce a valuable knowledge input for innovation and they disseminate this knowledge into the social and economic arena. They strive to accomplish this aim in carrying out three missions, referred to as first stream teaching, second stream research and interaction with the social-economic environment, commonly referred to as third stream (Teichler and Höhle, 2013). Whilst, there is a major debate surrounding these three missions in higher education, such dialogue continues to remain vague (Bianchini et al., 2013) and many universities are challenged in effectively integrating and embedding such strategies (Watson and Hall, 2016).

In response to increased competition and governmental interference, universities are undertaking radical structural and functional realignments to maintain their competitiveness (Watson and Hall, 2015). The collateral changes have affected academics, who in many cases are struggling with the pace of change (Nadeem et al., 2011). Subsequently, the academic capacity to consistently deliver effective teaching has been compromised and many feel under pressure and question their once cherished professional identity (Teichler and Höhle, 2013).

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development commissioned Henard (2011) to lead a national survey of academic staff to examine trends in teaching and to determine the factors affecting the quality of work and capacity for effective job performance. The outcome of the survey revealed that “fundamental work motives” were being compromised by confusion of purpose and the competing demands placed on academics (Hildebrandt and Eom, 2011). Furthermore, according to Law and Fiedler (2012) academics have been demotivated by imposed management practices. This ‘new managerialism’ involves managing institutes in a manner that is similar to many of the practices and values of the private-for-profit sector (Watson, 2014). This new regime has further resulted in academics questioning their initial academic ‘calling’ into the profession (Hughes et al., 2011).

**First Stream (Teaching) Affecting Academics’ Job Performance**

Academic communities of practice play a critical role in any society in the sense that academics are the source of the transformation of knowledge, and as such, academics are expected to be the dynamo of any educational system (Razzak, 2011). However, internal pressures such as additional work-loading models, demands for research and becoming involved participants in external engagement are among the core factors which adversely affect job performance and morale (Nadeem et al., 2011). Shaheen et al. (2013) further support the view that the consequences of excessive workloads on academics have an adverse effect on their professional identity thereby leading to a reduction in job performance level.

A survey carried out by the York University Faculty Association (YUFA) postulates that in the last five years the teaching loads of academics have increased globally (YUFA, 2013). Table 1 shows the responses from 430 academic survey respondents. The outcome of the survey shows that 62% of the respondents ranked workload as significant factor. 65% of the respondents said that their workload had increased in the last five years and, most importantly, 42% of the respondents stated that it is very difficult to achieve a balance between teaching, research and external engagement. However, research is contentious as Teichler and Höhle (2013) hold the view that class size has a substantial influence on academic schedules. Whilst alternative studies highlight that even when there is an effect, it is not significant (Machado-Taylor et al., 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YUFA survey respondents (n=430) who say…</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workload is an important priority</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My workload has increased in the last 5 years</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, email from students has significantly increased my teaching load</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My class sizes are too large for optimal learning</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other aspects of workload are so heavy that few members in my unit want to do committee work or fill chairs and programme director positions</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is very difficult to achieve a balance among teaching, research and service</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive no teaching load credit for graduate supervision</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 1 Source: (YUFA, 2013).*
Second Stream (Research) Affecting Job Performance

Institutions in Nigeria and all over the world are placing more pressure on research activity (Obineli, 2013). Even liberal art colleges and professional fields such as business and law have been increasingly devoting resources to research activity (Shan et al., 2011). However, it is still acknowledged that for many non-traditional universities teaching is the primary goal/cash cow of a university, (Watson and Hall, 2016).

In response to the continuing global economic recession which began in 2008, the Nigerian government has reduced state funding for universities. This has resulted in universities having to ‘do more with less’. In response, universities have placed increased pressure on academics to improve their research output. This is very beneficial for the institution in terms of reputation and funding, but inversely affects academic job performance (Obineli, 2013). It is perceived by many academics that they must ‘publish or perish’ (Ali et al., 2014). However, there is general agreement that the sourcing for funds through research activities is a viable avenue to keep institution’s solvent and relevant (Teichler and Höhle, 2013). In consequence of the shifting of boundaries within the academic profession (Kogan and Teichler, 2009), many traditional academics are experiencing a culture shock whilst new academics entering the profession know no other environment (Shaheen et al., 2013). Such perceived polarisation has resulted in academics further questioning their professional identity (Hughes, 2011).

The number of hours academic staff dedicate to teaching is fairly homogenous (Wong, 2010). In Nigeria, most academics spend between 14 and 20 hours on research, in comparison to 13 to 18 hours on teaching (Obineli, 2013). Shin et al. (2013) explains that the increased pressure to research without a reduction in teaching will ultimately hinder student support. A number of critics (Basak, 2014, Bennis and O’Toole 2005 and Boyer 1990,) contend that universities are neglecting teaching in favour of research (Kogan and Teichler, 2009).

Woods (2012) states that professional status is being “loosened and broadened” and scientific careers are becoming too risky or unwarranted. Academic identities are increasingly becoming more amalgamated with functions and tasks outside academia, which are seen by many academics as an “ultra-virus” to their profession (Watson, 2014). Hakala (2009) explains that most academics feel their once valued profession is “just another job”, with no more motivational currency (Vorely and Nelles, 2008).

Third-Stream (External Engagement) Affecting Academic Job Performance

Bianchini et al. (2013), refer to ‘third stream or third mission’, as activities that are coordinated towards knowledge transfer in order to establish relationships with the commercialisation of university research and teaching, such as consultancies, business start-ups and entrepreneurial incubators. Leydesdorff (2012), utilising the “Triple Helix” model (see figure 1), identifies three integrated missions, namely teaching, research and external engagement. Other authors, such as Montesinos et al. (2008) further clarify the activities of the third stream into three missions. The first mission is called ‘social third mission’, which involves universities offering services that do not generate revenue, e.g. voluntary and social responsibilities. The second mission is called ‘enterprising third mission’ that is an avenue for universities to generate revenue, such as consultancies, advisory work and outsourcing services. Finally, the third mission is called ‘innovative third mission’ and this involves utilising university services to aid networking within society, such as joint ventures and technology transmission.

Sliskovic and Sersic (2011) states that academics are being pressurised by their institutions to provide advice outside academia. Teichler and Höhle (2013) hold the view that third stream involvement may hinder academic first stream teaching and the availability to support students. Watson and Hall (2016) further stated that the increased expectation on academic staff to source additional revenues for the institution via third stream engagement causes further academic job performance frustrations, primarily due to a lack of training, recognition, reward and adequate work loading allowances.
METHODOLOGY

The research utilised online questionnaires and used a pragmatic approach (Lund, 2012). The questionnaire was structured into a format having closed Likert-scale and open-ended questions. This provided an opportunity for more in-depth answers/responses from the 96 respondents. Furthermore the study also utilised an inferential survey, (one that accommodates small data samples but which are a representative sample of the population) as the research strategy aimed at highlighting relationships between variables made by assumptions (hypothesis) regarding the nature of relationship between variables (Christensen et al., 2012). The data was statistically analysed using IBM SPSS version 20, and this was used in testing the correlation (Pearson correlation) between variables. MS-Excel was also used. A semi-structured method was also adopted for the eight research interviews via Skype video-calls. The interview questions were arranged sequentially so as to give better insight and explanations to the research participants and were transcribed and analysed using thematic-analysis.

RESULTS PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

In this section, the demographic profile of the respondents is outlined showing respondents' gender, duration of employment and position.

Gender-Distribution

The gender distribution for this research survey is presented in the figures below.

The results from the survey (see figure 2) shows that 57 respondents out of 96 questionnaires were male, representing 59% of the total sample size, and 41% of the respondents (39) were female. The main rationale for the inclusion of gender distribution is to establish whether there is a difference in the way male academic-staff and female academic-staff experience pressures and the factors that affect their level of job performance (Amusa et al., 2013). Results show that 55% of the respondents (29) from DELSU are male and 64% from IUO are male respondents (28). Female respondents consisted of 44% and 36% from DELSU and IUO respectively. This equates to 23 and 16 female participants from DELSU and IUO respectively.
Results show that 40% of the respondents have been employed in the university system for over 10 years. About 24% of the sample had been employed in the university for 5-10 years, followed by 25% who had been employed for 1-5 years. However, only a small fraction of the sample had been employed in the university for less than one year (see figure 3).

**Hypothesis 1: Increased Teaching Load And The High Demand On Teaching Has A Significant Effect On Academic Job Performance**

Figure 4 (DELSU) and figure 5 (IUO) below show the comparison of relationship between increased teaching load and high demand on teaching and large class size and increased teaching hours.

Figure 4 above shows that 52% (27 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that increased teaching load has an effect on their level of job performance; 38% (20 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ large class-size and longer teaching hours is the cause of the increase. 40% (21 academics) and 54% (28 academics) ‘agreed’ with the above-mentioned effects. However, 2% (1 academic) ‘disagreed’ and 6% (3 academics) were ‘undecided’.

Figure 4 above shows that 52% (27 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that increased teaching load has an effect on their level of job performance; 38% (20 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ large class-size and longer teaching hours is the cause of the increase. 40% (21 academics) and 54% (28 academics) ‘agreed’ with the above-mentioned effects. However, 2% (1 academic) ‘disagreed’ and 6% (3 academics) were ‘undecided’.

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*Duration of Employment in Higher-Education*

Figure 3: Duration of Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-1 year</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10+</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3: Duration of Employment*
For IUO respondents, 49% (i.e. 21 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that increased teaching load has an effect on their level of job performance; 39% (i.e. 17 academics) ‘strongly agreed’ that large class-size and longer teaching hours are the cause of the increase in teaching load. However, 18% (i.e. 8 academics) and 20% (i.e. 9 academics) were ‘undecided’ and 5% (i.e. 2 academics) and 6% (i.e. 3 academics) disagreed (see figure 5).

In order to test if there is a significant relationship between the respective dependent and independent variables the following hypotheses were tested:

\[ H_0: \text{ Increased teaching-load and high demand on teaching have no significant relationship/effect on academics’ job performance.} \]

\[ H_1: \text{ Increased teaching-load and high demand on teaching has a significant relationship/effect on academics’ job performance.} \]

\[ H_0 = 0 \]

\[ H_1 \neq 0 \]

For DELSU, results revealed that the Cronbach's Alpha was 0.932 and this is above the minimal acceptable value of 0.7. However, the Pearson’s correlation test indicates that the relationship between ‘increased teaching load and high demand on teaching and large class size and increased teaching hours’ is positively correlated and strong with the number of respondents \( r (52) = .873^{**}, p < .000 \). Hence, we reject \( H_0 \) then accept \( H_1 \) that is under the 99% level of confidence.

For IUO, results revealed that Cronbach's Alpha was 0.958 above the minimal acceptable value of 0.7 and the closer to 1 the more reliable. The Pearson's correlation indicates that \( r (44) = .920^{**} \) is very strong and positively correlated. Therefore, we accept \( H_1 \), that is under the 99% level of confidence.

These results from both samples support the literature because they are consistent with the views of Nadeem et al. (2011), Shaheen, Sajid and Batooll (2013) and Barrett and Barret, (2008) which state that increased teaching load and high demand on teaching affect the job performance of academic-staff due to large class-size/longer teaching hours.
Hypothesis 2: High Demand In Research Activities Affects The Morale And Job Performance Of Academics

Figure 6 (DELSU) and figure 7 (IUO) below show the comparison of the relationship between the high demands for research activities on academics’ morale, job performance and the factors that influence this pressure (financial benefits and reputation).

Figure 6 above showed that 33% (17 academics) in DELSU ‘strongly-agreed’ that high demands on research activities affect their job performance. 33% (17 academics) also ‘strongly-agreed’ that this demand is as a result of the financial benefits and reputation the university will obtain. 9% (5 academics) and 13% (7 academics) were ‘undecided’.

Responses from IUO showed that 41% (18 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that high demands on research activities affect their job performance; 36% (16 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that this demand is as a result of the financial benefits and reputation the university will obtain. 21% (9 academics) and 23% (10 academics) were ‘undecided’, 2% (1 academic) and 7% (7 academics) ‘disagreed’ (see figure 7).
These relationships will be tested with the stated hypotheses below:

\[ H_0: \] High demand on research does not affect the morale and job performance of academics.

\[ H_1: \] High demand on research affects the morale and job performance of academics.

\[ H_0 = 0 \]

\[ H_1 \neq 0 \]

For DELSU, results revealed that the Cronbach's Alpha was 0.840 and this is above the minimal satisfactory value of 0.7. However, the Pearson's correlation test indicates that the relationship between 'high demand on research activities on academics and the financial benefits and reputation the university will obtain' is positively correlated and strong with \( r (52) = .724**, p < .000 \). Hence, we reject \( H_0 \) then accept \( H_1 \) that is under the 99% level of confidence.

For IUO, results revealed that Cronbach's Alpha reliability was 0.962, above the minimal acceptable value of 0.7 and the closer to 1 the more reliable. Pearson's correlation indicates that \( r (44) = .928** \) is very strong and positively correlated. Therefore, we reject \( H_0 \) then accept \( H_1 \) that is under the 99% level of confidence.

The above results from both samples indicate that ‘the level of job performance and the morale of academic-staff is affected by the increased demand of research activities by the management of both universities. This supports the literature as it is consistent with the views of Barrett and Barrett (2008); Sliskovic and Sersic (2011) state that academics are faced with the pressure to publish or perish and this negatively affects their level of performance and that this is as result of the reputation and financial gain the university will gain.

**Hypothesis 3: The Increased Pressure Of ‘Third Stream’ Or ‘Third Mission’ Activities Significantly Affect Teaching And Academic Morale**

Figure 8 (DELSU) and figure 9 (IUO) below show the comparison of the relationship between the increased pressure to participate in external engagements and the professional identity/status of academics.

![Figure 8: Relationship between increased pressure to participate in external engagement and the professional identity/status of academics 'DELSU'](image)

From figure 8 above we see that 21% (11 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that increased pressure to participate in third stream affects their job performance; 33% (17 academics) also ‘strongly-agreed’ that their professional status is been eroded by the increased pressure to engage in third-stream. 56% (29 academics) and 44% (23 academics) agreed to the above-mentioned effects of third stream participation.
For IUO, 46% (20 academics) ‘strongly-agreed’ that increased pressure to participate in third stream affects their job performance; 59% (26 academics) also ‘strongly-agreed’ that their professional status is been eroded due to the increased pressure to engage in third-stream (see figure 9).

These relationships will be tested with the stated hypotheses below:

**H$_0$**: The increased pressure of ‘third stream’ or ‘third mission’ activities does not significantly affect teaching, its related activities and academics’ morale

**H$_1$**: The increased pressure of ‘third stream’ or ‘third mission’ activities significantly affects teaching, its related activities and academics’ morale

H$_0$ = 0

H$_1$ $\neq$ 0

For DELSU, results revealed that the Cronbach's Alpha was 0.953 and this is above the minimal satisfactory value of 0.7. However, the Pearson's correlation test indicates that the relationship between the ‘increased pressure to participate in external engagements and the professional identity/status of academics’ is positively correlated and was strong with r (52) = .927**, p < .000. Hence, we reject H$_0$ then accept H$_1$ that is under the 99% level of confidence.

For IUO, results revealed that Cronbach's Alpha reliability statistic was 0.886, above the minimal acceptable value of 0.7 and the closer to 1 the more reliable. The Pearson's correlation indicates that r (44) = .808** is very strong and positively correlated. Therefore, we reject H$_0$ then accept H$_1$ that is under the 99% level of confidence.

The results above from both research-samples (DELSU and IUO), show that increased pressure on academics to participate in external engagement, which is the third-stream of HEIs, affects their level of job-performance. Also, data analysis shows that academics feel that their professional identity is being eroded. These findings are consistent with the views of Teichler and Höhle (2013) and Woods (2012).
CONCLUSION

To conclude, the outcome from the data analysis will be examined in order to reveal if the research objectives and stated hypotheses have been satisfied.

Objectives 1: To Investigate The Factors Creating Academic’s Low Morale In Universities

In order to achieve this objective, questionnaires were also administered and a series of semi-structured interviews were utilised to capture the perception of academics. Questions were asked concerning academics’ perception of first, second and third stream activities. This research study revealed the factors creating academics’ low morale from DELSU and IUO academics.

Firstly, increased teaching-loads showed that the pressure on academics to handle large classes and increased teaching hours is affecting the performance of academics. Academics from both institutions explained that these pressures create stress and fatigue. These findings are consistent with the literature, as several authors highlighted that increased teaching and high demand on teaching affects the job performance of academics.

The research findings revealed that the pressure on academics to engage in more research activities is one of the factors creating reduced job performance. However, the research findings revealed a clear difference of opinion between the executive and academics. Surprisingly, the executives felt that academics are not being pressured to participate in third stream activities and they had the required skills.

Secondly, research findings also revealed that the issues of government policy changes and lack of funding is another factor affecting academics, especially those in DELSU because they are primarily funded by the government. For IUO academics, they are also affected, but as a result of the unavailability of the Tertiary Education Trust Fund. Academics agreed that the issue of funding is the reason why there are strike actions by the different academics unions.

Objectives 2: To Investigate If Academics’ Participation In Third Stream Activities Could Affect Their job Performance

Authors such as Sliskovic and Sersic (2011) stated that academics were being pressured by their institutions to use their existing knowledge to provide advice outside academia. In consequence, this has resulted in academics reflecting on their professional identity and their professional calling. The data analysis indicated that academics are being pressured to participate in third-stream activities to source additional or back-fill traditional funding streams. The research findings also highlighted the fact that the majority of Nigerian academics purposely entered the teaching profession purely to teach and to be research active. Any encroachment on those two activities will erode their professional calling. Data analysis also indicated that increased pressure to participate in third stream activities affects the performance of academics as they were unable to provide additional support to further enrich student learning.

Objective 3: To Investigate If Salaries And Incentives Affect The Job Performance Of Academics

Questions concerning academics’ remunerations in the questionnaire and semi-structured interview sections identified that pay has a motivational value and that there was a significant relationship between academic pay and job performance. In addition, Nigerian academics openly stated that there was a real need to provide a code of practice to reward such activities. This finding was consistent with the empirical findings of Hilderbaandt and Eom, 2011, and Fapohunda (2010).

In summary, it is quite evident that Nigerian universities are not alone in facing the global educational challenges of the 21st century, such as the continuing economic recession, increased competition from both traditional universities and newly privately funded institutions and significantly reduced governmental funding streams. Universities certainly need to be more competitive in their service offering to both retain and attract students.
Whilst it is generally agreed and accepted that Nigerian universities need to change, their university executives need to be mindful in ensuring that the majority of front line academics are committed to their institutional change strategy. Many academics embarked on their professional careers to teach and therefore to be required to participate in second stream research and third stream activities is seen as a weakening of their professional ethos. This is primarily due to a lack of consultation, effective work-loading tariffs, suitable training and agreed remuneration. To ignore their concerns will further hinder their commitment and ultimately their job performance to the benefit of competitors.

REFERENCES


