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**JOB SATISFACTION OF UNIVERSITY ACADEMICS: PERSPECTIVES
FROM UGANDA**

NASSER ABDOOL KARIM SSESANGA

A dissertation submitted to the University of Bristol in accordance with the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Education in the Faculty of Social Sciences, Graduate School of Education.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated factors contributory to Ugandan academics' satisfaction and dissatisfaction reported by a sample of (N=182) respondents drawn from the population of dons in two universities in Uganda: Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) and Makerere University, Kampala (MUK). Sources of Ugandan dons' satisfaction and dissatisfaction were examined in the context of the Herzberg dichotomy, drawing comparisons with evidence adduced from other cultural settings. The research aimed to elicit evidence-informed data to obtain insights into the state of the academic profession in Uganda, and in the process define priorities that might focus the discourse of university administrators, planners, managers, policy makers, and researchers.

A three-phase research design was utilised involving both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data extraction. An objective-focused survey instrument with eight job aspects of academics, containing both scale and open-ended items, was constructed and administered. Additionally, interviews and documentary data were used to triangulate the findings so as to give greater support to any conclusions that may be made.

The factors most prevalent in the prediction of Ugandan dons' satisfaction related to co-worker behaviour, supervision and *intrinsic* facets of teaching. Analogously, the stimuli that created respondents' dissatisfaction were largely *extrinsic* (contextual) factors with respect to remuneration, governance, research, promotion, and working environment. It is potentially instructive to note, however, that the findings did not lend support to Herzberg's contention that *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors are mutually exclusive. Consistent with the situational occurrences theory, Quarstein (1992) supported by Oshagbemi (1997) and Evans (1998), it was concluded that any given factor be it *intrinsic* or *extrinsic* could either evoke satisfaction or induce dissatisfaction. While age, rank, as with tenure significantly predicted academic job satisfaction, no evidence was adduced to support a gender influence on respondents' job satisfaction. Emerging from the findings, implications for job satisfaction of Ugandan academics were formulated, recommendations made, and a research agenda proposed. This research, thus, offers not only sound insights into the state of the academic profession in Uganda, but also it forms a benchmark for future research.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my mother, **Hajjati Mariam Nakasolya** and my father the late **Hajji Abdul wa Dudu Ismail Kakembo** who passed away in the course of this journey.

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Finally, there are two people to whom my debt is too great to be adequately acknowledged in the acknowledgement. The book is for my parents, to whom I dedicate it as a small token of my appreciation.

DECLARATION

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the Regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original except where indicated by reference in the text and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any other degree.

Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University of Bristol.

The dissertation has not been presented to any other University for examination in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Signed..........

Date.....4-10-2001.....

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AUT	Association of University Teachers
EPRC	Education Policy Review Commission
ESIP	Education Strategic Investment Plan
HOD	Head of Department
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ITEK	Institute of Teacher Education, Kyambogo
IUASA	Islamic University Academic Staff Association
IUIU	Islamic University in Uganda
JIG	Job in General
MUASA	Makerere University Academic Staff Association
MUK	Makerere University, Kampala
PDD	Planning and Development Office
PSRR	Public Service and Review Restructure
SDP	Staff Development Programme
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
Ug.Shs.	Uganda Shillings
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UPK	Uganda Polytechnic, Kyambogo

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARYFYING COMPONENTS

1.1. An Endangered Profession?

At a time when the geographic lines that divided the world of scholarship are becoming blurred (Boyer et al., 1994), higher education systems in both the affluent and the afflicted world find themselves amidst a difficult process of change that will obviously impact on the positioning of their principal workers. Indeed, public debate and academic reflection on the academic profession is not characterised by contentment and serenity (Enders, 1999), and with a plethora of what are cleverly called *structural reforms*, the skills of being an academic are increasingly becoming isolated and fragmented (Smyth and Hattam, 2000). Apparently, the issue is not power point, but as Cutright (2000) opined the point is power; who holds it and to what ends? For instance, some argue that with the growth of privately sponsored research, the interests of firms have become dominant on campus, and consequently, academics has become “corporatized” (Altbach, 2001). To this end academics are affected by major trends evident in universities worldwide notably accountability, massification, managerial controls, and deteriorating financial support (Altbach and Chait, 2001). It would seem apt to be assumed, therefore, that not only is the academic workplace changing rapidly worldwide, but also the academic profession hardly can cope with the professional tensions it has to live with, that the academic profession is endangered.

1.1.1. The Ugandan Context: Doing More with Less

Given that most people want to feel good about their lives (Miner, 1992), and since work is a vital aspect of most people's lives, (Oshagbemi, 1996), an examination of the factors involved in job satisfaction is relevant in improving the well being of a significant number of people. Consequently, if teaching and learning in universities in Uganda is to be effective, an exploration of factors that covertly or overtly affect the physical and mental well being of academics, their feelings, morale, as well as productivity, is increasingly becoming necessary. This study is motivated primarily by a personal and professional concern about the existence of increasing demands on academics by universities in Uganda, while most dons operate under adverse circumstances (Saint, 1992; Kajubi, 1992). In fact, there is reduced rigour in staff recruitment and promotional criteria, and educational quality is declining as a result of increased enrolments and reduced funding (Ocitti, 1993). For instance, 48 percent of posts are unfilled at MUK (Sanyal, 1995).

In Uganda, as elsewhere in SSA, government and university budget cuts are common; resources are generally depleting, and as Saint (1992) observed economic austerity measures of the World Bank/IMF as well as the political expediency of the New World Order are biting hard and rendering the idea of national independence almost meaningless. Indeed, out of US \$710m earmarked for Uganda's Education Strategic Investment Plan (ESIP)-1998-2003, only 9% of the total figure is for higher education (The New Vision, 1999a). These developments, Garrett (1999) maintained are all features of the programmes currently being undertaken by many developing countries in their drive towards Universal Primary Education (UPE).

Consequently, important changes are occurring in (SSA) universities particularly Uganda. As Hughes and Mwiria (1990) noted these changes include a sharp increase

in student enrolment, the growth in mature student entry, a shift in resources from higher education to primary education and the likelihood that students will have to pay more and more for their education. Seemingly, staff pay is inadequate, housing facilities appalling and the housing allowance paid in lieu is insufficient, yet the volume of work has increased with increased student enrolment. Arguably, Ugandan dons have to teach increasingly more from a shrinking resource base, and in the face of an explosion of knowledge and skills not seen before. Not unexpectedly, such changes as suggested by Oshagbemi (1997) are likely to affect the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of university teachers. What is frightening, however, is that in Uganda not much attention has been devoted to the impact of these changes on the qualitative aspects of academic life.

That the above changes are likely to cause considerable disturbance to academics, upset them, and even cause disaffection, is recognised in Uganda, yet little is done to reduce it or even study it. It would seem to be common sense that this has led to rising expressions of concern over the quality of university education in Uganda, and high levels of unease reported among academics (Ocitti, 1993). Elsewhere, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) contended that this trend in events gives rise to questions about the nature and level of satisfaction of academics with their work and employment, and constitute a clear deterioration in terms and conditions of academic employment (Altbach and Chait, 2001). Yet, Garrett (1999) warned that if one of the ultimate aims of education in developing countries is to crucially improve the quality of work of teachers in the classroom, a more direct and practical way forward is to seek to provide teachers with more satisfaction in their jobs.

In the past decade, mounting pressure for admission to the two public universities in Uganda has led to a proliferation of private universities bringing the number to the

current twelve. At national level, thus, there has been a sharp increase in student enrolment, which has drastically pushed upwards the teacher-student ratios. Press reports succinctly capture the scenario:

Box 1

“...Makerere intake has been on the upward trend from 14 students since its establishment 78 years ago to 600 students in the 1960’s to a staggering 22,000 since private sponsorship was introduced six years ago. But there has not been significant expansion of both the academic staff and physical facilities to match the high numbers.... Although the university rule states that students should do a minimum of three essay coursework’s or tests in a particular paper per semester, most lecturers give only two as marking has become problematic due to the enormous numbers. Average number of students per class for Business Administration is 500 and up to 800 for Education, Arts and Social Sciences....”
Article titled *Makerere scraps tutorials*, in *The New Vision* of September 10, 2000(c).

For example, the introduction of the Evening Programme at Makerere University, Kampala (MUK) in 1994 marked the expansion in student numbers from 7,000 to 20,000. Indeed, 1998/99, MUK overshot admissions of self-sponsored (private) students by 4,000 (The New Vision, 1999c). Surprisingly, the chair to student ratio at MUK main library is 1:19 (The New Vision, 2001d). Other universities have followed suit. The Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) is to introduce evening classes (The New Vision, 1999e). What is disturbing though, is that this quantitative expansion has not been met with a concomitant consistency in quality (Ocitti, 1993). Indeed, the current reality in Uganda as in most SSA universities, is one of congestion in lecture theatres, laboratories, and overall limited facilities and equipment. Saint (1992) succinctly put the situation:

“...Talented staff are abandoning the campuses, libraries are outdated, research output is dropping, students are protesting overcrowded and inhospitable conditions, and educational quality is deteriorating...” (p.vii).

Knowledge of this background is essential since Ugandan academics, as elsewhere, are a key factor in contributing towards enhanced quality of teaching and learning

experiences in universities. Beside, the social context of the teachers, the teachers' attitudes, and their working conditions as contended by Garrett (1999) are intimately related in a very complex manner and we need to understand them better. What is conspicuously absent in Uganda is a clear evidence-informed picture of what evokes academic satisfaction or indeed, what induces dissatisfaction. Moreover, a perusal of pertinent literature reveals extreme paucity of information about how academics worldwide feel and think about their work (Grunerberg and Startup, 1978; Oshagbemi, 1996). Scant attention, thus, is paid to the impact of inadequate salaries, poor working conditions and sporadic expansion of student numbers on the morale, feelings, attitude and productivity of Ugandan dons. Yet, it would seem to be common sense that the magnitude, impact, and ramifications of these forces on Ugandan academics work life are as diverse as they are numerous.

Of particular concern in this study, therefore, is the apparent disillusionment among Ugandan academics arising from an inadequate reward and incentive system, as well as managerial and administrative policies and practices. Accordingly, an investigation of factors contributory to Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction would contribute significantly to a serious gap in our knowledge, and this study represents one such effort.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Although numerous researchers have investigated job satisfaction particularly in the metropolitan world, not enough is known about job satisfaction of Ugandan academics. An examination of this area, therefore, will throw light on the job conditions and add sound insights on the trend of the academic profession in Uganda.

This study, therefore, sought to identify the factors that are most prevalent in the prediction of Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and adopt them

in the context of Herzberg et al., (1959) dichotomy. Furthermore, the study will endeavour to determine any significant differences that might exist in the satisfaction level between IUIU and MUK academics. Finally, the study was undertaken to establish the impact of age, gender, rank, and tenure on Ugandan academics job satisfaction.

1.3. Statement of Purposes

The long-term object of the study is to explore how Ugandan academics feel about their jobs, and thereby advance an understanding of the concept of job satisfaction.

And within this framework, the study is designed to achieve the following purposes:

- It is increasingly evident that policies and practices that could affect the job satisfaction of Ugandan academics have been introduced or modified significantly in IUIU and MUK over recent years. Yet, the extent to which academics are satisfied with their job will likely impact on universities and students. Accordingly, it is imperative that university councils, administrators, managers and policy makers are reliably informed as to the best ways of ensuring the uptake of innovations
- It is anticipated that the study will further the understanding of the overall job satisfaction as well as some of the more important predictors of satisfaction or dissatisfaction among academics in universities in Uganda. Consequently, if certain factors appear to evoke academic job satisfaction, institutional administrators can manipulate the environments in such a manner as to enhance high levels of satisfaction, and put in place safety nets to ameliorate effects of dissatisfaction.
- The study will provide insights into aspects of Uganda dons' job satisfaction, and examine how this compares in IUIU and MUK. This is interesting in itself, but

may question some myths and lead to more informed choices in what Welch (1997) described as an increasingly mobile but little known academic profession.

1.3.1. Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1- Which factors contribute to job satisfaction of Ugandan academics as measured by each of the eight aspects of the Job Descriptive Instrument used in the study?
- 2- Which factors contribute to job dissatisfaction of Ugandan academics as measured by each of the eight aspects of the Job Descriptive Instrument used in the study?
- 3- Are there any significant differences in the level of job satisfaction of IUIU and MUK academics as measured by each of the eight aspects of the Job Descriptive Instrument used in the study?

1.3.2. Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

- (a) There are no significant differences among academics of different age levels regarding the factors contributing to their job satisfaction.
- (b) There is no significant difference between male and female academics regarding the factors that contribute to their job satisfaction.
- (c) There is no significant difference among academics of different ranks regarding the factors that contribute to their job satisfaction.
- (d) There are no significant differences among academics with different tenure (present university service) regarding the factors contributing to their job satisfaction.

1.4. Rationale and Significance of the Study

Considering that more studies on job satisfaction of university teachers are not only justified but long overdue (Oshagbemi, 1996), and given that there is extreme paucity

of information regarding job satisfaction among teachers particularly in low-resource countries (Garrett, 1999), this study warrants attention and merits investigation. Besides, since academic working conditions influence both morale and productivity (Boyer et al., 1994), and situations recognised as stressful in other occupations have now become common in academics (Thorsen, 1996), it would seem tenable to explore job satisfaction of Ugandan academics. Moreover, academics are critical players because the effectiveness of a university as Sanyal (1995) maintained, essentially depends on the efficiency and quality of its staff, and especially academic staff. Indeed, academics being the monad that contains within itself the imago of the future society (Enders, 1999) are significant to be studied in their own right. Arguably, if academics are to remain pivotal in efforts to improve the quality of teaching and learning, then more attention needs to be paid, by institutions and external governing bodies, to the importance of the conditions and context of academics work, a task sought to be fulfilled by this study. Fundamentally, there are three justifications for undertaking the study: -

1.4.1. Recent Trends in Uganda's Higher Education

In personal interactions with fellow dons, most of them appear to believe that the spate of globalisation together with Uganda government changes in higher education policies have resulted in, among other things, low levels of job satisfaction in academics. It would seem reasonable to expect that some of these changes have arisen from financial austerity, pressures of demand, diversity of university missions and structural and managerial diversity. Indeed, there is a cultural shift in the way university education is viewed in East Africa from *elitist* ethos to *populist* orientation that vigorously supports a broader diffusion of education (Hughes and Mwiria, 1990). Interestingly, anecdotal beliefs that Uganda academics may not be generally satisfied

with their jobs appear to have been widely publicised rather than well documented. Accordingly, this study seeks to adduce evidence-informed data to firmly establish the degree of satisfaction of Ugandan academics.

1.4.2. The Gap in the Literature

Many studies have investigated academic job satisfaction and concluded that teaching or research contributes to job satisfaction (Gruneberg and Startup, 1978; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1996; 1998). What is singularly missing in the literature, nonetheless, is a detailed account of the factors or facets of say research, teaching or promotion etc. that are prevalent in predicting academic satisfaction or evoking dissatisfaction. Moreover, too heavy reliance on single-item measures (e.g. ‘Overall, how satisfied are you with teaching as a job?’) has been questioned as this may hide a teacher’s overall sense of satisfaction with various facets of their work (Chaplain, 1995a; Chaplain, 2001). This study, therefore, sought to fill this serious gap in the literature. Besides, in order to affirm Herzberg et al., (1959) dichotomy or dispute its credibility as a model of job satisfaction, it would seem appropriate to test it in different cultural, social and economic work settings. Accordingly, the study would seem justifiable for it was designed to test the Herzberg’s theory in Uganda-a different cultural set up, in order to elicit insights that might inform job satisfaction theory.

1.4.3. The Plight of Academics

Though satisfaction is not always the prelude to improvement (Garrett, 1999), it seems plausible to be assumed that the apparent academic discontent prevalent in SSA tends to have a detrimental effect on the teaching-learning process. Consequently, academics are important resources in universities worldwide. The main issue is that academics all over the world feel underpaid, unappreciated and alienated from

administrators who run their institutions (Times Higher Education Supplement, 1994:1). Equally important is that even Ugandan dons' quality of life is rarely considered. Yet, these aspects are intimately bound up with how academics function and are motivated. This situation is untenable. Time is ripe to examine the academics' own concept of job satisfaction at least in Ugandan universities.

1.5. Definition of Key Terms

In addition to job aspects explicated in (Table 4.07; Chapter, 4), the following terms are defined, as they will be used within the context of this present study.

1- *Academic Freedom*

The immunities which the university academic as a professional needs to enjoy in order to function effectively in the pursuit of the truth so as to extend the frontiers of knowledge through scholarship and intellectualism. Precisely, the right of academics to teach, undertake research, and communicate without being unduly inhibited (Honan and Teferra, 2001).

2- *Academics*

All persons employed as full-time university teachers in IUIU and MUK regardless of rank. The term was used interchangeably with don or academician.

3- *Job Satisfaction*

The condition of contentment with one's work and its environment, denoting favourable feelings of the individual toward the work role he/she presently occupies (Smith et al., 1969; Lawler, 1973; Mercer, 1997). In this study job satisfaction is an objective element of the work situation in which an academic finds a source of his/her good or happy feelings about his/her job.

4- *Job Dissatisfaction*

The negative feeling of an individual toward his/her job (Smith et al., 1969; Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1983).

Or simply an individual academic having an unfavourable feeling or viewpoint toward the work role he/she currently occupies.

5- Intrinsic Factors

Those factors or set of rewards that are inside or part of the actual job task, the presence of which evokes job satisfaction but the absence of which does not necessarily induce job dissatisfaction. The term is used interchangeably with *motivator* or *satisfiers* which, derive from the performance of the job e.g. promotion, achievement, recognition, responsibility and the work itself.

6- Extrinsic Factors

Those factors or rewards that are associated with the job environment or the context within which the work is performed such as personal life, interpersonal relations, policy and governance, working conditions, salary, and supervision. The term is used interchangeably with *hygiene* or *dissatisfiers*.

7- Demographic Variables

The variables relate to characteristics and aspects of the individual academic i.e. age, gender, rank, and tenure. The term is used interchangeably with personality correlates.

1.6. Structure of the Dissertation

This study is organised into seven chapters. In this chapter the contextual background has been discussed and the research problem charted out. The research questions to be answered in light of the objectives of the study have also been outlined. Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to the study with the conceptual framework, and personality correlates of job satisfaction. This is followed by a review of academic job satisfaction in the North and South universities. Chapter 3 delineates the design and methods that were used to gather data and it also outlines the research process and the data analysis plan.

The findings relating to the three research questions in this study are presented, analysed, and discussed in Chapter 4. The impact of age, and gender as with rank and tenure on Ugandan academics job satisfaction is presented, analysed and discussed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 respectively. In the final chapter 7, conclusions and implications emerging from the findings are discussed, recommendations made, as with suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The object of this chapter is to two fold: First, to review the literature related to factors affecting job satisfaction of academics in both the affluent North and the afflicted South, paying attention to the sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) in general and Uganda in particular. Second, to explore the influence of variables used in this research such as gender, age, longevity of tenure, and occupational rank on academic job satisfaction. In sum, the literature review is arranged in this pattern:

- First, studies related to the conceptual framework of job satisfaction. Only selected models of job satisfaction, which the researcher deems pertinent to this study, are considered and evaluated. This choice is based on the understanding that these theories seek to examine the basic configuration of human *needs, values* and *expectations* as they relate to the work place.
- Secondly, personality correlates of job satisfaction such as gender, age, longevity of tenure, level of education and academic rank are explored.
- Third, studies on related factors affecting job satisfaction of academics in universities in the North are examined. Additionally, studies on related factors affecting job satisfaction of academics in universities in the South are also considered.

It is hoped that comparison of this study with studies of a similar nature may provide a basis on which to draw general conclusions regarding factors affecting academics in general, and the Uganda academia in particular.

- Fourth, academics and African academia are then considered in light of the unfavourable economic winds that have hit most sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

- Lastly, the review looks at the contextual background of the study: Job satisfaction studies among academics in Ugandan universities, and the consequences of the apparent pay dissatisfaction and a constraining work environment on the academia are considered.

2.1 Conceptual Framework of Job Satisfaction

This section is an attempt to elucidate the conceptual framework of job satisfaction in terms of basic psychological theories. There are several theoretical positions that could be adopted relative to the study of job satisfaction in the work environments. The theories discussed in this thesis, however, will include the *Traditional One - Continuum Approach*, the *Herzberg's Two-factor theory* and the *Maslow's Needs Hierarchy*. Notwithstanding, it would seem appropriate, at this stage to highlight the conceptual problems associated with the study of job satisfaction before delving into some theoretical background that underpin it.

2.1.1 Conceptual Ambiguity of the term Job Satisfaction

It is important to be aware that job satisfaction is a multi-dimensional phenomenon with many concepts (Volkwein and Parmley, 2000). Accordingly, there is no agreed definition of what it is (Mumford, 1972; Fairman, 1973; Evans, 1998). Indeed, job satisfaction has been perceived as an elusive and even a mythical concept (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997). In defining job satisfaction, therefore, it would seem intuitive to be aware of the continued ambiguity of the term.

2.1.2 Definition of Job Satisfaction

A job has been defined as a "...complex interrelationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards..." and it seems likely that employees will have an attitude towards most of these aspects of the job (Locke, 1983; Berry and Houston, 1993). Job satisfaction, although a very broad concept,

many writers have defined it in different ways. Garrett (1999) observed that lack of an agreed definition of job satisfaction has led to considerable disparity among numerous studies that have been undertaken since the pioneering work of the 1930's. Among many definitions of job satisfaction was the view proposed by Vroom (1964) that an individual's affective orientations toward the work role he/she occupied determine his/her satisfaction with that work. The researcher contends that job satisfaction is a function of the work one is engaged in, as well as of the people with whom one works. In terms of work, as Neumann et al., (1988) posited, there are aspects such as feelings of achievement, a sense of independent thought and challenge, autonomy, feedback on quality of performance and completion, security, and prestige which contribute to job satisfaction. In terms of people, Neumann et al., (1988) maintained, satisfaction may be brought about through getting to know others, taking part in decision making, forming friendships and helping others.

In defining job satisfaction, therefore, it would seem essential to highlight that satisfaction with one's job is considered to be a type of a disposition (Vroom, 1964; Berry and Houston, 1993), and a psychological tendency to review one's work in either a favourable or unfavourable light (Eagly and Chicken, 1993). It is important to be aware, that this postulation attempts to conceptualise job satisfaction as the affective response of the worker to the job. Indeed, Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) simply defined job satisfaction as the feeling a worker has about his/her job. Congruent with the same thinking, Berry and Houston (1993) conceived job satisfaction as an attitude of workers towards their organisation, their job and other objects in the work environment. Locke (1976) concluded that job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job

experiences. For instance, academics in universities in Uganda may appraise their work roles by determining the degree of how satisfied they are with their work.

Some scholars have focused on individuals' *needs* in their conceptualisation of job satisfaction. Schaffer (1953) cited in Evans (1998) observed that overall job satisfaction was dependent on those *needs* of an individual, which can be satisfied in a job, are actually satisfied. It would seem, therefore, that Schaffer's conception of job satisfaction puts much emphasis on the strength of the *need* i.e. the stronger the *need*, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment.

For other scholars, however, *values* rather than *needs* have been considered in defining job satisfaction. Locke (1969) viewed job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievements of one's *job values*. It is vital to be aware, however, that *values* are relative which tends to call into question Locke's conceptualisation of job satisfaction.

For yet other writers, *expectations* rather than *needs* or *values* have gained prominence in understanding job satisfaction. Lawler (1973) maintained that overall job satisfaction was dependent on the difference between all those things an employee feels he should receive from his job and all those things he actually does receive. The researcher considers Lawler's conceptualisation of job satisfaction as not only readily appealing to conventional wisdom, but as a sound starting point in understanding job satisfaction. Figure 1 illustrates Lawler's perception of job satisfaction. It is notable that Lawler's (1973) notion of job satisfaction would seem to be the difference between a, what workers feel they should receive, and b, what workers perceive that they actually receive. In Lawler's view, *job satisfaction* is achieved when all those things that an employee feels he/she should receive from the job (a) are in equilibrium with all those things he/she actually does receive (b).

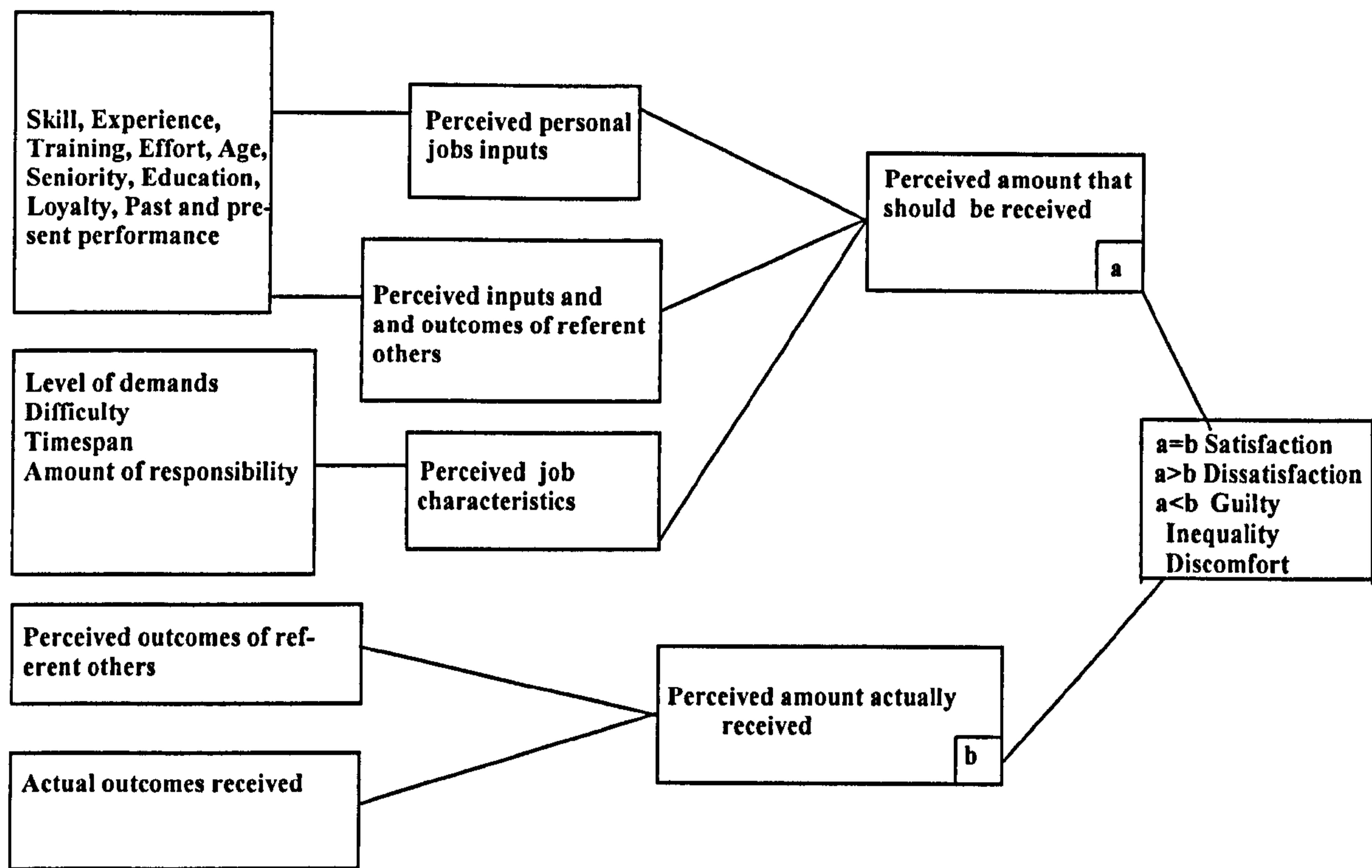


Figure 1 Model of the determinants of satisfaction. Source: Miskel, C and Ogawa, R (1988; p.289) in Boyan N. J (ed.) *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration*, New York: Longman.

Analogously, workers would be *dissatisfied* if the perceived amount that should be received (a) is greater than the perceived amount actually received (b). In a similar vein, workers would experience a sense of *guilt* or *discomfort* or even *inequity* if the perceived amount that should be received (a) is less than the perceived amount actually received. Unlike Lawler (1973), Kalleberg's (1977) notion of job satisfaction puts aside *needs* and *expectations* in favour of *job rewards* and *job values*. His view of job satisfaction emphasised orientation of workers toward work roles, which they presently occupy.

Based on the foregoing discussion, it would seem that there is no real consensus about what job satisfaction is (Evans, 1998). Recent scholars, however, tend to emphasise the *multidimensional nature* of job satisfaction. Indeed, most studies conclude that satisfaction is influenced by a complex array of personal and situational circumstances (Kalleberg, 1977; Happock, 1977; Austin and Gamson, 1983; Bruce and Blackburn, 1992; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997). Furthermore, there is general agreement in the

literature that job and work load stress exert negative influences on satisfaction and are included in studies on job satisfaction (Blau, 1993; Hagedorn, 1996; Volkwein et al., 1998).

2.1.3 Approaches To and Perspectives on Job Satisfaction

There are many theories and studies based on them that try to relate the concept of job satisfaction to the work environment. A brief description is made here of some of the theories that were found to be pertinent in the present research.

2.1.3.1 The Traditional One-Continuum Approach

Job satisfaction started to gain attention from researchers and scientists when it was connected with productivity. The earliest empirical study on this topic was that of Haprock (1935) in which he postulated that the more satisfied the workers are within the job, the more productive they will be in that job. He concluded that job satisfaction occurs as a result, or outgrowth, of the combining of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances.

The *traditional approach* was generally predicated on the assumption that if the presence of a certain variable in the work situation leads to satisfaction, then conversely, its absence will lead to job dissatisfaction (Ewen et al., 1966). In the circumstances, it would seem to be common sense to suggest that the basis of the traditional theory of job satisfaction perceived the individual as shifting along a single continuum in response to changes in the job. Accordingly, if money is seen as a source of satisfaction more money should lead to greater satisfaction and less money to dissatisfaction. Put more succinctly, Behling et al., (1968) proposed:

“...If a worker earns \$ 200 a month and he gets a \$ 40 increase, he will be pushed further on the satisfaction continuum than if he received a \$ 20 increase. If he has his salary up by \$ 20, he will accordingly be pushed on the continuum toward the dissatisfaction end...” (Behling et al., 1968; p102).

Assuming that all other factors are held constant, which is entirely unfeasible, this approach might be related to what obtains in real work life situation.

Notwithstanding, the *traditional approach* has been criticised for its neglect of workers' attitudes, feelings or personality. For instance, if a worker expects an 8 per cent increase but receives only a 4 per cent increase, he/she may be pushed on the dissatisfaction continuum even though he/she has received more pay (Cohen, 1974). It would seem appropriate to suggest that the traditional approach appears too simplistic to conceptualise job satisfaction. It is important to be aware that satisfaction and dissatisfaction may not be polar opposites (Garrett, 1999), and the same factors do not propel the worker in one direction or the other. This scenario has implications for other notions of job satisfaction.

2.1.3.2 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

This is considered as one of the most comprehensive job satisfaction theories (Herzberg et al., 1959) which attempts to classify different job characteristics according to their ability to either cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Using the critical incident interview procedure (which included asking 203 accountants and engineers to describe specific instances when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs), the authors made two major conclusions:

- ❖ There is a set of *rewards*, the presence of which induces increased job satisfaction, but the absence of which does not induce job dissatisfaction. This set of factors is closely linked to personal growth and development and is associated with intrinsic or content job facets called *motivators* or *satisfiers*. These include aspects like recognition for achievement, increased task responsibility, promotion, task achievement and occupational growth and advancement. Motivators/satisfiers are considered an integral part of the job. One basic assumption that underpins

Herzberg's dual theory is that there are some factors (*motivators/satisfiers*) that affect job attitudes only in the positive direction, thus leading to increased job satisfaction, but the absence of these would not necessarily give rise to job dissatisfaction, rather a state of non-satisfaction.

- ❖ The other set of rewards is associated with a healthy, safe work environment. These are called *hygiene* or *dissatisfiers* which are composed of context/extrinsic job characteristics such as personal life, salary, job security, working conditions, interpersonal relations, administrative practices and technical supervision. Hygiene factors, when absent, would lead to job dissatisfaction but when present, would not lead job satisfaction. In other words, *motivator* factors, being intrinsic to the work content itself, render tasks more enjoyable, interesting, and psychologically rewarding. Analogously, *hygiene* factors, being extrinsic to tasks, are associated with the context in which work is performed. Indeed, not to have job satisfaction does not imply dissatisfaction, but rather no satisfaction, whereas the absence of job dissatisfaction does not imply satisfaction with the job, but only no dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1968). As Lacy and Sheehan (1997) observed:

“...Perceived as opposites, the opposite of job satisfaction is no satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction and the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction...”
(Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; p306).

This scenario is best illustrated in Figure 2 below:

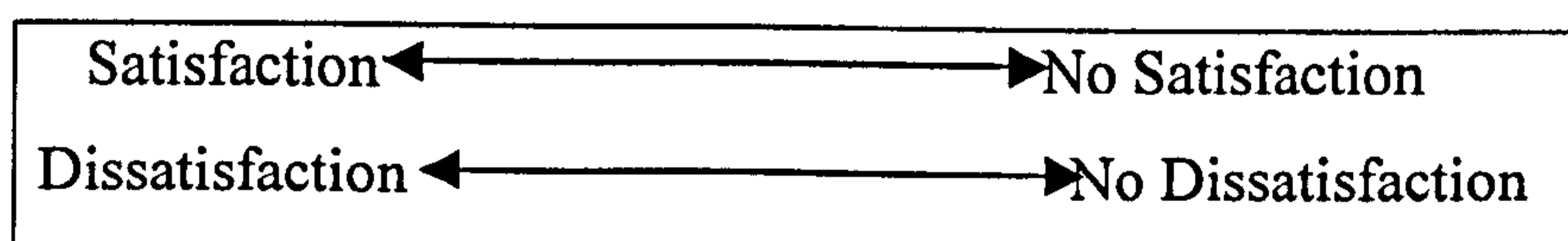


Figure 2: *The two continua theory* (May and Decker, 1988; p144).

It is important to be aware, thus, that unlike the *traditional approach*, Herzberg's dual theory posited the view that job satisfaction is not a *Uni.-dimensional* concept, but rather that work- related variables, which contribute to job satisfaction, are separate

and distinct from those rewards which contribute to job dissatisfaction. Likewise, Garrett (1999) argued that *motivators* and *hygiene* are not opposites on a bipolar dimension, rather they are linked yet separate bipolar concepts. Accordingly, it would seem tenable to infer that *Herzberg's dual theory* assumed that the individual has both types of rewards and the inclusion of adequate levels of both, within the work situation, would increase worker performance.

Since 1968, however, controversy has developed regarding the accuracy and applicability of Herzberg's dual theory. Several scholars have criticised Herzberg's theory (for instance, Hulin, 1967; Wolf, 1967; Dunnette, 1967; King, 1976; Nias, 1981; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Evans, 1997). Hulin (1967) criticised Herzberg's theory for not taking into consideration individual differences in job situations. Some individuals, Hulin argued, might be satisfied with their job just with the presence of *work-context/extrinsic rewards* alone. Accordingly, it is important to be aware that this is due to individual differences, which were neglected by Herzberg's theory. Moreover, motivation factors are not always available and cannot be determined for all individuals (Hulin, 1967). Equally important, the two sets of rewards (motivators and hygiene) are not unidimensional but contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Wolf, 1967). Likewise, Herzberg's theory oversimplified the nature of job satisfaction (Dunnette, 1967). In his own words, Dunnette observed:

“...The Herzberg's two factor theory is a grossly oversimplified portrayal of the mechanism by which job satisfaction or dissatisfaction comes about...” (Dunnette, 1967; p147).

In the same vein, Campbell et al., (1970) in a devastating critique of Herzberg's theory stated:

“...The most meaningful conclusion that we can draw is that the two factor theory has now served its purpose and should be altered or respectfully laid aside...” (Campbell et al., 1970; p.381).

Furthermore, the development of Herzberg's theory has been criticised methodologically. Indeed, Herzberg's theory is method-bound (Soliman, 1970; King, 1970), and is not so readily replicated when structured questionnaire approach and factor analysis techniques are utilised.

In her critique of Herzberg's theory, Nias (1981) considered the intrinsic and extrinsic *dichotomy* to be too simplistic. Whereas she lends support to Herzberg's dual theory to the extent that rewards that cause satisfaction (motivators) are often intrinsic, nearly a quarter of teachers involved in her research derived satisfaction from work-context/hygiene factors (Nias, 1989). Based on her findings, Nias proposed a third classification, *negative satisfiers* such as congeniality of colleagues, efficiency of administration and communication, which can be a source of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction to teachers. Moreover, some job aspects may be extrinsic to certain teachers but intrinsic to others (Nias, 1989). For instance, in low-resource universities like in Uganda, university teachers who are motivated solely by money and look at the world of work as a market place where they can exchange their time for money, salary, may seem to be a potential source of satisfaction. Arguably, those academics who wish to be active in their job and express themselves through the medium of work (research and publish, hold seminars and attend conferences), issues of salary may not be a major source of satisfaction.

Evans (1997) associated Herzberg's two factor (motivator/hygiene) dichotomy with aspects of a job that a worker considers being satisfactory or those facets of the job that lead to *job comfort*. Intrinsic, Evans (1997) conception, relate more to personal achievement of the individual worker thus acting as a source of his/her sense of fulfilment. It would seem tenable to suggest that Evans conception of job satisfaction considered extrinsic rewards as a source of satisfaction. Indeed, there are elements of

the job which are simply satisfactory for instance, hours of work, salary and length of holiday (Evans, 1997). Moreover, the same job facets may have different meanings to different subjects. Garrett (1999) in a vivid discussion of Evans's postulation gives an appropriate example: A contented atmosphere amongst teaching staff members may be a source of job comfort to most teachers, but to the management that were central in creating this atmosphere, it may be a potential source of job fulfilment.

It would seem appropriate to suggest that some of the major drawbacks of Herzberg's theory emanate from its : Failure to address individual differences in conceptualising job satisfaction (Nias, 1981), and its weakness to demarcate between the constructs of comfort, fulfilment, satisfactory and satisfying (Evans, 1997). Sufficiently comparable, there is a general recognition that Herzberg's dual theory does not adequately explain a complex concept (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997).

Despite its flaws and the scholarly criticism levelled against Herzberg's theory, it is important to observe that the model is still pertinent in conceptualising job satisfaction. This is why Herzberg's theory underpins most of the work currently being undertaken in the field. In same vein, Steers and Porter (1979) observed that Herzberg deserves credit by calling attention to the need for improved understanding of the roles played by satisfaction in work organisations.

2.1.3.3 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

As the foregoing discussion shows, one major failing of Herzberg's dual theory is its lack of flexibility in explaining differences in individual personality needs. In an attempt to address this inherent flaw in Herzberg's theory, a number of theories were considered for explanation.

The *Needs Hierarchy* model became one of the most important theories of job satisfaction and work motivation. In his theory, Maslow (1954) proposed that human *needs* are interrelated and arranged in a pyramidal configuration of five categories:

First, *physiological needs* are the basic biological functions of the human organism such as the need for food, sleep and clothes. Second, the need for *safety* and *security*, which relate to a desire for a peaceful, smoothly run stable society. For instance the need for protection and a safe environment. Third, *belongingness* and *love needs* which include the desire to interact with other people and make friends. Fourth, the *self-esteem needs* which is the need for usually high evaluation of oneself, self-respect and recognition. Lastly, *self-actualisation needs* such as the need for self-fulfilment, to be what one wants to be or to actualise what you are potentially.

Maslow assumed that only after *physiological needs* are satisfied does a person become concerned with *safety* and *security needs* and the same pattern ensues up to *self-actualisation needs* at the top of the hierarchy. In other words, a higher level need will not emerge until the lower levels needs are fulfilled. As relative gratification of a given need occurs, therefore, it submerges and activates the next higher need in the hierarchy (Miskel and Ogawa, 1988). Put succinctly, Garrett (1999) observed:

“...The most powerful drives come to meet the personal needs of body and safety, the next powerful group belong to social needs of love and belongingness, and self-esteem, whilst the intellectual needs of self-actualisation, knowledge and understanding are least strong and last to be met...” (Garrett, 1999; p3).

In light of the above discussion, one could suggest that *Maslow's need hierarchy theory* is useful to the understanding of behaviour in the work environment. Indeed, the theory remains popular in explaining motivation at work (Berry and Houston, 1993). This is because Maslow's *Needs theory* showed that if an employee is to perform, then some of his needs have to be met. Furthermore, Maslow's theory

posited that the satisfied employee has a greater probability of attaining self-actualisation and mental health than the dissatisfied employee attains (Hean, 2000).

Some scholars attempt to synthesise Maslow's theory of human motivation and Herzberg's dual model. Evans (1997) uses her distinction of *job comfort* and *job fulfilment*. She suggests that job comfort facets, (work- content aspects) in Herzberg's theory, are closely associated with Maslow's higher order fulfilment needs. Such a synthesis of the two conceptual frameworks seems to point in the direction of a more workable and realistic pattern of job satisfaction. It is hoped that such an approach may provide more insight into the problems being studied in this research.

Although Maslow's *Needs theory* was widely accepted, it has several flaws which raise two major criticisms:

- * First, the *needs* may not always occur in order with clear distinction between the various levels (Hodgetts, 1975). Moreover, it is important to be aware, that some *needs* are, to some extent, difficult to categorise. For instance, money could either be utilised to buy food and clothing thereby fulfilling one's physiological need or be used as a means to obtaining one's status and recognition which can gratify one's social and esteem needs (Sutermeister, 1976).
- * Second, Maslow's assumption that satisfied *needs* cease to motivate is a subject of heated controversy. Indeed, the basic premise that higher- level *needs* become activated, as the lower level *needs* become satisfied has mixed empirical support (Miskel and Ogawa, 1988). Maslow's premise that a satisfied *need* is not a motivator has also been called into question. Locke (1976) observed that no human need is ever permanently satisfied as a result of a single act or series of actions. It would seem tenable to suggest, therefore, that the major failings of Maslow's theory emanate from definitional clarity to methodological rigor. For instance, the higher order *needs* in

particular, represent complex variables with multiple definitions. Indeed, an unambiguous meaning of self-actualisation remains elusive (Miskel and Ogawa, 1988).

The above review gives the conceptual framework that underlies the research that will follow and some of the issues raised here will be returned to during discussions of the research findings. Having presented the theory behind the study, it is necessary to give a brief discussion of how some independent variables used in this research relate to the level of job satisfaction. This is particularly so because job satisfaction is not a *unidimensional variable* and its study should, therefore, include investigation of underlying components of work and the worker (Volkwein and Parmley, 2000).

2.2 Personality Correlates and Job Satisfaction

Several researchers have reported the association between personal variables such as age, gender, education, and longevity of tenure, marital status and academic rank with job satisfaction. It would seem appropriate to suggest that in an attempt to identify factors affecting job satisfaction, it is important to be aware of the significance of *personal* as well as *organisational* factors. Indeed, the manner in which two individuals view and react to the work characteristics may be very distinct (Hean, 2000). A review of how personal factors may interact with a workers level of job satisfaction is, therefore, necessary. The theme of the section that follows explores some personal factors affecting job satisfaction in order to construct research hypotheses for this study.

2.2.1 Gender and Job Satisfaction

No studies have been conducted in Uganda to establish specifically the interplay between gender and job satisfaction among university teachers. Most of the studies cited, therefore, will be from the metropolitan West where there are also relatively

few studies which focus on job satisfaction among university teachers (Oshagbemi, 1998).

A number of researchers have generally indicated that there is no clear-cut pattern regarding the male-female differential in job satisfaction. Nonetheless, Feldberg and Glenn (1979) concluded that there are two *models* employed in the study of work and gender :

- ◆ First, the *gender model* which emphasises personal attributes. This model thrives on the premise that men and women bring different perspectives to the work place because of different socialisation patterns.
- ◆ Second, the *job model* with a structuralist stance theorises that working conditions shape an employee's perceptions of work. The reader should note, however, that in general terms most studies favour the *job model*.

Kanter (1977) in her study of female and male workers in low and high status occupations found that workers in higher level occupations regardless of gender reported greater satisfaction than employees in lower status jobs did. Similarly, Sprague (1974) studied university faculty members in the U.S.A and found no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction. Likewise, Ansah (1980) examined academic department chairmen and chairwomen's upward mobility to their present position, role expectation and job satisfaction. The researcher concluded that there were no differences in job satisfaction between academic department chairmen and chairwomen. Both groups valued the quality of work and the intrinsic (content-related) rewards of their job more than financial (extrinsic) rewards.

Some studies, however, have revealed a positive association between gender and job satisfaction. Seegmiller (1977) investigated job satisfaction of faculty and staff members of Eastern Utah College. The findings of the study revealed that

determinants of job satisfaction for female faculty were distinct from male faculty. Female faculty in the study was more satisfied with personal relationships (social rewards) on the job than male faculty, but was more dissatisfied with the extent to which policies met faculty needs. Likewise, Oshagbemi (2000) explored correlates of pay satisfaction among UK academics. The results revealed that female academics were more satisfied with their pay compared with their male counterparts. The researcher concluded that although on the whole, both male and female academics were dissatisfied with their pay, the men were significantly more dissatisfied compared with women academics.

Other studies reported significant differences between men and women in overall satisfaction. Miller and Wheeler (1992) conducted a study to assess the effect of gender differences on a worker's intent to leave the job. Men in the study were found to be more satisfied than women with opportunity for promotion, pay, and recognition. Women were more satisfied than men in only one aspect: job security. One explanation for this discrepancy is that men and women possess different *expectations* in regard to work (Murry and Atkinson, 1981), and because women have lower expectations, they feel satisfied when these expectations are fulfilled (Weaver, 1978).

Drawing on the Ugandan experience, women tend to have lower status jobs, participate less in decision-making, and have fewer chances for promotion than their male counterparts (Nassali-Lukwago, 1998). Moreover, based on *equity theory*, an individual will always compare his/her input ratio to the ratio of a referent person in the same job. If the ratio of the individual is equal to or higher than the referent person, this will tend to lead to a feeling of *equity*, which will seem likely to lead to job satisfaction. Neil and Sinzker (1988) maintained that female employees would

tend to compare themselves with other females as the referent group. Arguably, this will tend to make them more satisfied, as their input-output ratio will be more or equal to the referent group.

In some studies both sexes have shown similar sources of dissatisfaction. Spivack (1983) examined job satisfaction, job motivation and need satisfaction among public school educators in Connecticut in U.S.A. The findings of her study on job satisfaction indicated that male and female educators were satisfied with work supervision, and co-workers. Both sexes, however, were dissatisfied with pay and promotion. In a more or less similar study, Gander (1999) examined faculty gender effects on academic research and teaching in the U.S.A. The main research results showed that female faculty have significant marginal productivity in research at liberal arts institutions but not at institutions in other Carnegie categories.

Based on the studies cited above, it would seem appropriate to suggest that job satisfaction is a product of the interaction between *work rewards* and *work values* (Evans, 1997). Additionally, men and women seem to value certain aspects of their job differently. Men tend to get satisfaction from *extrinsic rewards* and women seem to derive satisfaction from *social (context) rewards* on the job (Beutell and Brener, 1986; Neil and Sinzker, 1988).

2.2.2. Age and Job Satisfaction

Studies based on life cycle and career stage models suggest that determinants of job attitudes change depending on the particular stage of the career. Age, however, has been shown to be consistently related to one job attitude : job satisfaction (Rhodes, 1983; Kong et al., 1993). Indeed, a review of studies have offered extensive evidence to show that age was positively and linearly associated with job satisfaction (Weaver,

1980). Three major perspectives emerged from the literature concerning the association of age with job satisfaction :

- ❖ First, the *U-shaped* relationship which shows that satisfaction initially decreases and then increases with a workers age, was reported by Herzberg et al., (1957).
- ❖ The second view depicts satisfaction to have a *positive and linear association* with age (Hulin and Smith, 1965; Ronen, 1978; Wright and Hamilton, 1978), and employees become more satisfied as chronological age increases (Clark et al., 1996). For instance, Oshagbemi (1998) investigated the impact of age on job satisfaction of academics in the UK. He reported that older university teachers were more satisfied with the job than their younger counterparts. He concluded that the age of university teachers appeared to have an association with the level of job satisfaction. With respect to research and teaching satisfaction, however, the findings revealed that the older an academic was, the less satisfaction he or she derived from research, while, with the exception of academics under 35, the older an academic was, the more satisfaction he/she derived from teaching. The interaction of age and gender was, however, significant with respect to teaching satisfaction but not with respect to research. This finding implied that although gender by itself was not significantly related to teaching satisfaction, it was significant when compared with age of university teachers in the UK.
- ❖ The third perspective as reported by Carrel and Elbert (1974) presents satisfaction as *positive and linear until a terminal period* after which there is a significant decline in job satisfaction. Put differently, job satisfaction increases with age up to a terminal point beyond which a significant decrease in job satisfaction occurs. Luthans and Thomas (1989) attributed this *curvilinear association* between age and job satisfaction to the fact that as employees age, work alternatives,

expectations and aspirations available to them become scarce, resulting eventually in lesser job satisfaction.

It would seem intuitive to suggest that the contradictions in the above three perspectives of job satisfaction tend to imply that other factors could affect the association between age and job satisfaction. Demographic characteristics such as *tenure, pay* and *level of education* significantly correlate with *age* and tend to contribute to the inconsistency in the findings (Bamundo and Kopelman, 1980). For instance, any relationship found between job satisfaction and age, or organisational tenure, may not be directly due to the time variables, but rather to employees' occupational level, as there is consistent evidence of a positive correlation between job satisfaction and job level (e.g. Vroom, 1964; Porter and Lawler, 1968).

Several studies have endeavoured to explain the interplay between age and the level of job satisfaction. Mottaz (1987) as cited in Oshagbemi (1998) offered four possible explanations to account for such variations :

- * First, he suggested that younger employees concern themselves more with content-related aspects of the job such as interesting and challenging work assignments in contrast with older workers who derive great satisfaction from work-context aspects such as salary and economic rewards associated with the job.
- * Second, older employees have the advantage of seniority on the job and a wealth of experience, factors that tend to favour them to join lucrative and more satisfying jobs.
- * Third, older employees consider aspects like promotion, challenging tasks and autonomy as less important, and hence demand less from their jobs, which gives them more satisfaction than young employees do.

* Finally, after serving for a considerable period of time, older employees' expectations adapt to a more realistic evaluation of the level of rewards that can be attained in the work place, resulting in greater satisfaction. Likewise, older employees may be more resigned to their jobs and be aware that they will have more difficulty, because of their age, in obtaining new employment (Pond and Geysler, 1987; Berry and Houston, 1993). Indeed, older workers seem to be more satisfied not only because they tend to be better rewarded but also because they are carefree and expect less from rewards with their job (Clark et al., 1996).

It would seem tenable to suggest, therefore, that there is consistent empirical evidence to show that there is a positive association between age and job satisfaction. What remains unsettled, however, is the trend of this association, whether it is *linear* or *curvilinear* (Oshagbemi, 1998).

2.2.3 Longevity of Tenure and Job Satisfaction

A number of studies have examined how job attitudes were related to the workers length of service with the organisation. There seems to be a good reason to support the thesis that employee tenure tends to increase with one's level of job satisfaction.

Herzberg et al., (1957) investigated the impact of tenure on a worker's feelings about his/her job. The results showed that workers begin with high morale, which decreases and remains low for several years of service. As tenure increases, however, morale tends to increase. Hulin and Smith (1965) examined workers in an electronic company. Their findings revealed that as job tenure increased, employees tended to adjust their expectations to the physical conditions of the job and avoid frustrations, resulting in greater job satisfaction. Petput (1971) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and length of service among university personnel in Thailand. The

results showed that the longer university employees were on the job, the more they were satisfied with their work.

Apparently, there is a general agreement in the recent literature to support the positive association of tenure with the level of job satisfaction. Bamundo and Kopelman (1980) found that job longevity and age exhibited a strong curvilinear effect on job satisfaction. They suggested that job satisfaction initially increased with job involvement, and then declined as individuals began to recognise limits to promotion and personal growth possibilities. Education and income, however, were singled out as factors that strongly moderated the relationship of job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Gregson (1990) investigated accountants and his findings indicated that tenure with a firm increased levels of job satisfaction of the sampled respondents.

Based on the above findings, it would seem intuitive to suggest that tenure and job satisfaction seem to be positively related. Indeed, the increased satisfaction as tenure progresses may be related to increased power, confidence and status associated with the positions held by these individuals, assets unavailable to new entrants (Kacmar and Ferris, 1989). Accordingly, it would seem tenable to infer that the higher a person is in the organisational hierarchy, the greater the degree of autonomy that person is likely to enjoy, and the more the resources allocated to such a highly placed person, resulting in greater job satisfaction. Moreover, considering the influence of such fluctuating factors as social environment, employees' perceptions of their input and their group reference, and organisational and technological developments, it is reasonable to expect that an employees' satisfaction does change with his length of service in a job (Ronen, 1978; p297).

2.2.4 Level of Education and Job Satisfaction

There is some evidence in the data-informed literature to show that workers' level of education tends to influence his/her job satisfaction. Workers with higher educational levels have reported higher levels of job satisfaction than have workers with lower levels of education. Moreover, a better education is predicted to create greater levels of expectancy of what should be present in a job (Hean, 2000), and a higher education level is related positively to job satisfaction (England and Stein, 1976; Berk, 1985).

For instance, Petput (1971) found that Thai University personnel with higher levels of education were more satisfied in their jobs than their counterparts at lower levels of educational background. Brown (1976) examined 1600 categories of administrators. The results indicated that the level of education positively correlated with administrators' level of job satisfaction. Additionally, Brown's findings showed that administrators holding doctorates reported significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than did administrators without doctorates. Likewise, Weaver (1980) examined the level of education in relation to job satisfaction among managers in U.S.A. The findings revealed a more positive relationship between the level of job satisfaction and respondents with a college degree than those with only school education.

It is worthwhile to note, however, that not all studies have reported a positive correlation between the level of education and job satisfaction. Glenn et al., (1977) investigated job satisfaction among school administrators in U.S.A. It was revealed that education has a negative effect on job satisfaction because a higher level of education is associated with higher expectations, such that a person may become dissatisfied with performing routine tasks required of most jobs.

Nonetheless, based on the foregoing empirical evidence, one can speculate that holding other factors constant, people with a higher level of education tend to have greater job satisfaction than those with lower levels of education.

2.2.5 Academic Rank and Job Satisfaction

Faculty rank is defined to be a function of prior scholarly activity and experience (Strathman, 2000), and it helps to provide a more complete representation of faculty member's contribution to his or her institution. Available empirical evidence exists to lead us to believe that job satisfaction tends to change with job seniority.

In their study of wide ranging occupations, Herzberg et al., (1957) concluded that there is good support for the assumption that job satisfaction increases with one's rank in the organisation. Oshagbemi (1997b) examined the job satisfaction of UK academics. The results showed that overall job satisfaction was positively and significantly related to rank but not gender or age. Professors, as one would expect, were most satisfied with their overall jobs followed by readers, senior lecturers and lecturers in that order. In a recent study, Oshagbemi (2000) investigated the nature of relationships between rank and satisfaction with pay among UK academics. The findings revealed that readers were least satisfied with their pay while senior lecturers were most satisfied. The researcher concluded that satisfaction with pay does not follow a progressive rise or indeed any pattern with rank. UK readers as an academic group, however, seem to be dissatisfied and unhappy with their pay as they believe that they deserve more and are academically qualified for professorship if vacancies were available or established (Oshagbemi, 1997a).

Psychological theories like the *equity theory* may also advance a basis for predicting a change in workers' attitude with job seniority as well as offer an explanation for the sources of this attitude. According to *equity theorists* job satisfaction is dependent

upon the perceived discrepancy between *anticipated* level of gratification and *actual* level of gratification (Lee and Wilbur, 1985). It is maintained that the *anticipated* level of gratification is derived from: First, the employee's perception of his/her input to the job. Second, what he/she perceives as an equitable return on variables like education, age, and experience and needs, all of which are viewed in comparison with his/her referent group. Arguably, the longer the time on the job, the higher the perceived input based on seniority or experience. Furthermore, Lee and Wilbur (1985) observed that on taking up employment, a worker's *expected* rewards are mainly of the extrinsic nature. As time progresses, however, the *actual* extrinsic reward gradient decreases, as an increasing rate of perceived inputs is not matched by an increasing rate of extrinsic rewards. This mismatch in the *expected* and the *actual* rewards, Lee and Wilbur (1985) argued, may lead the worker to either alter his level of expectation or his perception of the availability of tangible rewards.

Accordingly, it would seem reasonable to expect a senior academic teaching at a university in a low resource country like Uganda to alter his/her level of expectation of tangible rewards since there is likely to be a mismatch between his/her *expected* rewards and *actual* rewards (Ocitti, 1993). This has implications for a further exploration of job satisfaction studies in universities in both the cosmopolitan and the developing world.

2.3 Job Satisfaction in Institutions of Higher Learning

At a time when higher education is becoming an international enterprise, and a global community of academic interests is emerging (Boyer et al., 1994), it would seem tenable to examine aspects of academics' satisfaction with their jobs in both the affluent North and the afflicted South.

Studies focusing on this area, as expected, have examined different populations and sample sizes, and diverse variables. Notwithstanding, it is hoped that comparison of the findings of this study with studies of a similar nature may provide a basis on which to draw more general conclusions regarding factors affecting academics' satisfaction in general, and those in the selected universities in Uganda in particular.

2.3.1 Job Satisfaction of Academics in Universities in the North

Some job satisfaction studies on academics in the developed world have partially lent support to Herzberg's two-factor theory. Gruneberg and Startup (1978) investigated the degree to which the different aspects of the job are seen to be of importance, and the degree to which each is considered as satisfying or dissatisfying in relation to overall job satisfaction. The population of the study was 364 university teachers in the UK. Based upon 52 percent response rate, the results revealed that when teaching and research relate, there is an increased likelihood of satisfaction with both aspects of the job. The findings of the researchers tend to support Herzberg's Two-factor theory. Indeed, research and teaching (both *extrinsic*) accounted for over 64 percent of factors mentioned as contributing to satisfaction. Nonetheless, the study revealed that research more than any other factor was considered dissatisfying which makes Herzberg's theory an oversimplification of the factors relating to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

In a similar vein, Oshagbemi (1997) conducted a study to explore job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in higher education. Subjects were 554 university teachers from 23 universities in the UK. The findings revealed that teaching and research contributed to, and explained about, 50 percent of university teachers' satisfaction. Interestingly, the same facets of university teachers' jobs (teaching and research) contributed over 30 percent of their job dissatisfaction. Contrary to Herzberg's theory, the findings of

this study indicated that both *motivators* and *hygiene* could contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. The implication of this finding is that the job of workers alone may not fully explain their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Other *situational variables* as sought in the present study could offer more explanations.

Other studies in the developed countries have used variants of Herzberg's approach to examine and explain patterns of job satisfaction, and motivators for staying in or leaving employment in various academic settings. Pearson and Seiler (1983) focused on Herzberg's notion of context elements of the job, and investigated academics' levels of satisfaction with the environment in which they work. Their findings indicated that academics were generally more satisfied than dissatisfied with their work environment, but that there were high levels of dissatisfaction with compensation-related elements of the job e.g. performance criteria, pay and fringe benefits.

In Australia, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) examined demographic trends and the impact of university atmosphere on job satisfaction and reported intention to leave the institution. Contrary to Herzberg's theory, their findings showed that *intrinsic* factors could lead to dissatisfaction. For instance, the results pointed out that research, teaching (both content-related aspects of the job of academics), plus administration and governance (a context-related aspect of academics' job) impacted upon academics' perceptions of the climate or atmosphere in which they worked, which in turn, influenced levels of dissatisfaction. The researchers concluded that if academic staffs in Australia are to be encouraged to greater job satisfaction and lesser job dissatisfaction, attention must be paid to the environment in which they worked. Based on the above findings, it would seem appropriate to suggest that contrary to

Herzberg's two-factor dichotomy, *hygiene* in this case the physical environment (in which one worked) could be a potential source of job satisfaction.

Likewise, Manger and Eikeland (1990) investigated factors that impact on academics' intention to leave the university. The results showed two major predictors to leave the job: collegial relations and general satisfaction. Their findings offered support to Herzberg's theory in that physical environment in which the academics execute their duties (a hygiene factor) tended to lead to dissatisfaction and was a strong predictor of academics' intention to leave the university.

In a similar fashion, Moses' (1986) study lent support to the thesis (Herzberg's theory) that levels of dissatisfaction relate to context factors. Her findings, for instance, indicated that university teachers were dissatisfied with the undervaluing of teaching excellence in promotion decisions. She concluded that tenured and well-paid employment provides satisfaction of the lower-order needs, whereas prestigious and autonomous work enables academic staff to satisfy considerably higher-order needs than it is possible for the general population e.g. esteem need and the need for self actualisation.

A number of studies have sought to examine aspects of academics' satisfaction with their job across nations. Boyer et al., (1994) conducted an international study that explored among others, sources of satisfaction and frustration among professors in 14 countries (Australia, Brazil, Chile, USA, UK, Germany, Israel, Hong Kong, The Netherlands, Korea, Japan, Russia, Sweden and Mexico). The results of the research showed perhaps, not surprisingly, that professors reported a high sense of satisfaction with their intellectual lives and the courses they taught as well as their relationships with colleagues. Contrary to Herzberg's theory, this finding showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can contribute to job satisfaction. Most faculty, however, felt that

they were not well paid. Only in Hong Kong and the Netherlands did more than 50 percent of faculty rate their own salary as “good” or “excellent”. For instance, 46 percent of surveyed professors in USA rated their salaries favourably. In nearly half the responding countries more than 40 percent of the surveyed professors reported their job was a source of considerable strain. Japanese, Russian, and Korean faculty reported the most pressure.

Similarly, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) using a sample of 12,599 respondents examined aspects of academics’ satisfaction with their job across eight developed nations (Australia, USA, Germany, Canada, Mexico, Israel, Sweden and UK). Contrary to Herzberg’s theory, the results showed that both (content-related and context-related) aspects of the job could lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. On the whole, academics across the sampled nations were generally satisfied particularly with four facets of their jobs: relationships with colleagues; the opportunity to pursue their own ideas; job security and their general situation. A sizeable proportion of respondents (44.1 percent), however, was dissatisfied with prospects for promotion, compared with (27.6 percent) who indicated satisfaction. Additionally, respondents from Mexico, USA and Israel were most satisfied with promotion prospects. In comparison with other countries, German respondents expressed the lowest levels of satisfaction with their prospects for promotion, followed by academics in Sweden, UK, Hong Kong and Australia. With regard to overall satisfaction, around 60 percent of academics in Sweden and USA were satisfied, compared with their counterparts in Mexico, Germany, UK and Australia, where less than 50 percent of the responding academics were satisfied with their jobs.

2.3.2 Job Satisfaction and Academics in Universities in the South

In low resource countries, few studies have been conducted to investigate job satisfaction among university teachers. Notwithstanding, it would seem essential for the reader to note that in the developing world, particularly Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), one of the major, if not the most important, source of dissatisfaction among members of the academic profession is inadequate salary (Coombe, 1991; Ocitti, 1993; Ajayi et al., 1996; Amonoo-Neizer, 1998).

For instance, Fagbamiye (1981) investigated the extent to which academic staff in six Nigerian universities expressed job satisfaction and motivation. The researcher identified six factors for the study : remuneration and conditions of service, university autonomy, assessment of self and group performance, facilities adequacy, confirmation of choice of career, and students attitude towards university teachers. The results showed that university teachers were dissatisfied with their remuneration and conditions of service, and many would not choose teaching if given the opportunity to do so. On the whole, the study indicated that respondents were dissatisfied with the Nigerian University system particularly with salary and overall physical working facilities. This finding contrasts sharply with those in the developed world (e.g. Boyer et al., 1994; Oshagbemi, 1997) where academics expressed satisfaction with their job. The reader should note, however, that the results of the Nigerian study are not surprising in the light of the fact that Africa's universities currently stand in crisis at a pivotal point in their development (Saint, 1992; p X1).

Sufficiently comparable with the Nigerian experience, is the Latin American experience. In a study of Latin American academics, Pelczar (1973) cited in Altbach (1977), found that in Argentina, 65 per cent of the part-time and 40 per cent of the full time professors studied felt that their remuneration was unsatisfactory. The same

study revealed that in Colombia, 60 per cent of the full-time and 50 per cent of the part-time respondents were dissatisfied with their salaries. Furthermore, Colombian professors particularly those on full-time tenure, were dissatisfied with their conditions of work and professional environment. This finding supports the idea that in most low-resource countries, lower-order needs have not been fully catered for. It would seem likely, therefore, that extrinsic rewards (in low-resource countries) for most employees, academics inclusive, do not meet the basic level and tend to shape their level of job satisfaction (Garrett, 1999).

Additionally, the physical working conditions in most higher education institutions in the developing world seem to affect the morale, orientation, and professional standards and satisfaction of academics. For instance, academic salaries and working facilities in most Bombay colleges in India are wanting, and thus, do not permit a professionally rewarding life, which tends to affect teachers' job satisfaction. Indeed, in most Bombay colleges common rooms are often fairly noisy, poorly lit, and in general not conducive to serious work, and libraries are inadequate for faculty research (Altbach, 1977).

In Thailand, Sudsawasd (1980) conducted a study on the faculty members of two Thai universities. The object of the study was to establish the relationship between job satisfaction and different demographic characteristics such as rank, age, gender and marital status. The findings of the study revealed that:-

- ❖ The key predictors of job satisfaction were salary, administration, and policy while the potential sources of dissatisfaction were growth, co-workers behaviour, responsibility, recognition, work itself, supervision and physical working conditions.

- ❖ Married faculty was more dissatisfied with working facilities and conditions than unmarried faculty.
- ❖ Gender had no significant association with regard to job satisfaction. Nonetheless, two groups were least satisfied with salary : those in service for 11 or more years and those in excess of 41 years.
- ❖ Regarding academic rank, associate professors were less satisfied with physical working conditions and recognition than other academic ranks. Doctoral degree holders, however, were more satisfied with salary than those with other degrees.

It would seem appropriate to suggest that the above findings tend to show that in low resource countries, extrinsic characteristics of the job may critically shape the extent to which academics are satisfied. Analogously, based on the above findings, it is possible to hypothesise that intrinsic rewards of the job of workers in the developing world, academics inclusive, (where extrinsic do not meet a basic level), may lead to less satisfaction. This has implications for the remuneration and environment in which academics in the developing world in general, and in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) in particular, operate and to which we now turn.

2.4 Academics and African Academia : A Canker of Austerity?

As the foregoing discussion shows, in low-resource countries extrinsic characteristics would seem to critically shape the level of job satisfaction of workers, academics inclusive. Consequently, it would seem intuitive at this stage for the reader to note that the situation of most SSA universities as contended by Braimoh (1999) poses one persistent notion : *crisis*.

Indeed, institutions of higher education in Africa, especially the universities, must contend with several interrelated major problems, whose combined effect threatens to strangle them (Ajayi et al., 1996). This is perhaps as a result of the globalisation-

inspired economic recession, which hit SSA badly. This economic situation, Braimoh (1999) argued, has devalued the usual enviable standard of academics and academia, both of whom have suffered untold financial hardships. In fact, since the 1980's there are indications that academic staff generally in most African universities are not satisfied with their jobs (ADAE, 1996). Put succinctly, Ajayi et al., (1996) observed :

“...The cruel winds of stringency, consequent upon the severe economic recession of the past two decades or so, and the prevailing unjust economic order, continue to blow unabated across the African continent with devastating consequences for the universities and other institutions of higher learning in most African countries...” (Ajayi et al., 1996; p145).

The effect of the above scenario is glaringly obvious: Many academics in Africa operate under adverse conditions (Saint, 1992), and therefore, a good many African academics suffer a loss of professional self-esteem (Coombe, 1991). Arguably, the usual dedication, commitment and contentment that used to characterise the lives of African academics of the 60's have disappeared. In totality, teaching facilities are inadequate, funding of essential services declining by the day and conditions are no longer sufficient to attract competent and seasoned scholars (Ocitti, 1993; Amonoo-Neizer, 1998; Braimoh, 1999).

Furthermore, educational quality is declining as a result of increased enrolments and reduced funding. Overall, facilities are deficient. Libraries are in a sorry state and collapsing as a result of book hunger (Mkandawire, 1990). Indeed, most African university libraries remain archaic monumental buildings without books (Braimoh, 1999). The resultant effect has been the disintegration of the research infrastructure, and there is a high mortality rate of journals (Brock-Utne, 1996). In fact, at Dar-Salaam university in Tanzania virtually every department is under the threat of material and intellectual starvation (UDASA, 1990; p1). Describing her experience at

one South African university, Damian (1999) captures the pathetic situation more vividly:

“...Three times a week I face more than 400 students crowded into a lecture theatre designed for 280. The aisles are packed, many sit on the floor around the dais, and some are outside, hearing what they can. There is no microphone, and in April 1995, students were still registering for courses that began in February.....”(Damian, 1996; p129).

Lack of adequate funding, therefore, in most African universities, particularly in SSA, has affected many physical installations and campus facilities as well as the welfare of both staff and students. It is also important to be aware, that persistent cutbacks in research, staff development, library acquisitions and maintenance have resulted in decreased quality (Amonoo-Neizer, 1998).

Accordingly, it would seem appropriate to suggest that most African universities, particularly those in SSA, have failed to provide the necessary conditions and prerequisites to complement the high expectations that society has for university teachers. As a result, substantial numbers of lecturers seem professionally frustrated in their institutional settings. Arguably, university settings determine the working situation of academics and, as such, have the primary impact on their professional lives. This echoes the job satisfaction of academics in universities in Uganda, which we now address.

2.5 Contextual Background : Job Satisfaction Studies in Uganda’s HE

Very few scholarly and scientific studies in the area of job satisfaction of academics in Uganda’s higher education have been conducted. Before delving into some studies of job satisfaction in Uganda, the researcher considers it potentially instructive to illuminate briefly the state of university education in Uganda. This, it is hoped, would give an insightful view of the ills that besiege university education in Uganda, and the plight of its academia.

2.5.1 The Academia and the State of Ugandan Universities: Dons Hustling to Survive?

For many decades, university education in Uganda was closely associated with Makerere (MUK) which was Uganda's only university till 1988 when the private Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) opened (World Bank, 1993). Since then there has been a proliferation of private universities bringing the number to the current twelve i.e. two public universities and ten private ones as reported in the local print media:

Box 2

“...Kampala University has been issued with an interim licence ending uncertainty over the future of the over 600 students at the private institution. Education Minister Khiddu Makubuya handed the licence to the vice-chancellor, Professor Badru Kateregga, at the Ministry headquarters yesterday, bringing to 12 the number of licensed universities in the country...” Article titled *University gets licence*, in The New Vision of November 24, 2000(a).

Indeed, in East Africa higher education is becoming increasingly privatised and diversified (Useem, 1999). What is worrying, though, is that this rapid expansion of universities in Uganda has not been based on systematic and co-ordinated planning.

The ERPC (1989) highlighted this pathetic situation:

“...There has hardly been any systematic planning in higher education, which is evident from the haphazard manner in which institutions of higher education have been set up in recent years. The negligence is further noticed from the poor state of the physical facilities and the deteriorating quality...” (EPRC, 1989; p73).

Moreover, in Uganda as of now there is no legal framework to regulate the establishment, administration and standards of universities and other tertiary institutions (The New Vision, 2000b). As one would expect, this rapid and uncoordinated expansion and apparent massification of university education, has led to rising expressions of concern over the quality of university education in Uganda. Indeed, the head of state, Museveni has warned that private universities that compromise quality risk closure (The Monitor, 2000a).

Of particular concern to this study, however, is that not much attention has been devoted to the impact of increased student enrolment (without a concomitant increase in facilities) on the qualitative aspects of academic life in Ugandan universities. For instance, high levels of unease have been reported among academics (Ocitti, 1993). Seemingly, the growing imbalance between increased enrolment and the quality of teaching at MUK has reached a crisis level. In fact, lately, Makerere has been warned of a looming crisis (The New Vision, 2000d). Yet, it is glaringly obvious that academic programmes and standards judge any university worth the name. Equally important, is that university teachers are the monad that contains within itself the imago of the future society (Enders, 1999), thereby serving as a form of role model of rational and disinterested discourse for highly skilled expertise.

Accordingly, it would seem essential to be aware that academics in Ugandan universities operate in a constraining environment (Kajubi, 1992) which has implications on their job satisfaction. Voicing similar sentiments, the PSRR (1989/90) Report noted that due to the pathetic physical working conditions at MUK and the low-resource input, the university is unable to attract, motivate and retain competent staff, resulting in internal and external attrition of staff. Likewise, the MUK Visitation Committee (1987) Report observed that salaries at Makerere were too low and the terms and conditions were not competitive on the labour market. For instance, the official salary of a full professor is Shs.520.000/=(equivalent to £208) per month, and the University Council in its wisdom adjusted it to Shs.1.370.000/=(£548) monthly (New Vision, 2000c). Highlighting the appalling state of affairs at MUK, the former vice-chancellor, Kajubi (1990) stated:

“...Books, periodicals, chemicals are still lacking, and salaries and fringe benefits for staff throughout the system are far from adequate...Makerere university offers lowest salaries to its senior academic and administrative staff in the whole of Eastern and Southern Africa...” (p.487).

Declining salaries, therefore, and a constraining working environment, aggravated by unfavourable political conditions, have prompted many academics in Ugandan universities to flee for greener pastures elsewhere. Indeed, attracting and retaining competent staff has now become the biggest current problem in African universities (Amonoo-Neizer, 1998). Because of this, many are left with young, inexperienced and insufficiently trained staff (Saint, 1992) or with newly graduated staff who lack experience, or old and “bogus” professors whose marketability elsewhere is low (Mosha, 1986). Physical conditions at the oldest and relatively well-facilitated MUK seem unattractive. For instance, the spiralling numbers of students are straining and stressing lecturers and assistant lecturers (MUASA, 1996:13). Besides, it is not uncommon for a lecturer in economics, psychology or political Science to handle a class of between 800-900 students (Tizikara, 1998). Table 2.01 shows space availability at Makerere University.

Table 2.01 Space Availability in Makerere University (in square metres).

Faculty/School/ Institute	Available Space (1996/97)	Space Needs (1998/99)	Balance
Agriculture	4,876	8,396	-3,520
Arts	2,774	5,048	-2,274
Commerce	698	1,951	-1,253
Law	470	1,081	-611
Medicine	12,565	14,710	-2,145
Science	9,493	11,613	-2,120
S/Sciences	1,267	9,368	-8,101
Technology	3,710	10,587	-6,877
Vet. Medicine	6,589	5,010	+1579
Education	6,413	18,414	-12,001
Fine Art	1,489	2,301	-812
Librarianship	498	886	-388
Stat.&A/Econ.	620	1,407	-787
Cont. Education	1,402	1,957	-557
Total	52,846	92,371	-39,867

Source: Makerere University Strategic Plan 1996/7-1998/9.

This state of affairs has manifested itself in unrest among Ugandan academics resulting in intermittent strike action. For instance, negotiations for salary increments

between MUK and Government have been going on since 1989 but in most cases, these negotiations culminate in MUASA calling for strikes (Tizikara, 1998).

Sufficiently comparable, is the situation at IUIU also far from rosy. Indeed, since 1993 IUASA has been co-ordinating the strike action in response to various ailments afflicting the university particularly with regard to delayed salaries (Tizikara, 1998). Furthermore, due to unfavourable economic conditions in most universities in Uganda, budgets are not adequately funded which severely debilitates their programmes. For instance at IUIU out of a total budget of US \$ 3,728,550/= for the academic year 1997/98, the University Council could only approve US \$1.5m which was just 40.2 per cent of the total amount sought by the university (IUIU Budget, 1997/8).

Likewise, at MUK out of (Ug.shs.) 51.7b the university budgeted for the academic year 2000/2001, government allocated 22.9b half of which was for salaries (New Vision, 2000b). Indeed, the vice-chancellor (Professor Sebuwufu) while on the 38th graduation ceremony at MUK, complained to the Chancellor that (Ug.shs.) 22b allocated to the university in the budget, and the 13b the university expected to raise privately would not be enough for their programmes. He requested for a tax holiday (The Monitor, 2000b). Actual releases for research at MUK are also insufficient and at times no funds are allocated. Table 2.05 shows the actual funding by Uganda Government for research at MUK:

Table 2.02 Uganda Government Funding for Research at MUK (1994/5-1999/00)

Academic Year	1994/5	1995/6	1996/7	1997/8	1998/99	1999/20
Amount (Ug.shs.)	245m	Nil	Nil	Nil	110m	134m

Source: Planning and Development Department (MUK).

Assuming that the research fund for the academic year 1999/2000 (See Table 2.02), was equitably allocated to the 963 academics in MUK each would get a mere

(Ug.shs.) 139.148/= which is equivalent to (£56) for research. Arguably, this kind of money is a recipe for impoverished research. Due to inadequate resources, therefore, it would seem that in most, if not all-Ugandan universities research funding tends to be minimal. Additionally, facilities in the faculty and central libraries that exist are often insufficient in terms of the number and quality of books and periodicals available and also in terms of organisation and efficiency (Ocitti, 1993). In the circumstances, the researcher suggests that MUASA, and IUASA have been able to mobilise support for issues that are related to economic benefits or job security. Regrettably, the teaching community in MUK and IUIU have not been very interested in concerning itself with educational issues, even though many academics agree that the educational system is in need of considerable reform (EPRC, 1989).

Arguably, the morale of academics has been damaged and it would seem likely that the small degree of self-esteem and autonomy that the teaching community hitherto used to have in 1960's (Mujaju, 1996) might further be eroded. What impact then, has the status quo had on the job satisfaction of university teachers in Uganda? This leads me to the discussion of job satisfaction studies in Uganda's higher education.

2.5.2 Job Satisfaction Studies in Uganda's Higher Education

In the light of the foregoing discussion, it would seem evident that the situation in most Ugandan universities is very worrying. Consequently, the findings from the few related studies that have been conducted in Uganda's higher education seem to show low levels of satisfaction among staff.

Opolot (1991) found that (ITEK) academic staff were dissatisfied with their pay. The researcher concluded that if job satisfaction was to prevail in an institution, there should be fair remuneration of staff basing on output, experience and level of education. This finding would seem to support Garrett's (1999) observation that in a

situation where lower-order needs are not in place, extrinsic rewards tend to shape the level of satisfaction of workers.

In a study conducted to evaluate the (SDP) at MUK, Etoori (1989) found low job satisfaction among staff. Furthermore, the findings revealed that an institution, which does not provide job satisfaction, will have a high attrition rate, as the staff will always be going away to places where they perceive prospects to be better.

Kyamanywa (1996) investigated job satisfaction in tertiary institutions in Uganda. The results showed that four factors affected job satisfaction: Incentives, pay packages, leadership styles and the obtaining conditions at the work place. The results would seem to show that in a society of scarcity where lower-order needs do not exist, hygiene factors tend to shape the job satisfaction of workers. Bameka (1996) explored factors affecting academic staff productivity at MUK. The findings of the study revealed three major conclusions:

- The level of academic staff qualifications has a significant effect on academic staff productivity in respect of research but has no significant effect on productivity in respect to teaching and provision of community service.
- The financial resource base at MUK, weak as it may be, has no significant effect on staff productivity.
- The level of motivation of the academic staff has a significant effect on the productivity of academic staff at MUK. Bameka's (1996) findings seem to show that unlike financial rewards, personal factors such as one's drive to work, and qualifications held have a significant impact on academic staff productivity at MUK. The results, however, show that where lower order needs are not catered for, teaching and community service tend to be affected.

Mulindwa (1998) assessed job satisfaction among academic and administrative staff at Polytechnic College Kyambogo. Analysis of qualitative evidence revealed that levels of remuneration were the greatest contributor to job satisfaction among staff followed by government policy on higher education and institution policy in that order. This finding would seem to contradict Herzberg's theory, which assumes that intrinsic reward such as salary lead to dissatisfaction. The results, however, seem to support Garrett's (1999) observation that where lower order needs are deficient, extrinsic rewards (e.g. salary) tend to shape the job satisfaction of workers.

Tizikara (1998) conducted a study to investigate correlates of academic staff satisfaction in MUK and IUIU. Her findings revealed that there was a significant difference in satisfaction between academic staff in MUK and IUIU in respect to pay and incentives. Furthermore, the results showed that academic staffs were dissatisfied with the general situation obtaining at their universities particularly in the areas of inadequate instructional materials, teaching space and number of students in class. She concluded that job satisfaction of academics at both universities, at the time of the research, was affected by social, political and financial correlates though in varying degrees.

In light of the foregoing discussion, it would seem appropriate to suggest that Uganda's higher education seems not to provide the kind of pay that is professionally rewarding to its academic staff. Additionally, the kind of physical environment that obtains seems not to encourage professional development or high quality academic work. From the available evidence, therefore, there is no question but that the Uganda teaching community tends to be in turmoil and many frustrations and contradictions lie under the surface. What then, are some of the consequences of the apparent pay dissatisfaction and working in a constraining environment on the Uganda academia?

2.6 Possible Consequences of Job Satisfaction on the Uganda Academia

As most job satisfaction studies among academic staff in Uganda's higher education tend to show, the Uganda academic community seems to find itself in an ambivalent and in general unenviable position. As in most other SSA countries, remuneration packages for academics in Uganda are generally poor and non-competitive, (both internally with other professions and externally with other universities) and their lack of purchasing power is the major source of academic staff dissatisfaction (World Bank, 1994; ADAE, 1996).

2.6.1 Consequences of Inadequate Academic Salaries

There are a number of behavioural outcomes believed to accompany pay dissatisfaction. Research evidence suggests that compensation policies and amounts influence : First, the level of absenteeism (Mobley et al., 1979; Hackett, 1989), and second, affect and shape turnover decisions (Finn and Lee, 1972) and lastly, influence and determine workers' decision on their productivity (Mahoney, 1979). It would seem tenable, therefore, to suggest that pay satisfaction is not only an issue of financial adequacy, but also that of psychological adequacy. Additionally, pay satisfaction happens when existing pay corresponds to, or is greater than, desired pay while pay dissatisfaction occurs when existing pay is less than desired pay (Oshagbemi, 2000).

In a similar vein, low salaries have forced academics in most universities in Uganda, to take other jobs, reducing their commitment to their primary responsibilities and subsequently dividing their loyalties. Highlighting the plight of academics at MUK, Mujaju (1996) observed that the Makerere professor moves on foot because he cannot buy a car, and the little money a professor earns is hardly enough to attend to his many needs. To fulfil these needs, therefore, lecturers and professors at MUK have to

find other sources of income which affects their commitment and loyalty to their employer. Likewise, at IUIU, even as recently as July 1998, the lecturers were reported to be on strike because of unpaid salary arrears of five months (Tizikara, 1998). It is, moreover, not uncommon (particularly at IUIU) for academics to be paid half salary and the other half to be paid several months later!

The impact of the above scenario tends to manifest itself on the academia in Ugandan universities in three ways:

- One trend is where lecturers leave the country to offer their services in universities that pay competitive salaries. This constitutes *brain drain*. For instance, a number of dons have fled some universities in Uganda for lucrative pay in the University of Botswana, Lesotho, and some other universities in South Africa.
- For some academics, realising that conditions are unsupportive, they tend to flee their respective universities for favourable surroundings in government, business or even to serve in the executive arm of government. For Shabani (1993) this scenario is *brain recycling*.
- The third tendency is for academics (and indeed the majority of them) to remain in service at their universities, and make economic ends meet by engaging in activities which are unrelated to their primary duties. This constitutes *brain leakage* and tends to be detrimental to the academic prowess of dons for they make no effort to improve their quality of teaching (Shabani, 1993), and valuable time is spent on chasing *economic cows* (Ocitti, 1993).

2.6.2 Consequences of Working in a Constraining Environment

The present plight of academics in Ugandan universities cannot be explained entirely in terms of inadequate funding. Dwindling resources usually force the administration most of whom are not trained in financial and crisis management (Ajayi et al., 1996),

to adjust the pattern of resource allocation which in most cases ends in an across-the-board cut in the budget. Such cuts, as Coombe (1991) observed are manifested in most African universities in: First, the squeeze on student accommodation, the collapse or decline of municipal services, crowded classrooms, and teaching reduced to chalk and talk. Secondly, in frustrated teachers, who must hustle for additional income, libraries whose acquisition votes have been nominal for years on end, and impoverished research. Indeed, the present working conditions of university staff in Africa depict a gloomy picture (Sanyal and Michael, 1991), and the unsatisfactory working environment prevailing in many African universities is certainly a major factor contributing to the exodus of academic staff from these institutions.

With regard to the Ugandan experience, the unplanned expansion of student enrolment at MUK and IUIU, in response to increased demand for higher education has led to an overstretching of physical resources (Passi, 1994). Thus, among Uganda academics the subjects that are often raised for debate are the mismatch between student numbers and infrastructure capacity, and the low internal and external efficiency of the system. This constraining situation tends to contribute to deficient teaching, which as Coombe (1991) puts it, is reduced to chalk and talk.

Additionally, Uganda academics like most of their SSA counterparts, find themselves in a predicament as far as publishing their works is concerned. Indeed, many university presses in Africa have been victims of economic squeeze yet publishing abroad is not easy and can be subject to agonising delays (Ajayi et al., 1996). In the circumstances, it would seem tenable to suggest that the circulation of ideas and research findings tends to slow down, and chances of promotion may suffer.

Many individual academics in Ugandan universities, therefore, make every possible effort to try and cope as best as they could with the hardship and frustration of

contemporary sub-Saharan Africa academic life. Ajayi et al., (1996) succinctly described the impact of stagnation and deterioration of physical resources on the African academia:

“...The extreme erosion of working and living conditions on many campuses has driven some academics to seek refuge in cynicism, venality, actual or psychic truancy, dereliction of duty and opportunism...” (Ajayi et al., 1996; p.149).

Accordingly, in most Ugandan universities productive scholarship and teaching tend to be limited by non-academic considerations that seem to become part of the institutional environment. Inevitably, on the part of academics, energy is sapped, compromises are made, and productivity tends to fall. Arguably, in a society of scarcity and in institutional frameworks where financial and physical resources tend to inhibit clear norms of behaviour, it is not surprising that internal politics play an important yet disruptive role. For instance, the researcher observed that both at the IUIU and MUK internal squabbles and bickering are rife.

But there is a new worrying phenomenon creeping into some, if not all, Ugandan universities. University campuses are becoming unionised, fragmented into rival unions: of students, workers, academic staff, and technical and administrative staff that may be tempted to place the interest of their particular unions before the overall interest of the university. Unfortunately, the unions sometimes pull in opposite directions, subsequently making incompatible demands that tend to tear the university apart. For instance, MUASA and IUASA have caused unrest and disruption at their respective institutions. At MUK, dons on several occasions have *downed tools* and, their demands relate largely to dissatisfaction with their remuneration, working in a constraining environment as well as power struggle within the university (MUASA, 1996).

Likewise, at the IUIU, (where the researcher is an academic staff member), dons have on several occasions refused to teach and/or mark examination papers or provide records of the results of continuous assessment of students if their salary arrears are not paid. The effect of such unrest has been, of course, further demoralisation of dons, and disruption of the normal functioning of the Ugandan universities in question.

This chapter has reviewed the conceptual framework that underpinning this study.

The review has indicated that key influences upon job satisfaction may range from employee needs to cultural and environmental variations. Related studies in the affluent and afflicted world have been scrutinised, as well the relationship between variables such as age and gender and job satisfaction. The plight of SSA academics, and Uganda in particular, has also been discussed in the light of the impending circumstances. The entire research design of this study is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research design and the methods used to collect data for this study. It describes the methodological rationale, research design, data collection methods and instrumentation, samples and sampling design, ethical issues, as with the data analysis plan.

3.1. Methodological Rationale

When undertaking any investigation, it is pertinent to choose appropriate paradigms and methods of inquiry likely to yield the highest quality data obtainable within the research context. Consequently, to examine and analyse factors that predict Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, a 'multi-method approach' or commonly referred to as triangulation (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Punch, 1998) combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods was adopted. It was anticipated that the survey questionnaires would provide the *breadth* of coverage, which can be credibly applied, to a wider population from which the sample of the study was drawn (Brown and Dowling, 1988). Furthermore, quantitative methods tend to be relatively low in cost and time requirements (Punch, 1998) to enable a large quantity of relevant data to be amassed and subjected to statistical analysis. Additionally, the interview and the documentary analysis would offer the *depth* and useful insights regarding Ugandan academics job satisfaction. This is because directive, tightly focused, quantitative methods of questioning may fail to get *beneath* the surface (Davies, 1997), and also limit the range of possible responses. Indeed, when researching organisations and people working in them, one should attempt to

mix methods, because *triangulation* provides more perceptions on the phenomenon being investigated (Denzin, 1989; Easterby-Smith, 1991; Cohen and Manion, 1994; Denscombe, 1998; Bryman, 2001). Moreover, it is important to enable informants to raise their own concerns as well as respond to issues raised by the researcher (Vulliamy et al., 1990).

The researcher is, nonetheless, cognisant of the inherent flaws that beset the use of qualitative and quantitative methods in educational research as evidenced by the writings of (Finch, 1986; Crossley and Broadfoot, 1992; Bryman and Crammer, 1997; Crossley and Vulliamy, 1997). While qualitative methods raise methodological and ethical issues pertaining to the influence of the researcher on the data collected and the informants, the quantitative approach is limited to highly structured data extraction techniques, which often, as Cresswell (1994) suggested do not accommodate manoeuvrability during the problem investigation phase.

To avert the inherent weaknesses of each method, thus, the research design adhered to a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. Indeed, Blease and Bryman (1986) supported the combination of both strategies within the same research design, arguing:

“...Not only may the two be mutually enhancing, but a sensitive merger may provide a more complete picture, which might be more satisfying and attractive to academics and policy makers alike...”
(p167).

Besides, available evidence is increasingly supportive of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies as complementary, rather than opposing paradigms (Patton, 1990; Burgoyne, 1994; Crossley and Vulliamy, 1997). In a bid for a more holistic view of the research area (Punch, 1998), and to enhance the depth, richness, and validity of the collected data, the researcher decided to combine both qualitative and quantitative research methods when investigating self-reported levels of job

satisfaction among Ugandan academics. Arguably, both methods tend to initiate new lines of thinking through attention to surprises or paradoxes, turning ideas around, and providing fresh insights. Indeed, Firestone (1987) asserted that whereas quantitative research persuades the reader through de-emphasising individual judgement and thereby leading to precise results, the qualitative strategy persuades the reader through rich depiction, hence overcoming abstraction. Such integration, therefore, is likely to elicit more robust or holistic data thereby providing a rich vein of analysis of sources of Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

3.2 Research Design

Broadly conceived design refers to the plan and schedule of work, or a process of creating an empirical test to support or reject a knowledge claim (Ball and Gall, 1989). Put at its simplest, as Bogden and Biklen (1992:58) suggested design in research denotes the 'researcher's plan of how to proceed.' Indeed, research design is a logical model of proof that allows a researcher to draw inferences and define the domain of generalisability (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). It would seem, therefore, that research design is the programme that guides an investigator on the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting observations.

The design process for this study was carried out in five stages. At the outset the researcher conducted a general literature search to elucidate the nature of the problem. This process involved a perusal of job satisfaction related studies in affluent and afflicted countries. Additionally, terms and conditions of service, statutes, strategic plans, policy documents and academic staff deliberations of IUIU and MUK were also scrutinised. This review culminated in problem identification, formation of research questions and hypotheses, as with the development of the conceptual framework of the study.

This was preceded by formation of the research plan, identification of the general population to be studied, and development of the data collection instruments. A key concern was to design a research plan that would prove feasible and viable within financial and time constraints, yet robust enough to generate sound conclusions and insightful recommendations. The third phase identified the key sources of data notably academics, and a survey of pertinent documents in IUIU and MUK.

3.2.1. The Survey Questionnaire

Having identified the research problem, data sources, and the key research questions to guide the study, the researcher deemed it imperative to address data collection strategies in the field. To identify predictors of Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, a questionnaire survey was found to be the most appropriate. The survey questionnaire was preferred because as (Borg and Gall, 1989) contended its constructs and knowledge claims ‘hypothesis’ are grounded in objective observations of the world. Given, that the researcher had limited funds and time, the survey method was deemed suitable. Indeed, the survey method is a supremely useful and quick way of exploring the field (Moser and Kalton, 1985), and data elicited from survey questionnaires are relatively cheap and easy to analyse (Bell, 1993; Cohen and Manion, 1994). Besides, surveys gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, and determine the relationship that exist between specific events (Casley and Kumar, 1992; Cohen and Manion, 1994). Fundamentally, the decision to use the survey method was based on:

- It was possible to formulate the questionnaires in a manner that was beneficial and relevant to the focus of the study. Denscombe (1998:11) observed that questionnaires ask respondents what they *do* and what they *think*. Likewise, the survey method was deemed an appropriate strategy to elicit factors that evoke

Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction relative to eight aspects notably teaching, research, governance, remuneration, promotion, supervision, co-worker behaviour, and working conditions.

- Considering that the researcher was to conduct interviews to enrich quantitative data, the survey method was considered suitable because as Rosier (1997) observed surveys can be conducted with a number of different data collection instruments and techniques.
- The survey method suited the researcher because of the fairly large population which was geographically scattered (IUIU located in the east, and MUK in central Uganda). Indeed, a common questionnaire across respondents enables comparisons to be made, and analysis of the distribution of patterns of association to be carried out (Fowler, 1984; Cohen and Manion, 1984; Wiersma, 1986; Alreck and Settle, 1995). Questionnaires, thus, were deemed appropriate because they would cover a large sample of dons, thereby allowing a reasonable degree of generalisability of the findings.

3.2.2. Institutions participating in the Survey

The last stage of the research design focused on identification and selection of the universities to be surveyed. Given time and financial constraints, IUIU and MUK-two universities with remarkable contrasts were selected to participate in the study. The former established in 1988 is relatively new, peri-urban and private, as opposed to the latter, which is a 78-year-old public institution located in urban Kampala. The two institutions may not constitute a large enough sample to be representative of all colleges and universities in the country, but the researcher felt that they might provide a large number of academic representation of the range and diversity found in the institutions of higher learning in Uganda.

Table 3.01: Universities that participated in the Study

University	Characteristics			
	Status	Location	Age (years)	Enrolment
IUIU	Private	Peri-urban	New (< 15)	< 2000
MUK	Public	Urban	Old (> 50)	> 10000

Because dons were the primary focus of this study, therefore, IUIU and MUK were selected to assure that different kinds of academics in Uganda could be investigated. Consequently, purposive/judgmental sampling was used to ensure a fairly comparative representation of the current twelve (ten private and two public) universities in Uganda as illustrated in Table 3.01.

3.3. Data Collection Methods and Instrumentation

Consistent with the notion that the methods and instruments chosen considerably depend on the extent to which they can serve the purpose of the study, and address the research questions posed (Seidman, 1991), questionnaires and interviews were considered appropriate instruments for data collection.

3.3.1. Designing the Questionnaires

To design questionnaires capable of collecting sufficient data, and ably answer the research questions of this study (See Chapter, 1; Section 1.3.1), an extensive review of pertinent literature on questionnaire design (Oppenheim, 1992; Fowler, 1993) was conducted by the researcher.

Furthermore, relevant questionnaires were consulted for style notably those used by Altbach (1996), Lacy and Sheehan (1997), Oshagbemi (1996), Hean (2000) and Essex (2000). Of particular interest were the questionnaires used by the popular Job

Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969) which has been found to produce highly reliable results (Imparato, 1972; Oshagbemi, 1997).

Having perused the relevant questionnaires, the researcher produced a draft version of the job description questionnaire. This was extensively discussed with the supervisor, two academic members of staff, and four doctoral students (one Ugandan and a Kenyan-University of Bristol, and two Ugandans-University of Bath). Those participating in a preliminary trial of the materials before a proper pilot run were chosen based on their academic positions in the home country. Consistent with their insightful ideas and criticisms, the questionnaire was reconfigured accordingly particularly in terms of coverage, relevance and consistency. In particular, items in the questionnaire were classified as *intrinsic*, *extrinsic* and those factors that could not be classified were labelled *unclassifiable*. Foreshadowed areas identified for inclusion in the questionnaire and as an interview guide were generated from the research questions in order to ensure that these related to the central issues under investigation. Consequently, the questionnaire and an interview schedule for pre-testing in Uganda were produced.

3.3.1.1. The Job Descriptive Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to collect data in the following areas:

- Section 1- Demographic and background characteristics to provide the needed information to describe the sample such as name of the university, and faculty, as with sex, age, academic rank, tenure, and marital status of the respondent.
- Section 2- Job Aspects-the job satisfaction of academics was measured on nine job aspects/elements comprising of :
 - (i) Teaching
 - (ii) Research
 - (iii) Governance

- (iv) Remuneration
- (v) Opportunities for promotion
- (vi) Supervision
- (vii) Co-worker's behaviour
- (viii) Working environment
- (ix) Job in General (JIG)

Respondents were asked to indicate the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which they derived from each of the eight aspects of their jobs. The scale ranged from 1-5 representing 1-“Extremely Dissatisfied”, 2-Dissatisfied, 3-Indifferent, 4-Satisfied, 5-Extremely Satisfied (See Appendix 1). The criteria were equally weighted. The essence of a 5 point scale was to encourage respondents to use full width of opinion and avoid errors of central tendency.

- Section 3- In order to identify and classify elements which are relevant to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respondents were asked to list five factors or considerations of their job which evoke their satisfaction. Participants were also asked to list separately five leading factors or considerations of their job, which induced their dissatisfaction.

3.4. Field Work

The fieldwork commenced on the 25th April 2000 and ended on the 26th July 2000. Permission and authorisation to collect data were sought and granted from the selected universities-IUIU and MUK (See Appendix 4)

3.4.1 Selection of Co-ordinators

Due to time and financial constraints, and given that IUIU and MUK are more than 200 kilometres apart, it was considered prudent to select faculty co-ordinators in each institution. Consequently, three co-ordinators were selected in IUIU, and eight at MUK. The criteria for selection in IUIU were based on collegiality-fellow academics that are well known and friendly to the researcher. At MUK, the researcher based his

selection on the recommendations of some departmental heads and faculty deans. A number of MUK colleagues were, however, chosen by the researcher and utilised as co-ordinators to reduce any form of bias by departmental heads and faculty deans.

3.4.2. Piloting the Instruments

Pilot tests of the questionnaire and the interview schedule was conducted using four academics from each institution that participated in the survey. The intention was to pilot the instruments on samples that represent the target population as closely as possible. Indeed, the essence of the piloting is to determine the extent to which questions in the instrument convey the intended meaning (Fontana and Frey, 1994). Besides, Leitz and Keeves, (1997) argued that pre-tests provide an opportunity to detect and remove ambiguities, and at the same time ensure that the questions asked are yielding the information sought. Essentially, the pre-test acted as a safety net to ascertain that the questions posed were relevant and covered the problem investigated, and also provided estimates of reliability of the instrument that is independent of the main study (Kothari, 1992).

3.4.2.1. Pre-Testing the Instruments

The pre-tests were conducted in IUIU and MUK. Four academics from each institution were randomly selected. A major concern for the pre-test was to determine the reliability of the instrument. Furthermore, the pre-test was to establish from the responses if the questions asked were unambiguous, consistent and could be answered accurately, as well as to determine the time for completing the questionnaire and interview schedule. Only minor revisions were made as a result of the pre-testing results. It was established that forty-five minutes were enough to complete the survey questionnaire, and one-hour the interview schedule.

3.4.2.2. Instrument Reliability

Borg and Gall (1989) defined reliability as applied to educational measurement, as “the level of internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time” (p.257). To estimate the reliability of the instrument, split-half and Cronbach’s Alpha test methods were used. Indeed, the split-half and Cronbach’s coefficient alpha are a widely used measure of reliability of estimating the internal consistency of a test (Borg and Gall, 1989:260). The researcher found this method as the most appropriate because the items in the instrument were scored using a Likert-type scale with five alternative choices.

Table 3.02: Split-half and Cronbach’s Alpha Tests of the Instrument Reliability

Job Aspect	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Split-half Reliability	Cronbach’s Alpha
Teaching	18	55.9521	8.0307	0.7195	0.7384
Research	16	38.2840	9.9458	0.8710	0.8665
Governance	12	31.9709	7.4758	0.8358	0.8312
Remuneration	08	16.8171	4.7101	0.7996	0.7840
Promotion	10	28.1829	6.8069	0.8414	0.8422
Supervision	14	44.9310	9.4463	0.8807	0.8809
Co-worker	14	48.2899	8.9897	0.8911	0.8912
Working Environ.	15	42.8605	9.6284	0.8592	0.8561
Job in General	04	14.9780	2.7591	0.7334	0.7368

Table 3.02 shows the number of items in each job aspect, the mean score, and the standard deviation. The last two columns show the results of the two types of reliability notably the split-half and Cronbach’s test of reliability for each of the nine aspects that were used to measure academic job satisfaction in this study. The SPSS v. 10 for Windows was used to compute the alpha and standardised item reliability, the results of which showed strong internal consistency for all job aspects. Based on these data, the reliabilities for each job aspect were sufficiently high to warrant acceptance. A detailed reliability analysis and correlation matrix for different groups of items can be seen in Appendix 3.

3.5. Sample Design and Sampling Procedure for the Main Study

Since research in the real world does not take place with infinite resources, time and accessibility, data regarding Ugandan academics job satisfaction were not collected from every don in IUIU and MUK. Given that it is often impossible, impractical or extremely expensive to collect data from all the population covered by the research problem (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996), evidence regarding academic job satisfaction was elicited from a representative portion (sample) of the population of university teachers in IUIU and MUK.

The critical issue, therefore, was for the researcher to decide the size of the sample to be drawn from the population of approximately 1000 university teachers in IUIU and MUK. A key concern was to ensure that the findings from the sample reflect as much as possible almost similar characteristics as those which could be obtained if the whole population were subjected to the study (Oppenheim, 1992). Ideally, the larger the sample, the greater the precision and accuracy of the data generated (Borg and Gall, 1989). It would seem, therefore, that the general consensus in social science research literature is that the size of the sample will vary from one study to another depending on the magnitude of the representativeness of the universe concerned and the nature of the study.

In this study academics were randomly selected from lists of dons in IUIU supplied by the office of the university secretary, and obtained from the PDD office-MUK. The universe from which the sample was drawn included all persons appointed as university teachers in the two institutions. Nonetheless, the sample was limited to full-time academics because they are considered to be the core personnel who are primarily responsible for determining the quality and effectiveness of the institution in carrying out its objectives and purposes. In addition, stratified sampling was used to

ensure a representation of groups from the predetermined target populations relative to gender, age, academic rank, and tenure.

3.5.1. Data Collection in the Field

Data collection in the field was done through the questionnaire, interview schedule, and documentary survey.

3.5.1.1. Survey Administration

There is evidence to suggest that the major limitation of the questionnaires as a data gathering device is low percentage of return (Kerlinger, 1973; Cohen and Manion, 1989; Oppenheim, 1992; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). To offset this problem the researcher self-administered the questionnaires to respondents in IUIU and MUK, and then left self addressed envelopes for each participant to seal the questionnaire after working on it. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter (See Appendix 1) with a formal request for the respondent to participate in the study, an explanation of the object of the study, and an assurance that the respondents' answers will be anonymous and held in strict confidence. Given the busy schedule of academics in IUIU and MUK, the respondents were requested to complete the questionnaires within a period of two weeks.

To ease the collection of questionnaires the researcher utilised co-ordinators as contact points in their respective departments/faculty. Each co-ordinator, (three in IUIU and eight in MUK) was given a big envelope to collect sealed questionnaires from respondents in their department/faculty. In this way, the respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality of their responses. It was agreed that the researcher should collect the questionnaires from various co-ordinators fortnightly. This arrangement was preferred because it gave individual academics time to fill in the questionnaires, and the co-ordinators ample time to collect sealed questionnaires

from participants in their department/faculty. It is worthwhile to highlight that the researcher was hesitant to mail the questionnaires to respondents due to poor postal services in Uganda, yet time and means were major concerns.

Table 3.03: Questionnaire Distribution & Return Rate for Respondents in the Study

Institution	Distributed	Returned	Response Rate (%)
IUIU	70	58	83
MUK	180	124	69
Total	250	182	73

The researcher distributed 250 questionnaires (180 in MUK and 70 in IUIU), and collected 182 usable questionnaires, yielding a response rate of 73 percent. Despite personal follow-ups and written reminders, some academics, as one would expect, simply did not return the questionnaires. Given local circumstances, and cognisant of the fact that return rates for questionnaires are notoriously low (Oppenheim, 1992; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996), the researcher was convinced that a return rate of 73% as shown in Table 3.03 was appropriate to generate sufficient data to answer questions posed in this study.

3.5.1.2. Interview Schedule

The interviews were conducted as informally as possible, with each informant being given freedom to choose convenient time and venue. The object of the interview was to probe informants solely to identify and discuss factors that contribute to Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. A key concern for the researcher was to elicit accurate and reliable information to supplement quantitative data so as to provide the findings a rich vein of analysis. The informants were notified well in advance about the purpose of the study and interviews by letters sent to them directly.

The importance of open, truthful and frank responses was underscored to the selected informants.

Table 3.04: Demographic characteristics of Interviewees in IUIU and MUK

IUIU						MUK				
Academic Rank						Academic Rank				
	Prof.	A/Prof	S/Lect.	Lect.	A/Lect	Prof	A/Prof	S/Lect	Lect.	A/Lect
No	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Age	55+	45-54	35-44	35+	< 35	55+	45-54	35-44	35+	< 35
Gender	M	M	1M 1F	1M 1F	1M 1F	1M 1F	1M 1F	1M 1F	1M 1F	1M 1F
Tenure(yr.)	10+	6-10	0-5	10+	0-5	21-30	11-20	6-10	10+	0-5

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect.= Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; A/Lect=Assistant Lecturers
M= Male F= Female

The conduct of interviews commenced after collecting the questionnaires. To select respondents on the basis of age, gender, academic rank, and tenure, the researcher used the stratified/judgmental sampling strategy. The overriding objective was to gather data on the said demographic characteristics, and assess their impact on academic job satisfaction. The researcher personally administered all interviews, and the questions asked were the same for all informants (Appendix 2). In all, twenty interviews were conducted, ten academics from each institution. A breakdown of informants in IUIU and MUK is summarised in Table 3.04.

It can be seen (Table 3.04) that the informants were representative of different age, gender, tenure and academic rank. Not unexpectedly, given the gender imbalance of academics worldwide (Altbach, 1996), there were no female professors and associate professors in IUIU which, prompted the researcher to interview only male professorial staff. The interviews were recorded in audiotape and transcribed to maintain accuracy of data and preserve the original words of each informant.

It is often argued that recording interviews may result in bias because the interviewer as Cohen and Manion (1994:283) suggested may unconsciously emphasise responses that agree with the interviewee's expectations and fail to note those that do not.

Besides, Bogden and Biklen (1992:107) observed that the tape recorder misses the sights, the impressions, extra remarks and gestures prior and after the interview. To counteract such shortcomings, the researcher took notes in the course of interviews to assist him to capture the meaning and context of the interview in greater details. Moreover, field work notes provided a personal log that helped the researcher to keep track of the progress of the study, as well as to visualise how the research plan was affected by the data collected, and to remain conscious of how the researcher was influenced by the data.

3.5.1.3. Documentary Review

Permission to gain access and to use documents was sought from university secretaries of IUIU and MUK (Appendix 4). A number of documents were reviewed, particularly government policy documents on higher education in Uganda, terms and conditions of academic staff, statutes, strategic plans, committee reports, mission statements, and minutes/ Newsletters of academic staff associations - IUASA and MUASA. The researcher found documentary data very useful in confirming or denying the interview response.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

Since educational research does not take place in a vacuum, educational researchers are constantly interacting with a complex and demanding socio-political environment that influences their research decisions both formally and informally. To cope with such influences, thus, the researcher followed a number of guidelines in research, which among others included:

- Seeking informed consent of respondents and making it known to them that their participation is voluntary. Indeed, the ethical part of any research process entails obtaining respondent's informed consent, and protecting them from harm be it

emotional or physical, by the way researchers ask questions and report findings (Punch, 1994; 1998). Considering that central to the relation of the informants and the interviewer is access and acceptance (Punch, 1998), the researcher sought consent of responding academics in IUIU and MUK, and subsequently informed them of the research aims and applications, as with the rationale of the study.

- Utmost care was taken by the researcher to respect the rights of the respondents, and not to invade their privacy. Equally, the researcher ensured that participating academics are not deceived, betrayed, or exploited by the research process. Consequently, the respondents were assured of confidentiality by separating their identity from the information they gave.
- The researcher was cognisant of the arduous working conditions of fellow dons in IUIU and MUK who are seemingly poorly paid and are required, therefore, to work extremely long hours often in more than one institution (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Additional demands have been made on their time with the increased enrolment of students in their institutions without a concomitant increase in facilities (See Section 1.1.1; Chapter, 1). For this reason, and a desire for impartiality, every attempt was made to keep the demands and influence of the research and opinions of the researcher to a minimum.

3.7. Data Analysis Plan

Usable questionnaires along with demographic responses were tabulated using the computer programme Excel, v 8. In order to analyse the data statistically, the (SPSS for Windows, v 10) was used to compute the reliability of each aspect of job satisfaction and the percentages of the responding academics.

To better understand what factors contributed to Ugandan academics job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, the factors of each of the nine aspects of the academic job used in

this study were examined. The need to have the description of data and to identify differences between variables and their influences on selected sample characteristics entailed using descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics, therefore, were presented for all the aspects of the job satisfaction scales.

A 5 point scale was used to elicit data from responding academics. The scale ranged from 1-5 representing 1-“Extremely Dissatisfied”, 2-“Dissatisfied”, 3-“Indifferent”, 4-“Satisfied”, 5-“Extremely Satisfied” (See Appendix 1). The essence of a 5 point scale was to encourage respondents to use full width of opinion and avoid errors of central tendency. For purposes of analysis, however, the two extreme categories of 1-“Extremely Dissatisfied” and 5-“Extremely Satisfied” were collated into one and scored as 2=Dissatisfied; 3=Indifferent; and 4=Satisfied as illustrated in (Table 4.09; Chapter, 4).

To identify if there were any differences in the level of job satisfaction of respondents on each aspect, the SPSS was utilised and a principal component analysis was performed and factors were rotated using varimax procedures by which factors with significant loadings were extracted. A t-test was applied to compute if there were any significant differences in respondents’ level of job satisfaction on each aspect based on institution, age, gender, academic rank, and tenure. The level of significance was set at 0.05.

The analysis of free response data, and filed notes from the interview was triangulated with the quantitative findings to identify vital explanatory factors in light of the review and issues emerging from the documentary survey. Qualitative findings, thus, complemented the quantitative data by interpreting and verifying the findings. Some of the arguments, illustrations and frustrations are presented as direct quotations and others highlighted in the boxes. These data were analysed inductively in light of the

conceptual framework of the study, and the review which, permitted the researcher to articulate on an informed ground factors that evoked Ugandan academics job satisfaction, and those that induced their dissatisfaction.

This chapter has discussed the considerations underpinning the research design and methodology of this study. The data for the research questions, and hypothesis for which this research sought to fulfil are presented, analysed and findings discussed in Chapter 4, 5, and 6.

CHAPTER 4

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO ACADEMIC JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the analysis of the collected data and to report and discuss the statistical findings of this research.

The problem of this study was to:

- ❖ Identify the factors that contribute to job satisfaction of academics in universities in Uganda.
- ❖ Identify the factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction of university academics in Uganda.
- ❖ Determine if there are any significant differences in the level of job satisfaction among academics in the surveyed universities in Uganda (IUIU and MUK) as measured by each of the 8 aspects of the Job Description Instrument used in this study.

The null hypotheses of this study were:

- There are no significant differences among academics of different age levels regarding the factors contributing to their job satisfaction.
- There is no significant difference between male and female academics regarding the factors of their job that contribute to their satisfaction.
- There are no significant differences among academics with different tenure of university service regarding the factors contributing to their job satisfaction.
- There is no significant difference among academics of different academic ranks regarding factors contributing to their job satisfaction.

A survey questionnaire was utilised to collect data from each respondent. To analyse research question 1 and 2 descriptive statistics were presented for the nine aspects of the job satisfaction scales.

This chapter presents the results of the analysed data and it is divided into three sections: Section 1 provides the statistical profiles of respondent's i.e. demographic characteristics of the participants in this study. Section 2 presents the findings and discussion of the analysed data in reference to the research questions of this study. The last section provides a comparison of quantitative findings with free-response data followed by a summary and conclusion of the chapter.

4.0 Demographic Data of the Sample

The first section of the instrument sought demographic data of the respondents relative to: marital status, gender, age, academic rank, and tenure as university academic. Table 4.01 presents respondents according to their university by gender.

Table 4.01: Distribution of Respondents according to their University by Gender

Gender	University	(n)	%	University	(n)	%	IUIU +MUK	
							(n)	%
Male	IUIU	49	84.5	MUK	93	75.0	142	78.0
Female	IUIU	9	15.5	MUK	31	25.0	40	22.0
Total	IUIU	n=58	100.0	MUK	n=124	100.0	182	100.0

IUIU- Islamic University in Uganda
MUK- Makerere University, Kampala

A total of 58 participants in IUIU, 49 males 85% and 9 females 15% responded to the questionnaire. At MUK, 93 75% male and 31 25% female responded to the questionnaire making a total of 124 respondents. Comparing IUIU respondents with the MUK sample, (Table 4.01) reveals that 93 51% male academics and 31 17% females of the total sample were from MUK. On the other hand, 49 27% male respondents and 9 5% females of the sample were from IUIU. Overall, in IUIU and MUK a total of 182 academics responded to the questionnaire out of which 142 78%

were male and 40 22% female. This finding tends to confirm Boyer et al.'s (1994) results, that the majority of faculty worldwide is male. Table 4.02 illustrates academic population in IUIU and MUK by gender. It can be seen that only 20% of the 963 academics at MUK are female. Indeed, out of 48 full professors in MUK, only 2 are female (PDD, 1998/99).

Table 4.02: Distribution of Academic Population according to their University by Gender

Gender	University	(n)	%	University	(n)	%	IUIU +MUK	
							(n)	%
Male	IUIU	64	88.9	MUK	769	79.9	833	80.5
Female	IUIU	8	11.1	MUK	194	20.1	202	19.5
Total	IUIU	n=72	100.0	MUK	n=963	100.0	1035	100.0

IUIU- Islamic University in Uganda
MUK- Makerere University, Kampala

Likewise, in IUIU of the 72 full-time academics, females are only 11% (A/R, 1999/00). Overall, IUIU and MUK for every five academics, only one is female representing less than 20% of the academic population. Considering the small proportion of females in the total population, therefore, the percentage of those who responded to the questionnaire survey can certainly not be considered low.

Table 4.03 indicates the statistical profiles of respondents by age.

Table 4.03: Distribution of Respondents according to their University by Age

Age	University	(n)	%	University	(n)	%	IUIU +MUK	
							(n)	%
< 35 years	IUIU	20	34.5	MUK	45	36.3	65	35.7
35-44 years	IUIU	26	44.8	MUK	36	29.0	62	34.1
45-54 years	IUIU	6	10.3	MUK	30	24.2	36	19.8
55+	IUIU	6	10.3	MUK	13	10.5	19	10.4
Total	IUIU	n=58	100.0	MUK	n=124	100.0	n=182	100.0

IUIU -Islamic University in Uganda
MUK -Makerere University, Kampala

It is notable that 36% of the sample were less than 35 years old. This was about the same percentage, 34% of those who were between 35-44 years old. Overall, almost 70% of the responding academics were between the less than 35-44-age bracket.

Approximately, 20% of the respondents were between 45-54 years old and 10% of the total sample 55+ years old. This finding suggests that the majority of responding academics were less than 45 years old. These data seem consistent with Boyer et al. (1994) findings that the majority of dons worldwide are middle aged. Or could the relatively small number of academics over 55+ suggest that in Uganda, university academics retire early or as dons age they tend to flee their academic responsibilities for jobs outside academia?

50% of the surveyed dons were lecturers, while 18% of the total sample indicated that they were of senior lecturer rank (Table 4.04).

Table 4.04: Distribution of the Respondents according to their University by Academic Rank

Academic Rank	University	(n)	%	University	(n)	%	IUIU +MUK	
							(n)	%
Professors	IUIU	4	6.9	MUK	11	8.9	15	8.2
A/Professors	IUIU	1	1.7	MUK	18	14.5	19	10.4
Senior Lecturers	IUIU	7	12.1	MUK	25	20.2	32	17.6
Lecturers	IUIU	40	69.0	MUK	51	41.1	91	50.0
Other	IUIU	6	10.3	MUK	19	15.3	25	13.7
Total	IUIU	n=58	100.0	MUK	n=124	100.0	n=182	100.0

IUIU -Islamic University in Uganda
MUK -Makerere University, Kampala

Additionally, 8% of sampled academics reported holding the rank of professor. Associate professors represented 10% of the sample. Only 10% of surveyed academics in IUIU were of “other” ranks, and 15% in MUK constituting 13% of the sampled respondents in the study. Relative to tenure, close to 36% of the responding dons were new comers who had spent less than 5 years in university service (Table 4.05).

Interestingly, respondents who have been in university service between 6-10 years, 26% of the sample is equal to the number of responding academics who reported serving 11-20 years. These data could suggest that the majority of academics in IUIU

and MUK (those who had served between 6-20years) fall in between the category of new comers 36% i.e. those less than five years in service, and those who had served much longer 12% i.e. in excess of 21 years.

Table 4.05: Distribution of the Respondents according to their University by Tenure

Years	University	(n)	%	University	(n)	%	IUIU+MUK	
							(n)	%
0-5	IUIU	33	56.9	MUK	32	25.8	65	35.7
6-10	IUIU	9	15.5	MUK	39	31.5	48	26.4
11-20	IUIU	10	17.2	MUK	38	30.6	48	26.4
21-30	IUIU	6	8.6	MUK	15	12.1	21	11.5
31+	IUIU	-	-	MUK	-	-	-	-
Total	IUIU	n=58	100.0	MUK	n=124	100.0	n=182	100.0

IUIU -Islamic University in Uganda
MUK -Makerere University, Kampala

There were no respondents who reported serving as dons in excess of 30 years. Could it be that respondents retire early or as the years of service progress, Ugandan dons tend to be attracted to lucrative jobs elsewhere? With respect to marriage, 75% of the participants reported themselves as married and 25% were single (Table 4.06).

Table 4.06: Distribution of the Respondents according to their University by Marital Status

Marital Status	University	(n)	%	University	(n)	%	IUIU+MUK	
							(n)	%
Married	IUIU	44	75.9	MUK	92	74.2	136	74.7
Single	IUIU	14	24.1	MUK	32	25.8	46	25.3
Divorced	IUIU	-	-	MUK	-	-	-	-
Widowed	IUIU	-	-	MUK	-	-	-	-
Other	IUIU	-	-	MUK	-	-	-	-
Total	IUIU	n=58	100.0	MUK	n=124	100.0	n=182	100.0

IUIU -Islamic University in Uganda
MUK -Makerere University, Kampala

24% of IUIU respondents indicated that they are married, and 32 26% in MUK opted to describe themselves as single. No academic in IUIU and MUK reported being divorced, widowed or "other". Could this suggest that the majority of dons in the surveyed universities are married? Additionally, one wonders whether this finding

suggests that study participants are leading stable married lives with virtually no divorce cases reported.

4.1 Analysis, and Discussion of Data in the context of Related Research Questions

To better understand what factors contributed to academic satisfaction in Ugandan universities, the factors of each of the nine major aspects of the academic job in the instrument used in this research were examined.

In exploring Research Question 1: Which factors contribute to job satisfaction for university academics in Uganda? And Research Question 2: Which factors contribute to job dissatisfaction for university academics in Uganda? Descriptive statistics were presented for the nine aspects of the job satisfaction scales. Instrument scoring for the aspects of the job seen in Table 4.07 can be viewed in the Appendix 1. A brief description of the major aspects of job used in this research can be viewed in Table 4.07.

Table 4.07: Definition of major Aspects of the Job of Academics used in this Study

Aspect of Job	Description
TEACHING	Represents the major teaching aspects of the job and describes what it is most of the time
RESEARCH	Describes the degree to which academics feel satisfied from the general opportunities and facilities available to research and publish
GOVERNANCE	Defines the degree of satisfaction academics derive from their relationship with university administrators and faculty involvement in the administrative affairs of the university
REMUNERATION	Measures the degree to which academics are satisfied with the present income received for the work
PROMOTION	Describes satisfaction with the general personal and professional growth opportunities available to the academic for advancement
SUPERVISION	Measures satisfaction with the kind of direction an academic receives on the job
CO-WORKERS	This aspect measured academics' feeling towards fellow employees and their satisfaction with personal interaction with professional and non-professional colleagues at work
PHYSICAL CONDITIONS	Defined the available working facilities for academics and the degree to which they were satisfied with the environment in which they work
JOB IN GENERAL (JIG)	This aspect measured academics' feeling of overall well being on the job they held at present in areas: Academic work as an occupation; career prospects in this job; status as a don and feelings of worthwhile accomplishment in the job they held

To answer Research Question 3: Are there any significant differences in the level of job satisfaction between academics in the surveyed universities as measured by each of the nine aspects of the Job Satisfaction Instrument used in the study? The SPSS

was utilised and a principal component analysis was performed and factors were rotated using varimax procedures by which factors with heavy loadings were extracted. A t-test was used to compute if there was any significant difference between the two samples (IUIU and MUK) on each of the nine aspects of the job of academics. The level of significance was set at .05.

4.2 Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Primary Duties

The essential duties of academics are teaching, research and at least to some degree administration and management. The satisfactions derived from these primary tasks by sampled respondents in this study are now considered in greater detail. Table 4.08 presents the percent satisfaction of respondents with teaching.

Table 4.08: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Teaching

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Interest shown by students in course(s) taught	93.4
2-Course(s) taught in relation to professional training	91.8
3-Degree of autonomy in content taught	85.6 (% of 180)
4-Time allocated for a lecture	77.5
5-Teacher-student relationship	76.9
6-Supervision of student projects	53.4 (% of 178)
7-Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	48.9 (% of 180)
8-Marking answer scripts	46.2
9-The size of class(es) taught	45.5 (% of 178)
10-Teaching load	44.5
11-Procedures for course evaluation	36.8
12-Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	36.1 (% of 180)
13-The quality of student intake	35.7
14-Departmental strategy on teaching	35.6 (% of 180)
15-Quality of tutorials you conduct/conducted	33.9 (% of 177)
16-Recognition of teaching skills in your university	19.0 (% of 179)
17-Instructional materials available for teaching	13.7
18-Library facilities for teaching	11.0

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factors with Extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor

4.2.1. Academic Satisfaction with Teaching

The ratings of the respondents (Table 4.08) on the satisfaction derived from *extrinsic* factors like the quality of tutorials conducted, teaching load, the size of the class taught, and procedures for course evaluation were low, all less than 50%. This is not surprising considering that in IUIU and MUK, there is a mismatch between the

number of students and the instructional resources available (See Section 2.5.1 & 2.6.2; Chapter, 2).

Interestingly, academics rated the satisfaction derived from *intrinsic* factors of *teaching* very highly. This positive rating is reflected in the percentages of the respondents who were satisfied with *intrinsic* aspects of teaching like interest shown by students in courses taught, as with autonomy of content taught, a figure ranging from 70–94 %. For instance, Table 4.09 reveals the satisfaction of responding dons with courses taught. It can be seen that almost 92% were satisfied, and 5% reported dissatisfaction while 3% indicated indifference. With a mean of almost 4, Ugandan academics shows that they are satisfied with the courses taught in relation to professional training.

Table 4.09: Frequency and percentage distribution showing academic satisfaction with course(s) taught (n=182)

Rating	Frequency	Percentage
2=Dissatisfied	9	4.9
3=Indifferent	6	3.3
4=Satisfied	167	91.8
Total	704	100.0
Mean	3.9	

Indeed, this finding seems congruent with the opinion of McKeachie (1982:p.7) that academics enter university teaching because of the enjoyment they receive from scholarly pursuits, stimulation from colleagues and students, and the satisfaction of being appreciated and respected by others. Moreover, these data are consistent with prior evidence. Startup et al., (1974) found 73% of British dons satisfied with the courses taught, and the most common reason given for this being the exercise of control which the individual had on the content of his course. Likewise, Finkelstein (1984) reported that in USA academics' careers provided them with the opportunity to fulfil innermost needs and in particular:

“...the need for autonomy and use of intellect as a mode of mastering experience...” (p.80).

In same vein, Moses (1986) produced evidence that Australian academics found their work intrinsically satisfying and valued the complexity of the work and their autonomy. Sufficiently comparable, among USA academics a notable characteristic was that many of its members exercised a greater degree of autonomy over the conditions of their work than do their counterparts in other professions Serow, (2000). This satisfaction level was greater than might have been expected in light of (Section 2.5.1 & 2.6.2; Chapter 2) but Cornejo and Rodriguez (1997) cited in Hean (2000) also found that when questionnaires alone were relied upon to measure job satisfaction, work and professional satisfaction are reported as high. This scenario Hean (2000) suggested had largely to do with teachers responding to what they thought was socially acceptable.

Notwithstanding, these data are at variance with the notion in the literature of linking satisfaction to a hierarchy of needs. As Maslow (1954) maintained, it may only be when lower level job facets in work are satisfied that higher level satisfaction can be expressed. Indeed, where basic needs (*extrinsic*) are not met, then the higher needs (*intrinsic*) do not come into play (Evans, 1997). The reader should note, however, that despite the very worrying plight of Ugandan academics (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter 2), these data show that they were highly satisfied with some *intrinsic* elements of teaching. It also emerged from the interviews that teaching per se tended to stimulate academics. One interviewee remarked:

“...What stimulates me most in teaching is sharing knowledge with students and getting learned all the time, coupled with producing people who are useful to society...” (Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda).

The study findings lend support to Boyer et al. (1994) evidence where, 68% of Russian academics and over 60% in each of four American countries were satisfied

with teaching. Furthermore, these data reinforce Oshagbemi's (1996) findings that UK academics were particularly more satisfied with teaching than other aspects of their job. Likewise, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) found 77% satisfaction among Australian academics with the classes they taught. In Germany, Enders and Teichler (1997) found that university professors preferred teaching to other aspects of their job.

Relative to teaching, therefore, the factors that contributed most to Ugandan academics satisfaction were:

- Interest shown by students in courses taught
- Courses taught in relation to professional training
- Autonomy in content taught
- The time allocated for a lecture
- Teacher-student relationship.

4.2.1.1 Dissatisfaction with Teaching

75% of the respondents felt unhappy with *extrinsic* factors like instructional materials.

Table 4.10: Distribution of Percent Dissatisfaction with Teaching

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Library facilities for teaching	76.9
2-Instructional materials available for teaching	74.7
3-Recognition of teaching skills in your university	58.7 (% of 179)
4-The size of class(es) taught	47.2 (% of 178)
5-The quality of student intake	46.2
6-Quality of tutorials you conduct/conducted	44.1 (% of 177)
7-Teaching load	40.7
8-Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	40.0 (% of 180)
9-Departmental strategy on teaching	40.0 (% of 180)
10-Course(s) taught in relation to professional training	4.9
11-Procedures for course evaluation	39.0
12-Marking answer scripts	35.7
13-Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	33.3 (% of 180)
14-Interest shown by students in course(s) taught	3.8
15-Degree of autonomy in content taught	2.2 (% of 180)
16-Supervision of student projects	16.3 (% of 178)
17-Teacher-student relationship	12.6
18-Time allocated for a lecture	12.1

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

□ Intrinsic factors

■ Factors with Extrinsic elements

(U) Unclassifiable factor

These data are not surprising considering the discussion in the review (See Section 2.5.1; Chapter, 2). Ugandan academics, thus, are dissatisfied with teaching related

factors that are *extrinsic* in nature. For instance, the dissatisfaction with instructional materials is presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Frequency and percentage distribution showing respondents dissatisfaction with library facilities (n=182)

Rating	Frequency	Percentage
2=Dissatisfied	140	76.9
3=Indifferent	22	12.1
4=Satisfied	20	11.0
Total	426	100.0
Mean	2.3	

This scenario chimes well with Herzberg's dichotomy that *extrinsic* aspects of the job lead to dissatisfaction. Contrary to Herzberg's theory, however, we have seen facets of the *job itself* (teaching) being responsible for both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, these data would seem to suggest that where lower-order needs are not met, (e.g. in Uganda low academic salaries, and inadequate instructional materials) there is likely to be widespread dissatisfaction with *extrinsic* factors of teaching. Indeed, interview data reinforces these findings. As one respondent revealed:

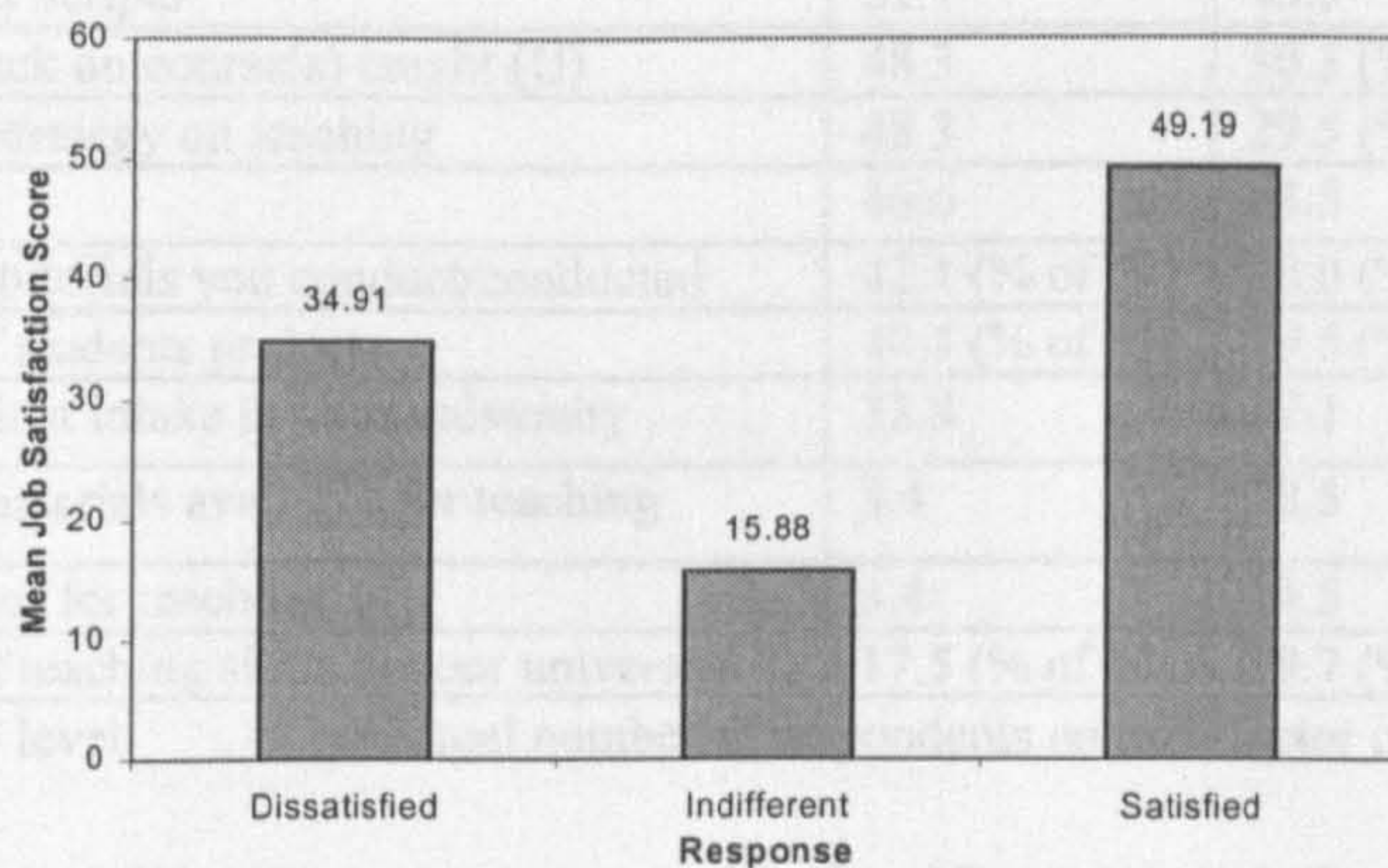
“ ...Very poor because we in the science you have seen what is called a laboratory. It is virtually empty apart from benches. This situation does not give me the inspiration to perform which of course dissatisfies me...” Senior Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.

Furthermore, these findings are consistent with prior research. Tizikara (1998) found that the mismatch between instructional resources and student numbers in IUIU and MUK caused academic dissatisfaction. Similarly, Fagbamiye's (1981) found that inadequate instructional facilities among Nigerian academics led to dissatisfaction with teaching, and many would not choose university teaching if given the opportunity to do so. In as far as teaching is concerned, therefore, factors contributory to Uganda academics dissatisfaction were:

- Library facilities for teaching
- Instructional materials available for teaching
- Recognition of teaching skills in university
- The size of the class(es) taught
- The quality of tutorials conducted

Responses of sampled dons on the job aspect of teaching are summarised in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Responses of Sampled Academics on the Job Aspect of Teaching



These data echo the need to create the necessary institutional conditions to make university teaching in Uganda, a viable and satisfying career alternative.

4.2.1.2. Significant Differences in the Sample based on Teaching

With respect to research question three, ten factors loaded significantly at the .05 level (Table 4.12). IUIU respondents were significantly more satisfied than the MUK sample on seven factors: One, in the area of teacher-student relationship (χ^2 of 6.32 { $p < 0.047$ }), and the size of the class (es) taught (χ^2 of 10.36 { $p < 0.006$ }). Second, respondents in appreciation of student reviews could be explained by the former procedures for course evaluation (χ^2 of 12.34 { $p < 0.002$ }) as with the time allocated for a lecture (χ^2 of 6.03 { $p < 0.051$ }). Third, student feedback on course(s) taught (χ^2 value of 9.38 { $p < 0.009$ }), departmental strategy on teaching (χ^2 of 7.19 { $p < 0.027$ }) and lastly, quality of tutorials conducted (χ^2 of 8.87 { $p < 0.012$ }).

Table 4.12: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Teaching by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58 ♣	MUK % of 124 ♣	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-Interest shown by students in courses taught	91.4	94.4	1.89	0.391
2-Teacher-student relationship	87.9	71.8	6.12*	0.047
3-Course(s) taught in relation to professional training	87.9	93.5	5.79	0.553
4-Time allocated for a lecture	87.9	72.6	6.03*	0.051
5-The degree of autonomy in content taught	83.9 (% of 56)	86.3	3.77	0.151
6-The size of the class(es) taught	57.1 (% of 56)	40.2 (% of 122)	10.36*	0.006
7-Procedures for course evaluation	55.2	28.2	12.34*	0.002
8-Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	53.6 (% of 56)	46.8	1.65	0.444
9-Marking answer scripts	51.7	43.5	1.58	0.452
10-Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	48.3	30.3 (% of 122)	9.38*	0.009
11-Departmental strategy on teaching	48.3	29.5 (% of 122)	7.19*	0.027
12-Teaching load	46.6	43.5	0.53	0.773
13-Quality of the tutorials you conduct/conducted	42.1 (% of 57)	30.0 (% of 120)	8.87*	0.012
14-Supervision of students projects	40.4 (% of 57)	59.5 (% of 121)	6.02*	0.049
15-Quality of student intake in your university	32.8	37.1	2.08	0.351
16-Instructional materials available for teaching	3.4	18.5	7.66*	0.022
17-Library facilities for teaching	3.4	14.5	5.04*	0.081
18-Recognition of teaching skills in your university	17.5 (% of 57)	19.7 (% of 122)	1.51	0.472

* Significant at .05 level

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

Analogously, MUK dons expressed significant satisfaction than their IUIU counterparts on three factors at the .05 level: Instructional materials available for teaching (χ^2 of 7.66 { $p < 0.022$ }) and library facilities for teaching (χ^2 of 5.04 { $p < 0.081$ }) as with supervision of student projects (χ^2 of 6.02 { $p < 0.049$ }). Though this situation may suggest that MUK is relatively better equipped than IUIU in terms of teaching and library holdings, it is important to be aware that both institutions are in dire need of infrastructure to sustain learning in an academic community. Additionally, the significant satisfaction expressed by MUK dons over IUIU respondents in supervision of students projects could be explained by the former having a sizeable component of post-graduate activity and the latter offering very limited openings for such programs.

These data are unsurprising in light of the contextual differences that beset the two institutions. Whereas IUIU is a peri-urban academic and cultural institution, MUK is urban and largely secular. Arguably, the latter tends to be more appealing to the

increasing urban-oriented student population in Uganda. Additionally, IUIU is a much younger private university in its second decade of existence with only 1000 students, and 72 full time academic staff (Staff Statistics, 1999/00). MUK on the other hand, is a 78-year old institution largely funded from the public purse with a 22,000 student-population and over 960 dons (New Vision, 2000c). Based on these statistics, thus, the teacher-student ratio is 1:14 and 1:22 at IUIU and MUK respectively. That IUIU respondents, then, were significantly more satisfied than the MUK sample with number of students in class, teacher-student relationship, procedures for course evaluation, student feedback on courses taught and quality of tutorials conducted would seem, in part, be explained by the above contextual differences.

Moreover, the research findings seem consistent with prior evidence. Tizikara (1998) found that though the climate in both institutions was not conducive to academic excellence, IUIU academics were more satisfied than MUK with class size, marking answer scripts and accommodation facilities. It also emerged during interviews that MUK respondents seemed less satisfied with class size, the teaching load, and student-teacher interaction. One interviewee mentioned thus:

“...The major problem is that the classes are terribly large. The teacher-student contact, which would facilitate some kind of discussion, is no longer there. For example, I teach a class of 300 students in the dining hall of Mary Stuart. By the time I come out of the lecture, my voice is hoarse and there is no public address system to facilitate my teaching. Thus, I feel dissatisfied teaching in an environment that is not conducive to teach...” Lecturer, Makerere University Kampala.

The foregoing discussion has shown that whereas Ugandan academics is dissatisfied with teaching-related factors that are *extrinsic* in nature, they are highly satisfied with *intrinsic* teaching-related factors like autonomy in content taught, and course(s) taught in relation to professional training. Contrary to Herzberg’s dichotomy, therefore, even

where lower-order needs are deficient, workers could derive satisfaction from some *intrinsic* facets of their job, as the Uganda study appears to demonstrate.

4.2.2 Satisfaction Derived from Research

Respondents expressed discontent with research, a figure ranging from 3-54% (Table 4.13). In contrast to Herzberg's theory, satisfaction with academic freedom to research and publish, an *intrinsic* factor, was the highest with a score of 54%. These data tend to bring to mind one pertinent question: If Uganda academics are moderately satisfied with the freedom to research and publish, could it be then, that there are other factors causing this low satisfaction?

Table 4.13: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Research

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Academic freedom to research and publish	53.6 (% of 181)
2-Recognition of research in university	37.9
3-Time for independent thought	35.4(% of 181)
4-Time available for research and professional development	27.6 (% of 181)
5-Research time available	27.1 (% of 180)
6-University intellectual life	22.0
7-Pressure to publish	20.0 (% of 180)
8-Opportunities for consultancy work	18.8 (% of 181)
9-Opportunities to become famous through published work	17.0
10-Opportunities to write and publish	14.3
11-Opportunities to set up research seminars	14.3
12-The passion for research	11.8 (% of 178)
13-The availability of sabbatical programmes	10.1 (% of 178)
14-Library facilities for research	4.4
15-Adequacy of research funds	3.4 (% of 178)
16-Time spent in obtaining research grants	2.2 (% of 178)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the percent score

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factors with Extrinsic elements

The exceedingly low satisfaction scores of less than 5% on research grants and funding, as with library facilities, three research-related factors with *extrinsic* implications is insightful. This situation may suggest that respondents have the freedom to pursue and publish scholarly activity but seem constrained by extraneous factors in their working environment which tend to inhibit their research potential (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). The words of one interviewee seem revealing:

“...MUK is essentially a teaching university by structure and design, and therefore one is forced to be a teacher than a researcher. But I would prefer that conditions obtain to make one do both teaching and research in a balanced manner, such that when you are teaching you also extend the frontiers of knowledge in your discipline and beyond...” Lecturer, Makerere University.

In contrast with teaching where respondents were highly satisfied with some *intrinsic* factors, academic ratings on research were relatively lower. Could it be that where lower order needs are not in place (e.g. inadequate salary and research facilities), there tends to be very low satisfaction with research than teaching? Moreover, these data accord with Gruneberg and Startup (1978) findings on UK academics that

“...Teaching is a more satisfying aspect of the university’s life than research...” (p.76).

Likewise, Halsey and Trow’s (1971) reported that British academics who were primarily oriented towards teaching rated their research lower than did those primarily oriented towards research. Though the above studies on UK academics are sufficiently dated, it is potentially instructive to note that their results tend to concur with recent research.

Indeed, 68% of Russian dons preferred teaching to research (Boyer et al., 1994). Likewise, Oshagbemi’s (1996) reported that 79.5% of UK dons felt happy with teaching, compared to 64.8% delighted by research. Besides, MUK and particularly IUIU, are universities that primarily teach not research institutions. Said one respondent,

“...Apparently, teaching is more emphasised in this university because the administration is neither facilitating nor telling us much about research. In other universities, each faculty has an Associate Dean for research who looks entirely after interests of research for academicians. We do not have that here...” Professor, Islamic University in Uganda.

Based on these data, therefore, research factors that contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction were:

- The amount of freedom to research and publish

- Recognition of research in university
- The time available for independent thought

4.2.2.1 Academic Dissatisfaction with Research

Not unexpectedly, (Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) respondents were disenchanted with *extrinsic* research factors like library and research grants, a figure ranging from 60-90% (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Distribution of Percent Dissatisfaction with Research

Factor	% of 182 *
1-Adequacy of research funds	88.2 (% of 178)
2-Time spent in obtaining research grants	82.7 (% of 179)
3-Library facilities for research	82.4
4-Opportunities to write and publish	71.4
5-The availability of sabbatical programs	68.0 (% of 178)
6-Opportunities to set up research seminars	65.4
7-Opportunities to become famous through published work	59.9
8-Time available for research and professional development	58.6 (% of 181)
9-The passion for research	58.4 (% of 178)
10-Opportunities for consultancy work	58.0 (% of 181)
11-University intellectual life	56.6
12-Research time available	55.2 (% of 181)
13-Pressure to publish	51.7 (% of 180)
14-Recognition of research in university	43.4
15- Time for independent thought	40.9 (% of 181)
16-Academic freedom to research and publish	32 (% of 181)

* Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

Intrinsic Factors

Factors with Extrinsic Elements

Some insight was gained from this scenario. The Ugandan situation suggests that dissatisfaction with research arise mainly from insufficient funds for research, (88%) which explains also, in part, the inadequacy of research materials suitable for an academic community. Additionally, the researcher observed that class schedules in IUIU and MUK are heavy and leave little opportunity for research or reflection even if there were stimuli for this element of academic life. Most books and journals in IUIU and MUK are sufficiently dated, and thus, it was unsurprising that 82% of respondents expressed dissatisfaction with library holdings. Yet, without current awareness, it is difficult for Ugandan academics to impart to students the latest and

most exciting knowledge, and later on to embark on research. In the circumstances, dons merely become *transmitters* and not *creators* of knowledge (Altbach, 1977).

Arguably, the kind of supportive research infrastructure where 57% of respondents were irked and perhaps scholarly commitment needed to sustain such a community hardly exists. One informant observed:

“...One cannot embark on serious research in a situation where pay is erratic and research funding uncertain... There are no journals in the library...power cuts are frequent...and with 20 hours of teaching weekly...coupled with administrative responsibilities...It seems the system does not empower me to do research...”
Lecturer, Islamic university in Uganda.

These findings would seem to signal the need for recognition of the importance of research among IUIU and MUK executives and institutionalise it as a valued academic function. Furthermore, these data may suggest differences between North and South academics relative to research. For instance, whereas Ugandan academics discontent with research stems from *extrinsic* factors (e.g. inadequate research funds and facilities), in the affluent North, research dissatisfaction is largely *intrinsic*. Indeed, Oshagbemi (1996) found that UK academics were dissatisfied with emphasis often given to *quantity* instead of *quality* of publications. Likewise, Boyer et al. (1994) reported that in the North academic disillusionment with research mainly centred on publications being *just counted* and not *qualitatively evaluated* in the promotion criteria.

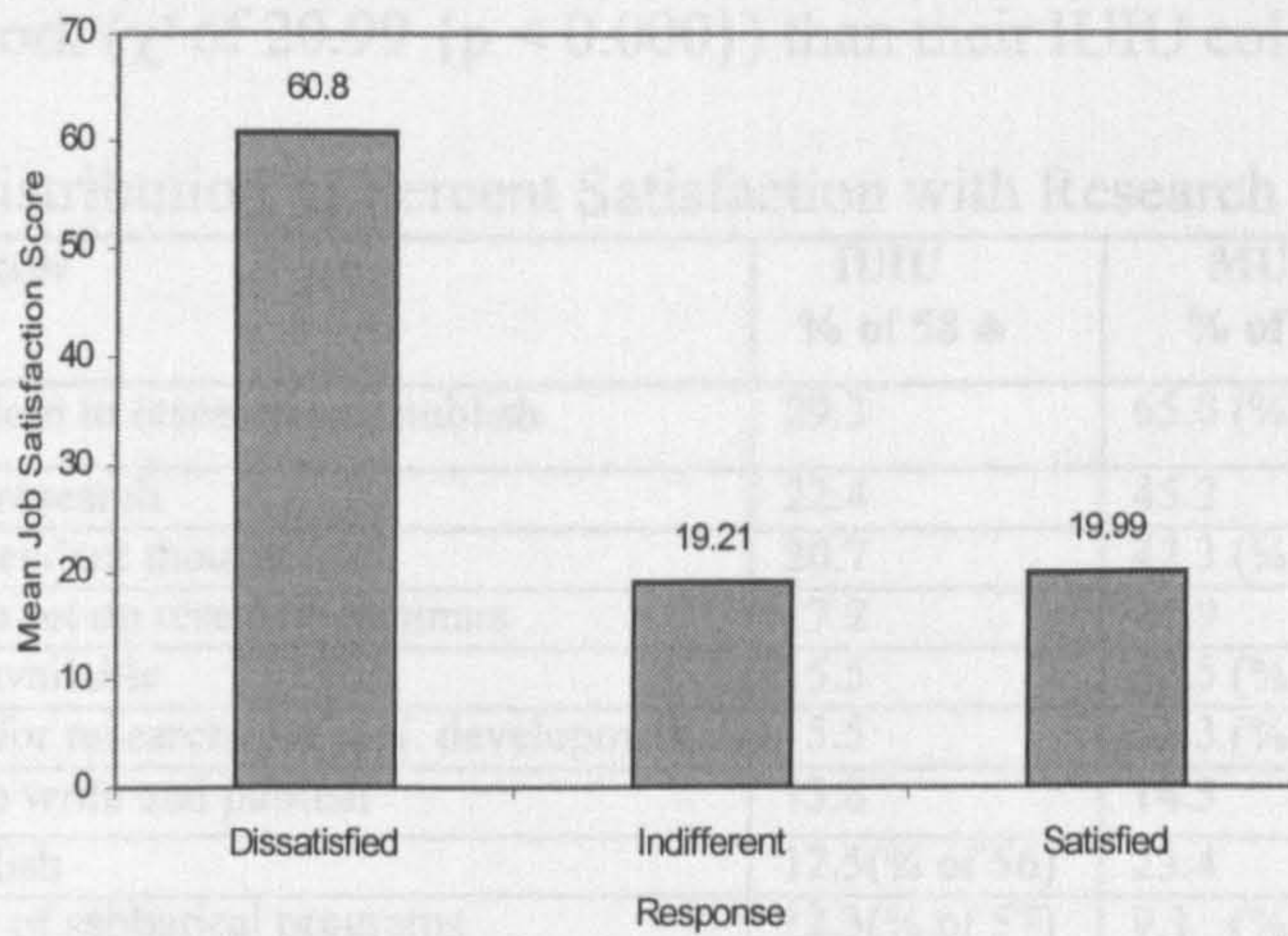
The research factors, therefore, contributory to Ugandan academics dissatisfaction were:

- Adequacy of research funds
- Time spent in obtaining research grants
- Library facilities for research
- Opportunities to write and publish
- Opportunities to set up research seminars

- Opportunities available to become famous through published research work.

A summary of academic responses with research can be viewed in Figure 4.

Figure 4 Responses of Sampled Academics on the Job Aspect of Research



Based on these data, therefore, one could argue that where lower order needs are not met (e.g. library and research facilities), as the Ugandan situation demonstrates, it is likely that research-related factors impact upon academics perceptions of the environment in which they work, and in turn, influence levels of dissatisfaction.

4.2.2.2 Levels of Significance in the Sample based on Research

With regard to Research Question 3, nine factors loaded significantly at the .05 level (Table 4.15). While respondents scores on most research factors were very low, it is useful to note that MUK dons were significantly more satisfied with *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* facets than their IUIU counterparts on all the nine factors. It is notable that MUK sample was significantly more satisfied with opportunities to publish (χ^2 of 8.54 { $p < 0.014$ }), as recognition of research in university (χ^2 of 9.15 { $p < 0.011$ }).

Additionally, MUK respondents felt significantly satisfied with the pressure to publish (χ^2 of 6.92 { $p < 0.031$ }), as with freedom to research and publish (χ^2 of 31.68 { $p < 0.000$ }) than IUIU participants. With regard to library facilities, MUK dons were significantly more satisfied (χ^2 of 7.48 { $p < 0.024$ }), as with the passion for research

(χ^2 of 6.38 {p < 0.041}), where the satisfaction range of MUK doubled IUIU. Furthermore, MUK dons felt happier with professional development (χ^2 of 6.67 {P < 0.036}), and the time independent thought (χ^2 of 10.61 {p < 0.005}), as with consultancy work (χ^2 of 20.99 {p < 0.000}) than their IUIU colleagues.

Table 4.15: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Research by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58 ♣	MUK % of 124 ♣	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-Academic freedom to research and publish	29.3	65.0 (% of 123)	31.68*	0.000
2-Recognition of research	22.4	45.2	9.15*	0.011
3- Time for independent thought	20.7	42.3 (% of 123)	10.61*	0.005
4-Opportunities to set up research seminars	17.2	12.9	0.67	0.721
5-Research time available	15.5	32.5 (% of 123)	5.92	0.052
6-Time available for research and prof. development	15.5	33.3 (% of 123)	6.67*	0.036
7-Opportunities to write and publish	13.8	14.5	8.54*	0.014
8-Pressure to publish	12.5(% of 56)	23.4	6.92*	0.031
9-The availability of sabbatical programs	12.3(% of 57)	9.1 (% of 121)	0.44	0.813
10-University intellectual life	12.1	26.6	4.87	0.087
11-Opportunities to become famous through publications	12.1	19.4	5.57	0.062
12-Opportunities for consultancy work	10.5(% of 57)	22.6	20.99*	0.000
13-The passion for research	7.0 (% of 57)	14.0 (% of 121)	6.38*	0.041
14-Time spent in obtaining research grants	3.5 (% of 57)	1.6 (% of 122)	1.07	0.591
15-Adequacy of research funds	3.5 (% of 57)	3.3 (% of 121)	2.63	0.272
16-Library facilities for research	3.4	4.8	7.48*	0.024

* Significant at .05 level

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

The above differences may be attributed to organisational differences. In contrast to MUK, IUIU in its twelfth year operates in a physical plant that was hitherto utilised by a secondary school. Indeed, some IUIU science students have their practical sessions at MUK where laboratories are comparatively well equipped. Moreover, many IUIU staff go to MUK for postgraduate work, where, it is believed, a fairly supportive research infrastructure exists. Besides, lately, international organisations have offered substantial grants to MUK as the print media report:

Box 3

MAKERERE—The Rockefeller Foundation has donated over sh3.8b (US\$ 2m) to Makerere University, for training and research on the needs and demands of the decentralisation programme. The donation was yesterday announced at a joint news conference held by the finance minister, Gerald Sendaula, and the Rockefeller President, Dr Gordon Conway. *Article titled MUK gets sh3b boost, in The New Vision of 2/12/2000(d).*

In addition, the Carnegie Foundation has supported MUK in research and construction (The New Vision, 2000e). By contrast, at IUIU materials for research are not available as one participant noted. Consistent with prior research, Tizikara (1998:46) quoting the print media observed that among the teething problems at IUIU were lack of basic infrastructure, and that the institution in its fourth year of inauguration was still operating in inherited buildings which were inadequate. Arguably, the problem at IUIU (as these data have shown) is lack of a fairly supportive research and institutional infrastructure needed to sustain an academic community.

Relative to consultancy opportunities, one could suggest that MUK unlike IUIU is better placed. Unlike IUIU which is over 250-km away from Kampala (the only city in Uganda), MUK is located on one of the hills overlooking the city, which makes MUK dons easily accessible by private organisations seeking consultancy services. Furthermore, MUK unlike IUIU is funded largely by the public purse, and often, is given special preference by government to offer consultancy services to its bodies.

4.2.3 Dons Satisfaction with Governance

In contrast to *teaching*, scores on academic governance were lower (Table 4.16). Respondents felt satisfied with only two *extrinsic* factors: One, influence in departmental administration 35%, and clarity of role in the department 56%. Could this suggest that departmental heads and faculty deans provided fairly competent leadership? Said one participant:

“...The leadership provided by my dean is satisfying. My roles are well stipulated and we hardly clash. My opinions are valued and the dean consults from time to time..., which is not the case with university administrators...” Senior Lecturer, Makerere University, Kampala.

Sufficiently comparable, these data seem to accord with the notion that universities worldwide are changing rapidly and among pertinent issues might be the de-

professionalisation of the faculty and the attendant shifts from faculty governance to administrative management (Cutright, 2000).

Table 4.16: Percent Satisfaction with Academic Governance

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Clarity concerning role in the department	56.1(% of 180)
2-Influence with regard to administrative matters of the department	35.4 (% of 178)
3-The number of meetings to attend	32.4
4-Clarity of institutional mission	29.6 (% of 179)
5-Time spent in obtaining research grants	24.3 (% of 177)
6-Coordination between teaching, research and administration (U)	22.8 (% of 180)
7-Faculty involvement in administrative affairs of the university	22.2 (% of 178)
8-The degree of fair treatment received (U)	19.8
9-Secretarial support provided	19.4 (% of 180)
10-The level of communication with university authorities	18.2 (% of 181)
11-Policy formulation and implementation procedures	16.1 (% of 180)
12-The relationship between academics and university administration	9.9

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U)Unclassifiable factor

Moreover, study findings are consistent with prior evidence. Boyer et al. (1994) found that dons in several nations were satisfied with leadership provided by their heads, but irked by faculty organised administratively into academic divisions and departments becoming more and more removed from issues affecting the institution as a whole. Likewise, in a survey of academics in eight nations Lacy and Sheehan (1997) found a sense of community in departments and faculties, as opposed to pervasive discontent with institutional governance. Two *extrinsic* factors, thus, contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction with governance:

- Clarity concerning role in the department
- Influence in departmental administration

These data suggest, therefore, that Ugandan academics, perhaps like their counterparts elsewhere, are moderately satisfied with the leadership provided at departmental and faculty level, but signal misgivings with institutional governance.

4.2.3.1 Academic Dissatisfaction with Institutional Governance

Unsurprisingly, academic dissatisfaction with governance was pervasive (Table 4.17).

Table 4.17: Percent Dissatisfaction with Administration and Management

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-The relationship between academics and university administration	64.3
2-Secretarial support provided	61.7 (% of 180)
3-The level of communication with university authorities	58.6 (% of 181)
4-Policy formulation and implementation procedures	57.2 (% of 180)
5-The degree of fair treatment received (U)	47.8
6-Influence with regard to administrative matters of the department	47.8 (% of 178)
7-Faculty involvement in administrative affairs of the university	46.7 (% of 178)
8-Coordination between teaching, research and administration (U)	45.6 (% of 180)
9-The number of meetings to attend	42.3
10-Clarity of institutional mission	38.0 (% of 179)
11-Time spent in obtaining research grants	37.3 (% of 177)
12-Clarity concerning role in the department	24.4 (% of 180)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U)Unclassifiable factor

This was expected considering constraints that beset Ugandan universities discussed in the review (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). In particular, over 60% of the respondents signalled unhappiness with *extrinsic* factors like their relationship with university administrators and secretarial support provided. By the same token, (57%) of the participants felt dissatisfied with policy formulation procedures, and (47%) were irked by lack of involvement in institutional administration. What then, could be attributed to Ugandan academics disenchantment with governance? One possibility could be the way academics perceive administration. Indeed, one interviewee insisted:

“...I should think my principal roles as a lecturer are teaching and research...but unfortunately, I find myself entangled in administrative activities...”

Elsewhere, Oshagbemi (1996) produced evidence that UK dons considered administration as neither one of their primary functions nor an activity that constituted a core obligation. Furthermore, with the dramatic expansion of students in IUIU, and particularly MUK (See Section 4.2.1.2; Chapter, 4), university administrators have tended to develop a hierarchical “industrial model” of governance (Passi, 1994). Indeed, the trend in university governance over the past two decades has involved a general shifting of authority from the faculty to the administration (Gampont, 1997).

Similarly, in universities worldwide, the quest for increased managerial control is well advanced, and occurs under the guise of enabling higher education institutions to respond better to national priorities (Smyth and Hattam, 2000).

Consequently, cadres of administrators in IUIU and MUK have been created to handle everything from personnel policies to distribution of facilities. Arguably, departments and faculties have been “isolated” because decisions emanate from afar. Said one participant:

“...I am not happy with the top leadership in this university because the regulations are made without consulting staff. For instance, the revised terms and conditions for senior staff were not presented to the Executive Board for approval. Uh... it is this autocratic approach that dissatisfies me...” Professor, Islamic University in Uganda.

Moreover, these data reinforce other studies. Altbach (1977) reported pervasive discontent among Indian academics arising from their inability to influence university policies. Likewise, Boyer et al., (1994) found that faculty in several countries felt alienated from top administrators at their institutions. Sufficiently comparable, worldwide there is widespread faculty disenchantment with administrators (Lewis and Altbach, 1996). In their own words:

“...Academics are happy with their jobs and with their careers, but they are extremely unhappy with their institutions. The root cause of this, they say, is poor leadership...” (p.256).

In the same vein, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) found that dons from Germany (65%), Australia (55%), UK (54%), Hongkong 51%, and the US (45%) showed substantial dissatisfaction with institutional governance. Strangely, even in the affluent North where lower order needs are met (reasonable salary and fairly adequate research facilities), there is wide spread academic discontent with institutional governance as the case is in the afflicted South. It would seem, therefore that consistent with Herzberg’s dichotomy, managerial facets of the job being *extrinsic* in nature lead more to job dissatisfaction than satisfaction. It must, nevertheless, be stressed that

these data echo, and call into question, the criteria used in appointing top administrators in universities worldwide where excellent scholarship seems to be the major consideration. To this end, Pelczar (1977) warned that scholarly productivity does not reflect managerial capability. In the words of Oshagbemi (1996):

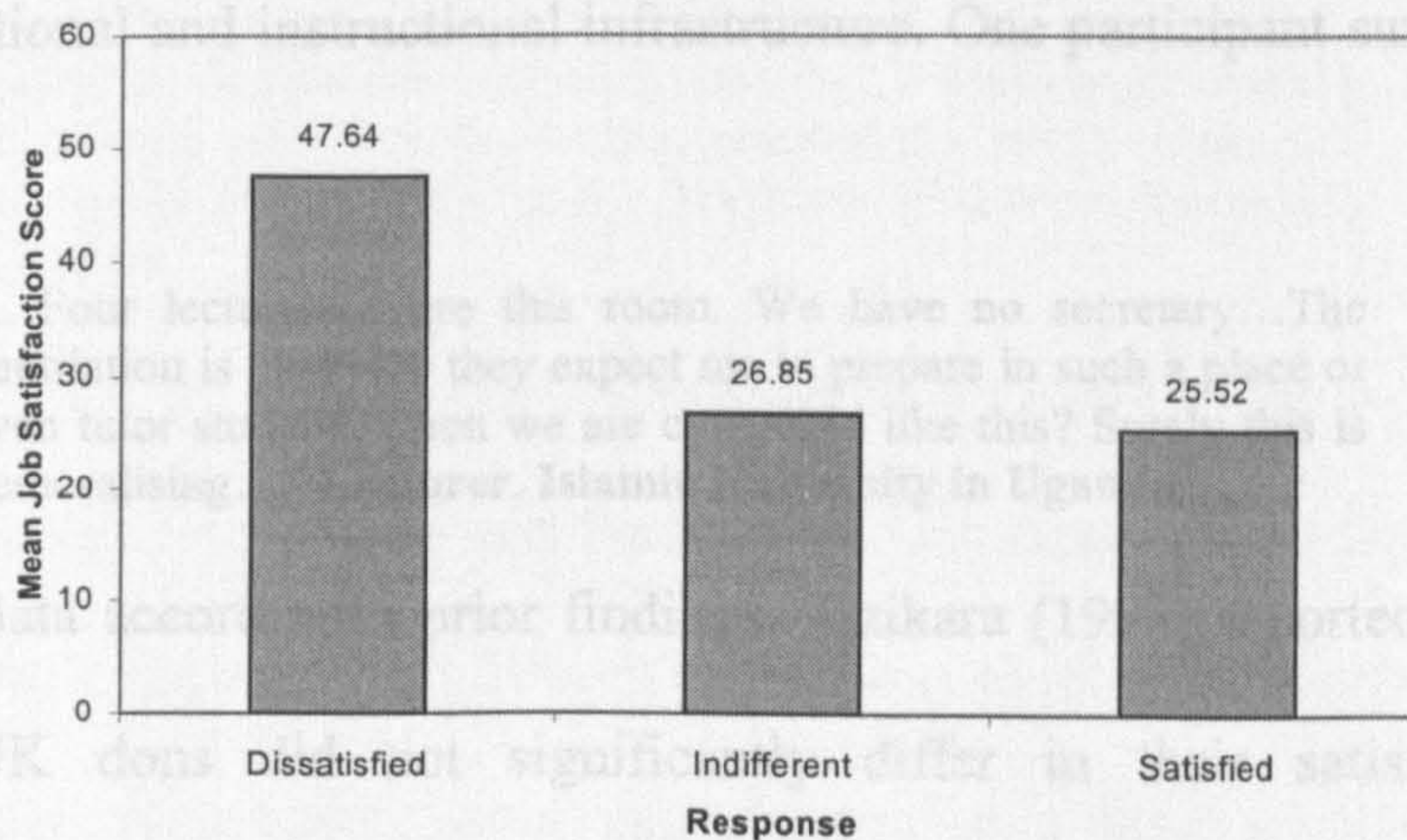
“...Some professors found themselves in managerial positions only by virtue of the fact that there were excellent researchers, and may not necessarily be good managers...” (p.398).

In sum, the factors contributory to respondents dissatisfaction with governance were:

- Academics-university administrators relationship
- Secretarial support provided
- Communication with university administrators
- Policy formulation and implementation procedures

A graphic presentation of respondents’ satisfaction with governance is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5 Responses of Sampled Academics on the Job Aspect of Institutional Governance



Such findings have implications for university governance in Uganda, and will hopefully form a policy agenda for this research.

4.2.3.2 Significant Differences in the sample based on Governance

The Pearson’s χ^2 results reported only one significant difference at the .05 level (Table 4.18). This situation suggests that Ugandan academics, express similar sentiments in as far as discontent with institutional governance is concerned. Though ratings were

low, MUK dons were significantly more satisfied with secretarial support provided than the IUIU sample (χ^2 of 8.45 { $p < 0.015$ }). What could explain this scenario?

Table 4.18: Percent Satisfaction with Administration and Management by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58 ♣	MUK % of 124 ♣	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-Clarity concerning role in the department	57.9 (% of 57)	55.3 (% of 123)	0.55	0.764
2-Clarity of institutional mission	33.3 (% of 57)	27.9 (% of 122)	1.47	0.483
3-The number of meetings to attend	32.8	32.3	1.87	0.393
4-Time spent in obtaining research grants	29.3	21.8 (% of 119)	3.14	0.211
5-Influence with administrative matters of the department	25.9	40.0 (% of 120)	3.54	0.174
6-Coordination between teaching, research and admin.	24.1	22.1 (% of 122)	1.35	0.514
7-The level of communication with university authorities	22.4	16.3 (% of 123)	1.48	0.482
8-Faculty involvement in institutional administration	20.7	23.0 (% of 122)	0.14	0.936
9-The degree of fair treatment received	15.5	21.8	5.34	0.071
10-Policy formulation and implementation procedures	14.0 (% of 57)	17.1 (% of 123)	4.65	0.097
11-Secretarial support provided	8.6	24.6 (% of 122)	8.45*	0.015
12-Academic-university administrators relationship	6.9	11.3	1.70	0.432

* Significant at .05 level ♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the score

The researcher contends that contextual factors are likely to have been important determinants of this difference (See Section 4.2.2.2; Chapter, 4). One possibility for IUIU discontent with secretarial support provided could lie in its exceedingly deficient institutional and instructional infrastructure. One participant summed up the crisis:

“...Four lecturers share this room. We have no secretary...The ventilation is poor. Do they expect me to prepare in such a place or even tutor students when we are congested like this? Surely this is demoralising...” Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.

Besides, these data accord with prior findings. Tizikara (1998) reported that though IUIU and MUK dons did not significantly differ in their satisfaction with administrative issues, MUK dons were more likely to signal satisfaction with office space and secretarial support provided.

4.3 Academic Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Other Aspects of the Job

There were six other job aspects on which this research sought to ascertain factors contributory to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

4.3.1 Academic Satisfaction with Remuneration

Not unexpectedly, (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter, 2) respondents were disenchanted with their remuneration (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Remuneration

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Position on pay scale (U)	31.5 (% of 178)
2-Your salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	10.4
3-Your present pay considering your skill and effort	9.9
4-Opportunities to retire with full benefits	8.4 (% of 178)
5-Your fringe benefits	7.8 (% of 180)
6- The levels of compensation in your university	5.0 (% of 179)
7-Material resources connected with your work	3.9 (% of 178)
8-Your retirement benefits	2.8 (% of 176)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor

Only 10% of the respondents were satisfied with their salary. This situation could well relate to different perceptions of earning potential of academics. For instance, some MUK dons particularly in humanities and social sciences were fairly happy with their pay. One informant said:

“...My basic salary is laughable...however, I teach some students on evening and distance learning programmes where, I am paid reasonably by contact hour...” **Lecturer, Makerere University Kampala**

Such a finding tends to support Lacy and Sheehan’s (1997) evidence that 58% of Australian academics from Visual and Performing Arts reported that their salary was good or excellent, compared with 26% from Science. Overall, however, the general picture shows that respondents were disenchanted with their remuneration. This situation could suggest that pay being a common denominator in most organisational decision making; it tends to be a cause of concern to many workers including the academy. In same vein, Oshagbemi (2000) observed that pay affects the overall level of a worker’s job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Additionally, these findings suggest that in a situation where lower order needs (inadequate pay and lack of instructional

and library facilities) are not met, there tends to be discontent *extrinsic* factors like remuneration.

Indeed, many studies have reported similar findings. Tizikara (1998) found that IUIU and MUK dons were least satisfied with pay. Elsewhere, Fagbamiye (1981) concluded that Nigerian academics felt unhappy with pay and physical working conditions. Moreover, evidence from the affluent North on academic salaries seems frightening. Oshagbemi (1996) reported least satisfaction with pay among British dons. Sufficiently comparable, the AUT voted by significant majority for strike action and other forms of action over pay which culminated in a one-day strike on the 25th of May 1999 (BAUT, 1999). In same vein, Boyer et al. (1994) concluded that faculty in many nations were disillusioned with pay and institutional resources. Could this suggest that pay being a *hygiene* factor contributes more to dissatisfaction than job satisfaction? Indeed, for both Maslow and Herzberg, pay is a lower-order need and, as such, cannot lead to true gratification (Sylvia and Hutchison, 1985). Based on the data, therefore, no factor contributed substantially to Ugandan academics satisfaction with remuneration.

4.3.1.1. Academic Dissatisfaction with Remuneration

Academic dissatisfaction with remuneration was pervasive (Table 4.20).

Table 4.20: Distribution of Percent Dissatisfaction with Remuneration

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1- The levels of compensation in your university	82.7 (% of 179)
2-Your fringe benefits	82.2 (%of 180)
3-Your salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	74.2
4-Your present pay considering your skill and effort	73.6
5-Your retirement benefits	72.7 (% of 176)
6-Material resources connected with your work	71.9 (% of 178)
7-Opportunities to retire with full benefits	66.9 (% of 178)
8-Position on pay scale (U)	48.3 (% of 178)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor

Indeed, more than 70% of the respondents felt unhappy with their salary, fringe benefits and compensation in their institutions. What then, could account for this pervasive discontent with remuneration among Ugandan academics?

One possibility could be that academic salaries in Uganda do not permit a professionally rewarding life even by the standards of the Ugandan urban middle class. These data show that the major cause of academic discontent is not position on pay scale. The point, it would seem, is inadequacy of salary levels to enable academics' a sustainable supply of basic needs. This finding accords with the opinion of Ocitti (1993) that academic pay in Uganda is not commensurate with their credentials. Likewise, the data confirms the notion that academic salaries and fringe benefits in Uganda are woefully inadequate, and not competitive with those of professionals having equivalent training and experience in the region (Kajubi, 1992).

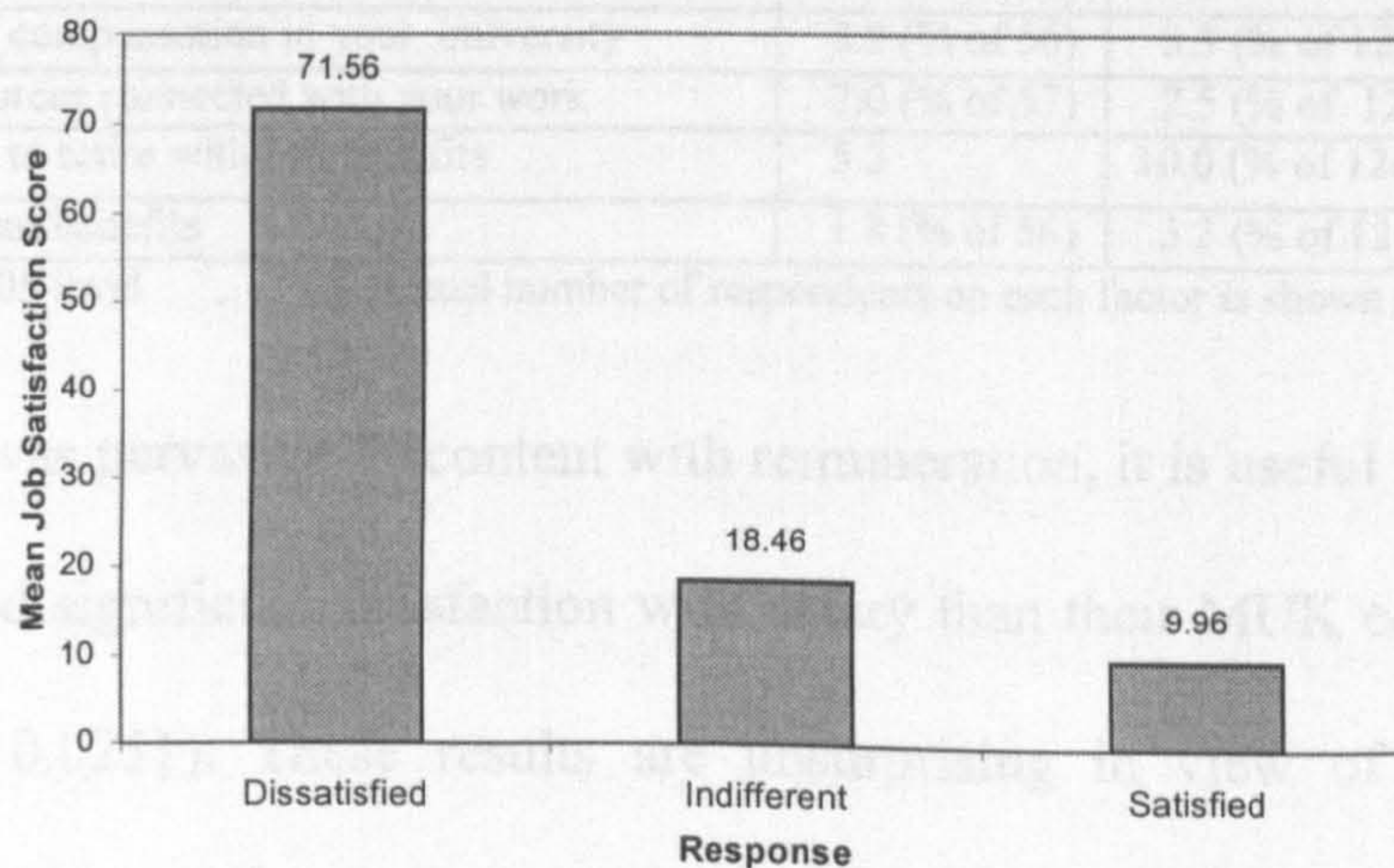
Additionally, inflation has further eroded income levels of academics particularly fringe benefits thus contributing to their economic insecurity, fear and low morale. For instance, since 1980's the Uganda shilling depreciates annually and currently sh.2550= is equivalent to one pound sterling (The Monitor, 2000d). Several academics qualified their dissatisfaction with pay by highlighting the contradiction between the requisite credentials for the job and the eventual salary. Lack of meaningful compensation was also cited as a source of discontent. Indeed, few university teachers in Uganda can afford to live lavishly (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter, 2).

Accordingly, there is a serious economic need for academics to do outside consultancy work or even engage in activities which are unrelated to their primary responsibilities. An economic need to supplement academic salary in order to make ends meet was frequently mentioned. Said one informant:

“...I am dissatisfied with my salary because it is inadequate...So I have to do other things to do to supplement my income which tends to compromise my loyalty and commitment to my job. It is improper but inevitable...” **Lecturer, Makerere University Kampala.**

This finding is consistent with Boyer et al. (1994) results, where over 80% of Russia academics agreed that outside work is essential, and half the faculty in Korea and Latin America reported that supplementary work is necessary. In addition, these data lend support to Herzberg’s conceptualisation that pay being a *hygiene* factor contributes to dissatisfaction. Indeed, Opolot (1991) conclusion that if job satisfaction was to prevail in Ugandan institutions, there should be fair remuneration of staff basing on output, experience and level of education. Sufficiently comparable, Mulindwa (1998) found that the level of remuneration was the greatest contributor to staff satisfaction in Technical Education Institutions in Uganda. In same vein, Kayizzi (1991) revealed that levels of remuneration were the greatest predictors of job satisfaction among graduate teachers in Uganda. Similarly, Kyamanywa (1996) found pay packages and incentives as key factors that affected job satisfaction in tertiary institutions in Uganda. Overall, a graphic presentation of dons’ responses on remuneration is summarised in Figure 6.

Figure 6 Responses of Sampled Academics on the Job Aspect of Remuneration



These data seem to imply that in IUIU and MUK where lower-order academic needs are not sufficiently met, (e.g. inadequate salary and a constraining research infrastructure) *hygiene* factors tend to influence the job satisfaction of workers. Indeed, where lower-order needs are deficient, *extrinsic* rewards tend to shape the job satisfaction of employees (Garrett, 1999). Overall, all eight factors contributed to Ugandan academics dissatisfaction with remuneration:

- Position on pay scale
- Salary as a means of supplying basic needs
- Retirement benefits
- Material resources connected with work
- Fringe benefits
- Opportunities to retire with full benefits
- Present pay considering skill and effort

4.3.1.2 Significant Differences in the Sample based on Remuneration

Two factors loaded significantly at the .05 level (Table 4.21).

Table 4.21: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Remuneration by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58 ♣	MUK % of 124 ♣	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-Position on pay scale	24.6 (% of 57)	34.7 (% of 121)	1.874	0.093
2-Your salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	19.0	6.5	7.361*	0.025
3-Your present pay considering your skill and effort	19.0	5.6	10.041*	0.007
4-Your fringe benefits	8.9 (% of 56)	7.3	2.011	0.366
5- The levels of compensation in your university	8.9 (% of 56)	3.3 (% of 123)	5.742	0.057
6-Material resources connected with your work	7.0 (% of 57)	2.5 (% of 121)	2.362	0.307
7-Opportunities to retire with full benefits	5.2	10.0 (% of 120)	4.512	0.105
8-Your retirement benefits	1.8 (% of 56)	3.3 (% of 120)	0.343	0.846

* Significant at .05 level

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the score

While there was pervasive discontent with remuneration, it is useful to note that IUIU dons signalled significant satisfaction with salary than their MUK counterparts (χ^2 of 7.361 {p < 0.025}). These results are unsurprising in view of the institutional differences with regard to pay. For instance, whereas a full professor in IUIU earns US\$ 10,800 per annum, MUK pays comparable academics the equivalent of US\$

5555 (MUK Development Plan, 1995). Likewise, the annual salary of a lecturer in IUIU ranges from US\$ 6000-8500 as opposed US\$ 2258 by their counterparts in MUK (MUK Finance Department, 1998). While academics in IUIU and MUK have had to take supplementary jobs to meet their economic needs, it seems insightful to note, that whereas the problem in MUK is inadequate academic salary, the bone of contention in IUIU is erratic pay. One participant spoke of the problem they face:

“...My salary is fairly reasonable but irregular.... I cannot predict when I shall be paid and surely this is dissatisfying...” **Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.**

Similarly, Tizikara (1998) reported that whereas IUIU respondents were particularly concerned with the irregular manner in which their salary was paid, MUK dons were irked by inadequate pay. These findings, it is anticipated, could provide an agenda for policy consideration in both universities.

4.3.2 Academic Satisfaction with Promotion

Percent satisfactions with promotion are summarised in (Table 4.22).

Table 4.22: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Promotion

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Quantity of publications in promotion procedure	48.6 (% of 181)
2-The amount of personal growth and development	41.8
3-Emphasis on quality of publications in promotion criteria	40.9 (% of 181)
4-Promotion prospects	33.1 (% of 181)
5-Your chances of getting ahead in the university	28.6
6-Opportunities for professional growth and development	27.5
7-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	23.1
8-Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	16.9 (% of 166)
9-Recognition of achievements in your university	16.1 (% of 180)
10-Teaching skills in considering promotion	16.1 (% of 180)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the score

Intrinsic factors Factor with extrinsic elements

It can be seen that there was very low academic satisfaction with promotion, a figure ranging from 16-49%. These data suggest that respondents showed less content with *intrinsic* facets of promotion like teaching skills, and appreciation of achievements.

Frustrations notwithstanding, more than 40% of the dons derived satisfaction from quality and quantity of publications. The two job aspects of pay and promotion are

somewhat related because the latter in most cases would lead to increased pay (Oshagbemi, 1996). Only 16% of the dons felt happy with recognition of achievements in university, as with considering teaching skills in promotion criteria.

Nonetheless, over 40% of the respondents were delighted with quality and quantity of publications in promotion. Serious concerns, however, were raised over devotion to, and skills in, teaching carrying too little weight in the promotion, yet the institutions they serve are largely teaching not research-oriented (See Section 4.2.1.1). Arguably, Ugandan academics felt that research and publication are being given too high weighting in present procedures though their importance is recognised.

Indeed, Halsey and Trow (1971) reported that 76% of British academics felt that teaching should be given more weight in promotion decisions. In same vein, Gruneberg et al. (1974) concluded that promotion in Welsh academic life was too dependent on published work and too little on devotion to teaching. Among Australian academics, Moses (1986) found that the university was paying only lip service to teaching by requiring documentation of teaching performance without rewarding good performance adequately.

Could it be then, that Ugandan dons receive *intrinsic* rewards from teaching and realise that universities are teaching-and-research institutions? Arguably, respondents are aware that their orientation is not the main stream one because teaching overshadows research but the former is rewarded more than the latter in promotion criteria. Moreover, these data accord with the notion that academics look for institution certification that teaching is a scholarly activity that should matter in considering promotion (Moses, 1986).

It is potentially instructive, however, to note that findings the Uganda study are at variance with prior data adduced in the North. Boyer et al. (1994) reported that

majority of dons in several nations agreed that at their institution, research publications are *just counted* not qualitatively assessed in considering promotion. Sufficiently comparable, Oshagbemi (1996) revealed that UK academics were mainly concerned with the bias in favour of *quantity* instead of *quality* of publications in the promotion.

One is not sure whether where lower-order academic needs (e.g. research and publishing facilities) are not met, dons signal relative satisfaction with *quality* and *quantity* of publications, but express a general concern with undue influence attached to research and the neglect of teaching in promotion? One possibility for this scenario could be that many Uganda dons hardly conduct serious research because of the absence of an infrastructure suitable to sustain an academic community (See Section 2.4 & 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Arguably, these data seem to imply that if ideal conditions were to obtain, Uganda academics would perhaps be least bothered with *quality* and *quantity* of publications in promotion (See interview Section 4.2.2; Chapter, 4). This is unsurprising considering that IUIU and MUK are not only under-resourced, but also largely teaching not research-oriented institutions, (where intricacies of *quality* and *quantity* of publications debate in promotion are still remote) yet teaching excellence is subordinated to research productivity in promotion procedures!

In as far as promotion is concerned, therefore, three factors contributed to academic satisfaction:

- The weight placed on quantity of publications in considering promotion
- The amount of personal growth and development in doing the academic job
- Emphasis on quality of publications in promotion criteria

4.3.2.1 Academic Dissatisfaction with Promotion

Respondents showed discontent with the undervaluing of teaching in promotion decisions (Table 4.23).

Table 4.23: Distribution of Percent Dissatisfaction with Promotion

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-Recognition of achievements in your university	58.3 (% of 180)
2-Teaching skills in considering promotion	53.3 (% of 180)
3-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	50.5
4-Opportunities for professional growth and development	47.3
5-Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	41.0 (% of 166)
6-Your chances of getting ahead in the university	39.0
7-Promotion prospects	33.1 (% of 181)
8-The amount of personal growth and development	29.1
9-Emphasis on quality of publications in promotion criteria	27.1 (% of 181)
10-The weight placed on number of publication in promotion	24.3 (% of 181)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the score

Intrinsic factors Factor with extrinsic elements

Of the participating dons, 58% felt unhappy with appreciation and recognition of achievements in their university. As one academic hinted: nobody here would even pat your back as a gesture of commendation! It is scarcely surprising, therefore, that over 50% of the respondents were disenchanted with teaching skills in promotion.

Quite clearly, these data revealed that *inter alia*, respondents discontent with promotion stems from their being unappreciated and unrecognised for achievements considered very rudimentary affairs (Polczar, 1977). Sufficiently comparable, Altmach (1977) reported that Indian academics considered promotion as too dependent on administrators who run their institutions, and those in the UK expressed this more strongly than most of their counterparts (Times Higher Education Supplement, 1994:1). Likewise, Fagbamiye (1981) reported that senior and experienced Nigerian dons were most disenchanted to the extent that would not opt for university teaching if they were to make a choice all over again.

Rather surprisingly, in both under-resourced and endowed universities, dons consider themselves unappreciated and their achievements not sufficiently recognised. Quite why this should be so is not easy to see but it could have implications for leadership training for university administrators and managers worldwide. Contrary to

Herzberg's theory, however, we see absence of recognition for achievement a *satisfier* inducing job dissatisfaction. It would seem, therefore, that Ugandan academics were disillusioned with teaching being subordinated to research in considering promotion, yet the institutions they served were largely teaching. For instance, in MUK to be appointed full professor, Senate regulations require the candidate to have at least:

Box 4

“...Five new recognised publications in one's area of specialisation since the last promotion or appointment and the candidate must be involved in academic work, teaching and supervising research students...”

Article titled *Hyuha not on Makerere University professors list* in The Monitor of August 9, 2000(c).

Arguably, in Ugandan universities, perhaps like elsewhere, promotion criteria focuses on scholarly work in recognised journals and teaching is apparently relegated to the extent that even the number of years one is required to teach seems not to be a major concern. Indeed, academic dissatisfaction with promotion is widely documented. In Latin America, dons were dissatisfied with formal promotion systems, which they considered very rudimentary affairs (Pelczar, 1977). Sufficiently comparable, Altbach (1977) reported that Indian academics considered promotion as too dependent on scholarly work, yet the institutions they served were primarily teaching where class schedules were heavy leaving no appropriate time for research. In similar vein, Gruneberg and Startup (1978:75) examined UK academics and reported:

“...One potential source of frustration, therefore, would appear to be that academics are required, for promotion purposes, to pay particular attention to an aspect of their job (seeking publications *per se*) which they regard as relatively unimportant (and unsatisfying) in relation to the overall satisfaction with the job...”

Similarly, Oshagbemi (1996) found that UK dons considered the relative neglect of teaching and administrative duties in promotion criteria contributory to their dissatisfaction. Likewise, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) surveyed academics in eight

nations and found that 44.1% were dissatisfied with promotion, compared with 27.6% who were delighted. Similarly, Enders and Teichler (1997) concluded that many junior dons in Western Europe, Japan and USA showed discontent with opportunities for career advancement. For Serow (2000) USA academics expressed negative attitudes towards research being considered the dominant element in the university's academic reward system.

Ugandan academics discontent with promotion takes two forms: First, the apparent disregard of teaching excellence in promotion criteria, and absence of a research infrastructure to support an academic community (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Indeed, the promotion reward system in IUIU and MUK tended to disregard institutional settings. One respondent remarked:

“...Yes I agree scholarly publications matter in promotion. What puzzles me, however, is that since MUK is largely a teaching institution, teaching should be given the larger weighting in promotion. It is particularly important to put on record that we now have a situation where a lecturer does physically appear before 800 students to lecture. I think this input should be reflected in the current promotion conditions...” Lecturer, Makerere University, Kampala.

Based on these findings, therefore, the factors that contributed to Ugandan academics dissatisfaction with promotion were:

- Appreciation and recognition of achievements in university
- Teaching skills in considering promotion
- Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria
- Opportunities for professional growth and development
- Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria

A summary of responses of sampled dons on promotion can be viewed in Figure 7.

Figure 7 Responses of Surveyed Academics on the Job Aspect of Promotion.



Considering these data, it would seem plausible to suggest that respondents are *extrinsically* dissatisfied with promotion. Accordingly, a system of promotion, which does not seem to recognise their preferred activity, will have little influence even though their own orientation might not be rewarded. Arguably, were less emphasis placed on scholarly productivity and more on devotion to and skill in teaching it may be that Ugandan academics would be willing to give greater emphasis research achievement in promotion criteria.

4.3.2.2. Significant Differences in the Sample based on Promotion

Four factors loaded significantly at the .05 level (Table 4.24).

Table 4.24: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Promotion by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58 ♣	MUK % of 124 ♣	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	31.0	57.3	15.08*	0.000
2-The amount of personal growth and development	25.9	49.2	14.11*	0.001
3-Quality of publications in promotion criteria	29.3	46.3 (% of 123)	4.90	0.083
4-Promotion prospects	14.0 (% of 57)	41.9	15.91*	0.000
5-Your chances of getting ahead in the university	13.8	35.5	9.87*	0.007
6-Opportunities for professional growth and devt.	17.2	32.3	4.48	0.106
7-Quantity of publications in promotion	29.8 (% of 57)	19.4	5.72	0.057
8-Recognition of achievements in your university	13.8	17.2 (% of 122)	1.05	0.591
9-Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	18.2 (% of 55)	16.2 (% of 111)	0.72	0.698
10-Teaching skills in considering promotion	17.2	15.6 (% of 122)	0.91	0.634

* Significant at .05 level

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the score

MUK respondents were significantly more satisfied than the IUIU sample with their chances of getting ahead in the university (χ^2 of 9.87 { $p < 0.007$ }), and with personal growth and development (χ^2 of 14.1 { $p < 0.001$ }). Likewise, MUK respondents felt

happier with promotion prospects (χ^2 of 15.9 { $p < 0.000$ }), as with devotion to teaching in the promotion criteria (χ^2 of 15.08 { $p < 0.000$ }).

Some insight was gained from the above scenario. One possibility is that the research findings on remuneration have shown that whereas the key problem at MUK appears to be inadequate pay, at IUIU complaint seems to centre on irregular pay (See Section 4.1.3.2; Chapter, 4). Since pay and promotion are somewhat related in a sense that promotion would lead to increase in pay (Oshagbemi, 1996), it would seem intuitive to suggest that IUIU's dissatisfaction with promotion is, in part, explainable by pay dissatisfaction which is not necessarily inadequate but irregular. Besides, promotion opportunities for IUIU dons seem blocked by a deficient research infrastructure. The comments of one participant speak of the problem they face:

“...After a decade in service, I have sought promotion in vain. One is required to teach 20 hours weekly plus some administrative responsibilities and the environment inhibits one to do research...Apparently, we have no votes for research and salary is irregular... I think when it comes to promotion, they should consider the particularities of the university because it is not fair to have the same promotion criteria with MUK which has better research facilities and a long established tradition...” Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.

In the case of IUIU, therefore, though promotion would imply increase in pay, it is likely to excite less since pay is erratic. Arguably, in a situation where one's pay is considerably uncertain, there is a tendency to have negative feelings towards promotion. Moreover, MUK unlike IUIU with no sound sustainable financial base (by the time this research was conducted) has embarked on a programme to attract, retain and enhance dons' welfare. Indeed, Tizikara (1998: 86) observed that in MUK:

“...Power is being decentralised to faculties; now deans have a say in faculty programmes. An officer has been appointed for dealing with staff appraisal, and Appointments Board is faster on promotions...”

Since these data have shown that in Ugandan universities, perhaps as elsewhere, promotion is too dependent on scholarly productivity, the very serious deficiency of a

research infrastructure in IUIU to sustain an academic community coupled with irregular pay could have accounted for the pervasive dissatisfaction with promotion.

4.3.3. Academic Satisfaction with Supervision

Over 50% of the respondents felt happy with their autonomy, as with the competence of their supervisor (Table 4.25). Furthermore, more than 40% of the participants showed content with the freedom to try new ideas, as with supervisors concern for staff welfare. Based on these data, therefore, there was academic satisfaction with the supervision of their heads who, in the survey, could be a head of department, a dean of a faculty, a director of a school or even a chief academic officer in a university.

What then, might have contributed to academic satisfaction with supervision?

Table 4.25: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Supervision

Factor	% of 182 ♣
1-The autonomy you have from your supervisor	62.2 (% of 180)
2-The technical competence of your supervisor	60.3 (% of 179)
3-Your overall freedom you have on the job	59.7 (% of 181)
4-Opportunities to do challenging work	57.8 (% of 180)
5-The amount of responsibility you are given t handle	56.4 (% of 181)
6-Your work time autonomy	55.6 (% of 178)
7-The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	47.0 (% of 181)
8-Your supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	43.9 (% of 180)
9-Your supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	41.3 (% of 179)
10-Your supervisor's success in getting people to work	39.4 (% of 180)
11-The overall quality of supervision you receive	35.6 (% of 180)
12-Support & guidance received from your supervisor	34.8 (% of 181)
13-Feedback from your supervisor	33.9 (% of 180)
14-The amount of close supervision	29.3 (% of 181)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside the score

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

One possibility lies in the nature of academic work, which is largely autonomous and consistent with Herzberg's theory in a sense that supervision a hygiene factor contributed to academic dissatisfaction. Besides cultural disparities between UK and IUIU, one is not sure whether in a situation where lower order academic needs (e.g. pay and research materials) are fulfilled, there tends to be satisfaction with teacher supervision.

Nonetheless, these data seem congruent with Lewis and Altbach (1996) conclusion that many dons believed that they have most influence on decision making in their department or similar unit, with majorities in almost all countries feeling that their are either very influential or somewhat influential at this level. Likewise, Enders and Teichler (1997) reported that the relatively independent nature of their jobs allows most academics in Europe, USA and Japan to find areas of professional activity, which are the source of professional attachment and satisfaction. In same vein, Serow's (2000) found that USA academics exercised a greater degree of autonomy over the conditions of their work than their counterparts in other professions. Moreover, interview data revealed academic satisfaction with autonomy. Said one informant,

“...We work as a team and I have the freedom to try new programmes if they are consistent with the general guidelines in the institute. Besides, I don't require a lot of supervision which I find satisfying...” Lecturer, Makerere University Kampala.

Arguably, the minimal supervision Uganda academics received on the job, coupled with the freedom to initiate new programmes contributed to their supervision satisfaction.

Contrary to Herzberg's dichotomy, therefore, we see supervision a *hygiene* factor contributing to academic satisfaction. In addition, study findings are at variance with Oshagbemi's (1997) evidence that supervision contributed to less than 5% of UK academics satisfaction. By contrast with the Uganda study, therefore, UK results seem consistent with Herzberg's theory in a sense that supervision a *hygiene* factor contributed to academic dissatisfaction. Besides, cultural disparities between UK and Uganda dons, one is not sure whether in a situation where lower order *academic* needs (pay and research materials) are deficient, there tends to be satisfaction with

supervision and vice-versa. What would seem apparent, however, is the kind, and perhaps the quality of, supervision provided in both settings is likely to differ.

To this end, it is essential to highlight that Ugandan academics suffer a loss of professional self-esteem (Coombe, 1991) and make economic ends by engaging in activities unrelated to their core functions (Ocitti, 1993; Ajayi et al., 1996). This scenario tends to compromise their commitment and loyalty to their employer (See Section 2.6.1 & 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Analogously, academics in the North are largely satisfied and committed to their duties (Boyer, et al., 1994; Enders and Teichler, 1997). It would seem tenable, therefore, to suggest that the kind of supervision provided by the former and the latter could be different. Arguably, the services of committed and relatively well-motivated dons are better than those of dons who seek refuge in venality and supplementary work to make economic ends meet. The Uganda study has shown, therefore, that factors contributory to academic satisfaction with supervision were:

- The degree of autonomy you have from your supervisor
- The technical competence of your supervisor
- Overall freedom on the job
- Opportunities to do challenging work
- The amount of responsibility given to handle
- Work time autonomy

4.3.3.1 Academic Dissatisfaction with Supervision

Over 30% of respondents felt unhappy with the success of, and feedback from their supervisors (Table 4.26). What could be attributed to this? One possibility is that by grouping the humanities, the mathematics and sciences in this study, the discrete effects of disciplines may have been masked. Additionally, the constraining environment in which Ugandan dons work (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) could

account for the dissatisfaction with the success of supervisors. Moreover, for exercises like peer observation and staff appraisal to be meaningful, ample funds are vital in as much as well-motivated and committed staff.

Table 4.26: Distribution of Percent Dissatisfaction with Supervision

Factor	% of 182♣
1-Success of your supervisor in getting people to work	35.6 (% of 180)
2-Feedback from your supervisor	34.4 (% of 180)
3-Your supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	32.4 (% of 179)
4-Your supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	31.1 (% of 180)
5-Support & guidance received from your supervisor	30.9 (% of 181)
6-The overall quality of supervision you receive	30.6 (% of 180)
7-The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	30.4 (% of 181)
8-The amount of close supervision	30.4 (% of 181)
9-Your work time autonomy	20.8 (% of 178)
10-The amount of responsibility you are given to handle	20.4 (% of 181)
11-Opportunities to do challenging work	19.4 (% of 180)
12-Your overall freedom you have on the job	15.5 (% of 181)
13-The autonomy you have from your supervisor	13.3 (% of 180)
14-The technical competence of your supervisor	12.6 (% of 179)

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Besides, as Broadwell (1984) maintained people are complex, supervising people is even more complex, and supervising well is the most complex of all. Said one respondent,

“...I think my dean is constrained by the situation...Personally, I attribute lack of feedback from my supervisor to over-centralisation, which bogs down the whole process. Things go through committees and lie there for a long time. For the last two academic years, there has been no formal communication regarding my performance yet every year I complete appraisal forms...” **Senior Lecturer, Makerere University, Kampala.**

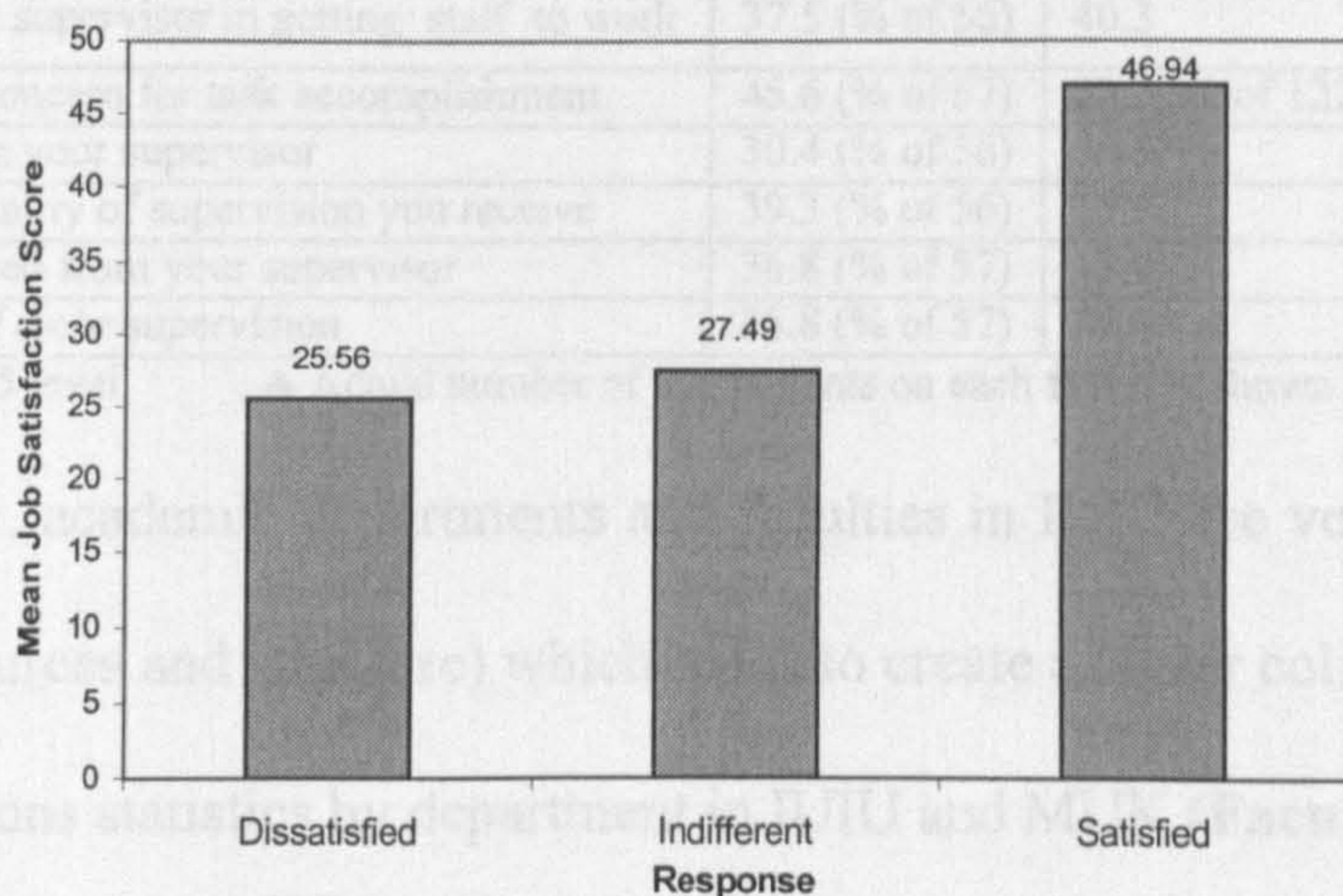
These data echo lack of communication on appraisal, yet for dons to take advantage of their own abilities to improve without getting too entrenched in their weaknesses need and deserve prompt feedback on their performance. Indeed, effective supervisors keep employees appraised and apprised all along as to how they are doing (Hawthorn and Savedra, 1984). By contrast, documentary data in IUIU and MUK revealed that appraisals are designed to be annual affairs, so departmental heads and deans learn to think of appraising as something that happens once a year, and the input of those to be

appraised into the appraisal activity is minimal. Such a situation, it is hoped, will form a policy agenda for this study. Thus, Ugandan academics discontent with supervision was contributed by:

- Success of supervisor in getting people to work
- Feedback from supervisor

A summary of respondents satisfaction with supervision can be viewed in Figure 8.

Figure 8 Responses of Surveyed Academics on the Job Aspect of Supervision



4.3.3.2 Significant Differences in the Sample based on Supervision

Relative to research question 3, five factors loaded significantly at the .05 level (Table 4.27). Though both samples showed discontent with the overall quality of supervision, IUIU dons were significantly more satisfied than their MUK colleagues (χ^2 of 16.24 { $p < 0.000$ }).

Analogously, MUK respondents were more delighted with the technical competence of their supervisors (χ^2 of 22.24 { $p < 0.000$ }) as with opportunities to do challenging work (χ^2 of 22.18 { $p < 0.000$ }) than their IUIU counterparts. Likewise, MUK dons felt happier with the freedom to try new programmes (χ^2 of 34.74 { $p < 0.000$ }), and overall freedom on the job (χ^2 of 29.24 { $p < 0.000$ }) than IUIU respondents.

Some insight was gained on the likely cause of the above differences. One possibility could lie in the size of departments and faculties in both institutions.

Table 4.27: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Supervision by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58	MUK % of 124	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-Your overall freedom you have on the job	33.3 (% of 57)	71.8	29.24*	0.000
2-The technical competence of your supervisor	40.0 (% of 55)	69.4	22.24*	0.000
3-Opportunities to do challenging work	36.8 (% of 57)	67.5 (% of 123)	22.18*	0.000
4-The autonomy you have from your supervisor	55.4 (% of 56)	65.3	4.661	0.097
5-The responsibility you are given to handle	45.6 (% of 57)	61.3	4.423	0.019
6-Your work time autonomy	50.0 (% of 56)	58.2 (% of 122)	1.883	0.389
7-The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	22.8 (% of 57)	58.1	34.74*	0.000
8-Your supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	33.9 (% of 56)	48.4	7.041	0.029
9-Success of your supervisor in getting staff to work	37.5 (% of 56)	40.3	0.551	0.758
10-Supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	45.6 (% of 57)	39.3 (% of 122)	2.091	0.351
11-Feedback from your supervisor	30.4 (% of 56)	35.5	0.472	0.792
12-The overall quality of supervision you receive	39.3 (% of 56)	33.9	16.24*	0.000
13-Support received from your supervisor	36.8 (% of 57)	33.9	0.154	0.926
14-The amount of close supervision	36.8 (% of 57)	25.8	3.221	0.202

* Significant at .05 level † Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

Comparatively, academic departments and faculties in IUIU are very small (in terms of human resources and structure) which tends to create a closer collegial atmosphere.

Table 4.28: Dons statistics by department in IUIU and MUK (Faculty of Science) for 1999/2000.

Department	IUIU	MUK
Chemistry/Bio	1	30
Botany/Zoology	7	26
Geology	N/o	7
Computer Science	2	9
Environment	5	8
Mathematics	2	18
Physics	1	14
Total	18	112

Source: MUK (PDD, 1999/00) N/O Not offered
IUIU (A/R, 1999/00)

Indeed, documentary data revealed that IUIU has a total of 21 academic departments and 5 faculties as opposed to MUK with 99 academic departments, 4 institutes, 9 faculties and 4 schools. For instance, IUIU has only 18 academics in the faculty of science compared to 112 at MUK. Table 4.28 compares teaching staff statistics in faculty of science in IUIU and MUK.

Unlike IUIU, therefore, most MUK departments are large and though they work as a team, the *family* atmosphere that pervades some departments in IUIU seems to be unthere. One interviewee captured this scenario:

“...This being a small place with fewer students and staff unlike Makerere, it is easier for me to access the dean... and to get feedback from him promptly....” Senior Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.

Thus, the small number of academics in IUIU tends to make the supervisor-led interaction easier to establish. Arguably, with few staff it is easier to identify not only *individual* but also *team* and *task* needs, which might explain why IUIU dons felt happier with the overall quality of supervision received.

MUK respondents, however, were more likely to derive satisfaction from the technical competence of supervisor and overall freedom of the job than the IUIU sample. One possibility is that whereas in IUIU the small number of academics tends to induce a collegial atmosphere, in MUK the vast numbers of academics would seem to *isolate* some. Such a situation has, however, tended to offer MUK dons some degree of autonomy from their supervisors. Unlike in IUIU where say the HOD or dean is *visible* and may be readily accessible, in MUK the dean though *visible* might not be easily accessible due to the large number of staff and at times students to attend to. Arguably, this scenario has granted some MUK dons relative freedom to try new programmes and challenges at departmental level. MUK respondents higher satisfaction with the overall freedom on the job (See Table 4.27), therefore, is partly explained by operating in a situation where dons are a bit *withdrawn* from their bosses.

4.3.4 Academic Satisfaction with Co-Workers Behaviour

Ugandan academics were delighted by their co-worker behaviour (Table 4.29). Over 80% of the respondents felt happy with the respect they earn, as with their relationship

with others. Over 65% the sampled academics considered the amount of confidence and trust in fellow employees and the level of personal interest fellow staff have contributory to their satisfaction. Furthermore, the sense of community prevailing in the institution and the *social support* received delighted half of the responding academics.

Table 4.29: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Co-Workers Behaviour

Factor	% of 182
1-The relationship with others	80.2 (% of 177)
2-The respect you earn from fellow employees	80.0 (% of 180)
3- The amount of confidence and trust in fellow staff	70.9
4-The level of personal interest staff have in you	67.2 (% of 177)
5-The value of meetings with colleagues at work	62.1
6-The sense of community in your university	56.7 (% of 180)
7-The “social support” from colleagues at work	55.5
8- Professional interaction with colleagues at work	55.3 (% of 179)
9- Opportunities to get to know others	55.3
10-The level of congeniality by colleagues at work	52.8 (% of 176)
11-Collegial relations in your faculty	51.9 (% of 181)
12-The degree of competency of co-workers	50.8 (% of 181)
13-The level of commitment by colleagues at work	48.4
14-The degree of faculty morale	39.6

□ Extrinsic factors ♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

Based on these data, therefore, Ugandan academics were delighted with collegial relations in their institutions. Such a situation could suggest that there appeared to be no pervasive interpersonal problems among respondents. These data are somewhat surprising considering the plight of respondents (See Section 2.6.1&2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Indeed, conflicts among colleagues are rampant in organisational settings where resources are perceived to be scarce (Kraus, 1980). Besides, universities are characterised as being *organised anarchies* (Cohen and March, 1974) and are far from being congenial places (Serow, 2000). Could it be then, that in a situation where lower order needs are deficient, (inadequate salary, insufficient library and research facilities) a congenial atmosphere would seem to prevail among academics? This scenario tends to accord with the notion that the *culture* of the environment in which

academics work has a large influence on their feelings of satisfaction as a whole (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997). Contrary to Herzberg's theory, therefore, we see interpersonal relations a *context/hygiene* element of the job contributing to job satisfaction.

Though the interaction between the staff in a university is a complex amalgam of competition and co-operation (Everett and Entekin, 1987), this finding of a collegial and congenial *climate* is useful, considering that academics have to perform several functions jointly. Manger (1988) cited in Manger and Eikeland (1990) found that nearly half of Norwegian academics wanted more co-operation with colleagues when preparing and doing teaching. Besides, it is potentially instructive to note that an academic institution is not just a place to work; it also provides a social environment.

This notion seems congruent with the views of one interviewee:

“Yes interacting with others does contribute to my satisfaction. We seem to have common problems, which tend to weave us together.... Besides, the people I work with are friendly though as I said earlier, we do not have many opportunities to interact informally....” Senior Lecturer, Makerere University Kampala.

Consistent with the research literature, therefore, respondents felt happy with interpersonal relations. Manger and Eikeland (1990) concluded that among Norwegian academics staff saying that collegial relations constituted a reason to leave their present work place, had lower general job satisfaction than those opposed. Similarly, Oshagbemi (1996) found that 69.7% of UK dons were satisfied with co-workers behaviour, and co-worker behaviour contributed more to job satisfaction than dissatisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1997). In same vein, Lacy and Sheehan (1997) reported that 70.4% of academics examined in eight nations were generally satisfied with their relationships with colleagues. Relative to co-worker behaviour, thus, the factors that delighted Ugandan academics were:

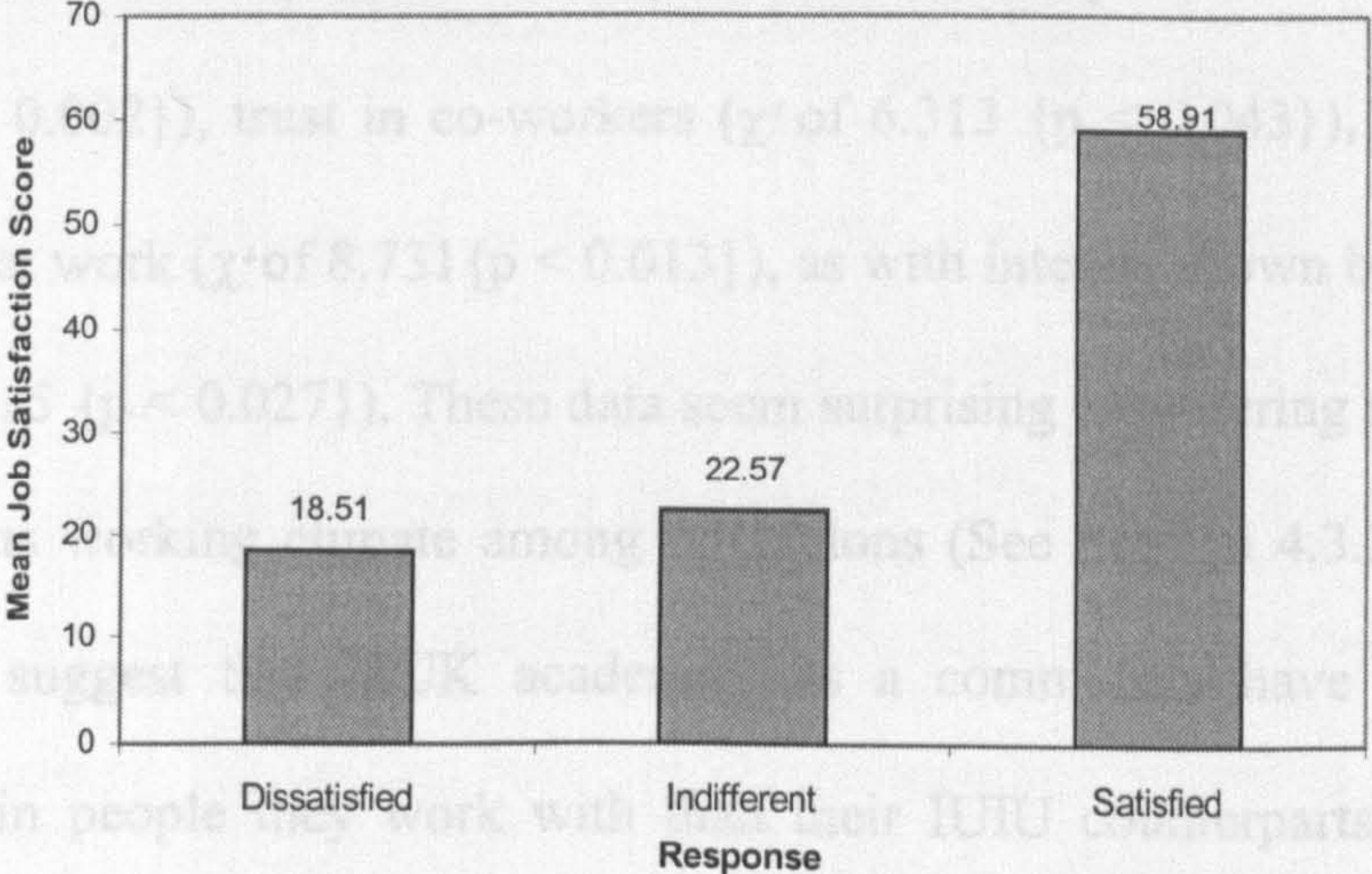
- The sense of community in university

- Competence of co-workers
- Faculty morale
- Collegial relations in faculty
- Commitment by colleagues at work
- Respect from fellow employees
- Social support from colleagues
- Value of meetings with co-workers
- Confidence and trust in co-workers
- Congeniality by colleagues at work
- Professional interaction with colleges at work
- Opportunities to know others
- The level of personal interest shown by co-workers
- Relationship with others

Factor	IUIU % of 98	MUK % of 124	Fischer's χ^2 (df=2)	P <
Competence of co-workers	79.3	60.3 (% of 124)	13.72*	0.001
Faculty morale	71.4 (% of 96)	64.3 (% of 171)	3.781*	0.053
Collegial relations in faculty	83.3	73.4	6.313*	0.043
Commitment by colleagues at work	63.3 (% of 59)	51.6 (% of 128)	2.174	0.343
Respect from fellow employees	62.5 (% of 59)	50.4 (% of 127)	7.215*	0.027
Social support from colleagues	75.0	49.2	4.472	0.334
Value of meetings with co-workers	75.0	53.2	6.093*	0.048
Confidence and trust in co-workers	61.3	48.0 (% of 123)	5.471	0.147
Congeniality by colleagues at work	61.3	45.0	6.325	0.051
Professional interaction with colleges at work	55.1	55.4 (% of 133)	0.964	0.616
Opportunities to know others	55.1	46.4 (% of 120)	2.155*	0.099
The level of personal interest shown by co-workers	46.3	41.1	1.471	0.384
Relationship with others	44.3	46.8 (% of 119)	2.083*	0.092

Figure 9 summarises respondents satisfaction with Co-worker behaviour

Figure 9 Responses of Sampled Academics on the Job Aspect of Co-workers



4.3.4.1 Significant Differences in the Sample based on Co-Workers Behaviour

Six significant loadings at the .05 level were confirmed (Table 4.30). It can be seen that IUIU respondents were more delighted than the MUK sample with collegial relations (χ^2 value of 6.093 { $p < 0.048$ }). The researcher contends that contextual and organisational factors are likely to have been important determinants of this difference. One possibility is that IUIU unlike MUK has fewer dons in a relatively

small campus, which in the words of one interviewee tends to create a *familiar climate*. This situation could explain why IUIU respondents were more satisfied with opportunities to get to know others than their MUK counterparts.

Table 4.30: Percent Satisfaction with Co-Workers Behaviour by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58	MUK % of 124	Pearson's χ^2 (d.f.=2)	P <
1-The respect you earn from fellow employees	79.3	80.3 (% of 122)	5.812	0.551
2-The relationship with others	71.4 (% of 56)	84.3 (% of 121)	8.731*	0.013
3- The amount of confidence and trust in fellow staff	65.5	73.4	6.313*	0.043
4- Professional interaction with colleagues at work	63.2 (% of 57)	51.6 (% of 122)	2.174	0.343
5-The level of personal interest staff have in you	62.5 (% of 56)	69.4 (% of 121)	7.215*	0.027
6- Opportunities to get to know others	62.1	49.2	4.472	0.114
7-The "social support" from colleagues at work	60.3	53.2	0.953	0.621
8-Collegial relations in your faculty	60.3	48.0 (% of 123)	6.093*	0.048
9-The value of meetings with colleagues at work	55.2	65.3	5.431	0.061
10-The level of commitment by colleagues at work	48.3	48.4	0.325	0.851
11-The level of congeniality by colleagues at work	47.3 (% of 55)	55.4 (% of 121)	0.994	0.616
12-The sense of community in your university	36.2	66.4 (% of 122)	23.551*	0.000
13-The degree of faculty morale	36.2	41.1	3.421	0.184
14 -The degree of competency of co-workers	34.5	58.5 (% of 123)	12.083*	0.002

* Significant at .05 level

♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

Conversely, MUK dons felt happier than their IUIU colleagues with sense of community in university (χ^2 of 23.551 {P < 0.000}), competence of co-workers (χ^2 of 12.083 {p < 0.002}), trust in co-workers (χ^2 of 6.313 {p < 0.043}), and relationship with others at work (χ^2 of 8.731 {p < 0.013}), as with interest shown by co-workers (χ^2 value of 7.215 {p < 0.027}). These data seem surprising considering the discussion of a harmonious working climate among IUIU dons (See Section 4.3.3.2; Chapter, 4). Could this suggest that MUK academics as a community have more trust and confidence in people they work with than their IUIU counterparts? This situation accords with prior research. Tizikara (1998) found that although MUK and IUIU academic staffs were committed to the realisation of university objectives, the former were, perhaps, due to the prestigious association with MUK more interested in serving the institution than the latter.

4.3.5 Academic Satisfaction with Physical Working Conditions

Since academic working conditions influence both morale and productivity (Boyer et al., 1994), and situations recognised as stressful in other occupations have now become common in academics (Thorsen, 1996), it would seem appropriate to explore Uganda academics satisfactions with working facilities.

Table 4.31: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Physical Working Conditions

Factor	% of 182
1-The geographical location of university	76.2 (% of 181)
2- Being associated with your university	64.8
3- Distance between university and your residence	64.6 (% of 181)
4-The freedom of your life style	53.6 (% of 181)
5-The beauty of the campus you work in	49.7 (% of 181)
6-The obtaining social environment	45.3 (% of 179)
7-Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	35.2
8-Space available to work during non-teaching time	33.5 (% of 179)
9-The feeling of security	31.9
10-The intellectual stimulation of your university	26.4
11- Clerical and technical assistance offered	23.8 (% of 181)
12- Your access to computer and library facilities	15.5 (% of 181)
13-The environment in which you work	15.4
14-Facilities for relaxation	7.2 (% of 181)
15-The overall research facilities available	7.3 (% of 179)

■ Extrinsic factors ♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

Indeed, in the context of on going reflections and debates on the situation and perspectives of the academic profession, it is obviously of interest to learn more about the working conditions of academics (Enders, 1999). As (Table 4.31) illustrates, over 60 % of the respondents were delighted with their association, location, and proximity to their institution. The ratings, however, on the satisfaction derived from freedom of life style, the social environment, and the beauty of the campus, were comparatively lower ranging from 35-54%. Not unexpectedly, considering the plight of Ugandan academics (Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2 & Section 4.2.2.1; Chapter, 4), respondents were irked with instructional, research and computing facilities.

It would seem, therefore, that in contrast to Herzberg's theory, *extrinsic factors* like beauty of campus and library holdings respectively contributed to academic

satisfaction and dissatisfaction! One possibility for this scenario, it is argued, is that whereas Ugandan academics (perhaps like their counterparts elsewhere), have a high degree of control on *content* elements such as the process of teaching and moulding minds, they have limited control over *context* factors e.g. computers, journals and books. Arguably, these data are somewhat helpful since a university environment helps to determine to some extent the orientations and attitudes of academics. Indeed, this finding is congruent with the notion that an atmosphere, an ethos, or even location of an institution can have a profound effect, negative or positive, on the staff (Altbach, 1972). Indeed, of campus location, one participant observed:

“...I have no problem at all with the location of this campus. The place meets my family and social needs. My delight comes with the beauty of the campus, the hill itself, and the weather...” Lecturer, Makerere University Kampala.

Moreover, Pearson and Seiler (1983) concluded that because Australian academics have a high degree of control over *content* facets, perceptions of the job were particularly dependent on the degree of satisfaction with *context* factors. Arguably, in Uganda whereas academic satisfaction with working environment emanates from *intrinsic* elements of the job, resentment and misgivings tend to arise from *extrinsic* factors over which they have very limited control. Thus, the factors that contributed Ugandan academics satisfaction with working facilities were:

- The geographic location of the university
- Association with your university
- Proximity to university
- The freedom of your lifestyle
- The beauty of the campus
- The obtaining social environment
- Day-to day enjoyment on the job

4.3.5.1 Academic Dissatisfaction with Working Conditions

As expected, respondents felt unhappy with *context* factors of work (Table 4.32).

Table 4.32: Distribution of Percent Dissatisfaction with Working Facilities

Factor	% of 182
1-The overall research facilities available	80.4 (% of 179)
2-Facilities for relaxation	76.8 (% of 181)
3- Your access to computer and library facilities	75.7 (% of 181)
4-The environment in which you work	63.7
5- Clerical and technical assistance offered	58.0 (% of 181)
6-Space available to work during non-teaching time	56.4 (% of 179)
7-The intellectual stimulation of your university	47.3
8-The feeling of security	44.5
9-Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	37.9
10-The obtaining social environment	27.9 (% of 179)
11-The beauty of the campus you work in	25.4 (% of 181)
12-The freedom of your life style	22.1 (% of 181)
13- Distance between university and your residence	18.8 (% of 181)
14- Being associated with your university	12.6
15-The geographic location of university	12.2 (% of 181)

■ Extrinsic factors ♣ Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score

It can be seen that Ugandan academics dissatisfaction with physical facilities arose mainly from *context* factors over which they have limited control (See Table 4.32). For instance, over 75% of the respondents were disillusioned with library, computing, and relaxation facilities. Equally worrying, was academic discontent with security particularly at MUK, where the campus was considered unsafe as one participant hinted. Press reports tend to invigorate the fear:

Box 5

“...Hundreds of Makerere University students yesterday took to the streets demonstrating in protest over the murder of yet another colleague. The body of Rogers Mugisha, a second year student of Music, Dance and Drama, was discovered yesterday near the main entrance to Nsibirwa Hall... Mugisha becomes the fifth student to be murdered in the recent past in mysterious circumstances at the increasingly unsafe campus...” *Article titled Makerere in demo over dead student*, in the Sunday Monitor of 24/12/2000(e).

Arguably, issues related to institutional resources for teaching and research impact upon Uganda academics’ perceptions of the *environment*, in which they work and

live, and in turn, influence levels of dissatisfaction. The words of one participant seem insightful:

“...Yes, I enjoy it here but as a budding academician I’m constantly bothered by lack of infrastructure to sustain and develop me professionally...Library holdings are dated and recent publications are in very short supply. Research funds are inadequate and not disbursed promptly due to pressing financial constraints. There are few rooms for instruction and valuable time is wasted looking for a vacant room from where one can lecture. Besides, there are no facilities for relaxation, which I find dissatisfying...” Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.

Indeed, these data chime with the notion that the academic profession is one of the most ambivalent among highly educated occupations (Clark, 1987; Clark and Lewis, 1988; Altbach, 1991; Morey, 1992). Similarly, public debate and academic reflection on the academic profession is not characterised by contentment and serenity (Enders, 1999). Moreover, evidence-informed data would seem to agree with study findings.

Pelczar (1977) revealed that Latin American professors were irked with their conditions of work, thereby making university teaching a dissatisfying career alternative. Likewise, Altbach (1977) found that deficient physical facilities inadequate contributed to Indian dons’ dissatisfaction. For Fagbamiye (1981) discontent with working facilities among Nigerian academics exacerbated their job insecurity, fear and resentment. Equally worrying, Tizikara (1998) concluded that MUK and IUIU dons were disenchanted with the university environment in which the teaching and research processes took place. The above results are unsurprising considering the plight of academics in most low-resource countries particularly SSA discussed in (Section 2.4; Chapter, 2).

Strangely, academic satisfaction with working environment in universities of the North is far from contentment and serenity. Boyer et al., (1994) found that faculty in several countries expressed discontent with teaching and research resources. One out of three UK academics expressed dissatisfaction with working facilities (Oshagbemi,

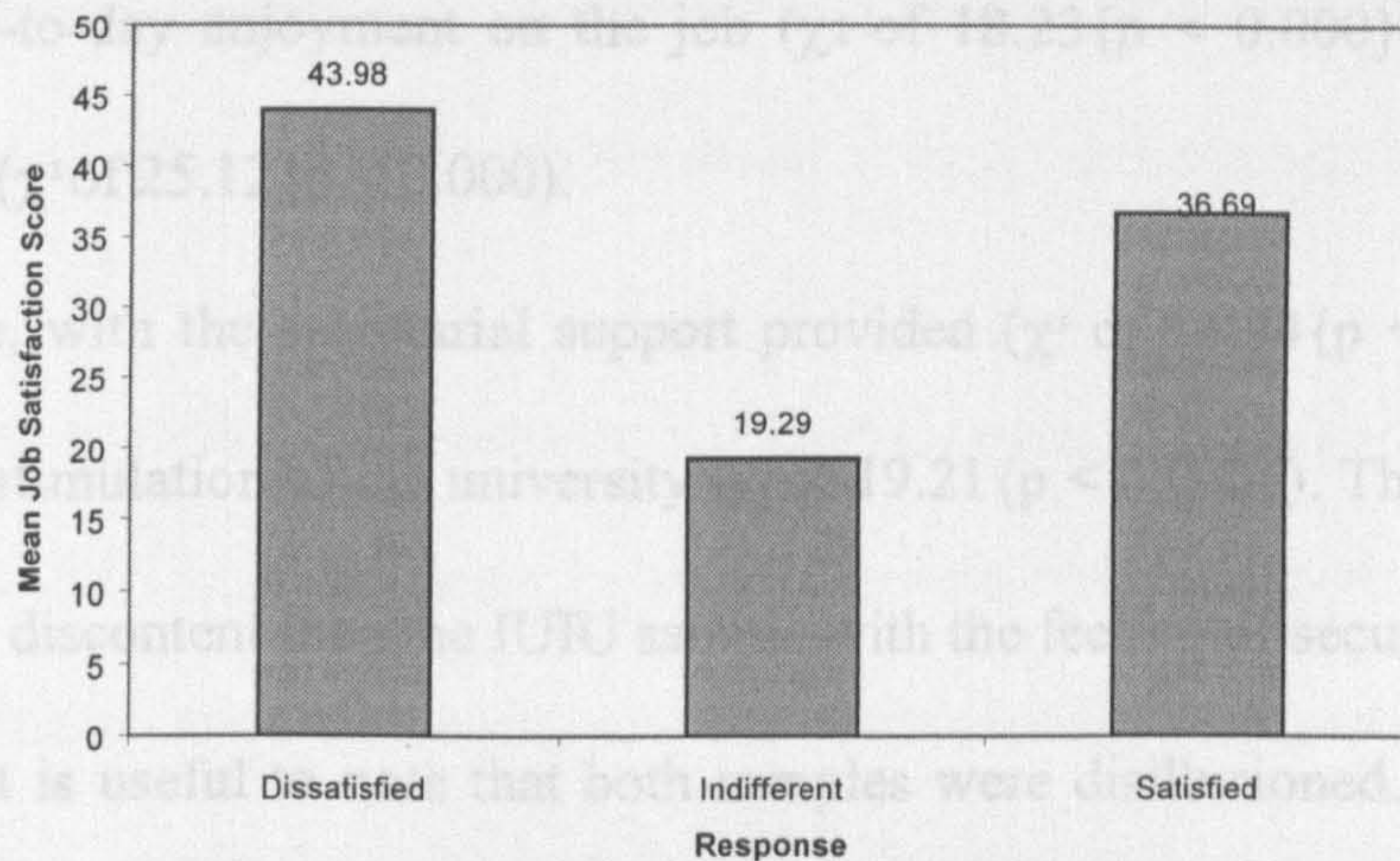
1996), and many dons in Europe, USA and Japan considered the resources for their work as an impediment than as satisfactory with English academics leading the way (Enders and Teichler, 1997).

These data might be viewed as surprising considering the vast institutional and research infrastructure in universities in the North. It seems appropriate, however, to note that unlike findings in the South (Altbach, 1977; Fagbamiye, 1981; Tizikara, 1998), in the North library and computing holdings were rated more favourably (Enders and Teichler, 1997). Arguably, this discrepancy in the findings echoes, *inter alia*, the technological differences that polarise the affluent North and the afflicted South. It would seem insightful, however, to note that consistent with Herzberg's dichotomy, in both the impoverished South and cosmopolitan North, working facilities tend to contribute dissatisfaction. Could it be then, that working conditions being *context/extrinsic* rewards are a potential source of Ugandan academics dissatisfaction, and their presence in endowed universities does not necessarily lead to academic satisfaction? This situation, it is hoped, will form a policy agenda for this research. Relative to working conditions, therefore, factors contributory to Uganda academics dissatisfaction were:

- The overall research facilities available
- Facilities for relaxation
- Access to computer networks and facilities
- The working environment of academics
- The clerical and technical assistance offered
- The space available during non-teaching time
- The intellectual stimulation of the university
- The feeling of security

Responses of sampled dons on working facilities are summarised in Figure 10.

Figure 10 Responses of Sampled Academics on the Job Aspect of Working Facilities



4.3.5.2 Significant Loadings in the Sample based on Working Conditions

Relative to Research Question 3, eleven factors loaded significantly at the .05 level (Table 4.33). MUK respondents rated their satisfaction with all the eleven factors higher than their IUIU counterparts notably the geographic location of the university (χ^2 value of 48.69 { $p < 0.000$ }), as with the beauty of the campus (χ^2 of 42.66 { $p < 0.000$ }).

Table 4.33: Distribution of Percent Satisfaction with Working Facilities by University

Factor	IUIU % of 58	MUK % of 124	Pearson's χ^2 (<i>d.f.</i> =2)	P <
1-The geographical location of university	50.0	88.6	48.69*	0.000
2- Being associated with your university	41.4	75.8	25.01*	0.000
3- Distance between university and your residence	44.8	74.0 (% of 123)	16.32*	0.000
4-The freedom of your life style	33.3 (% of 57)	62.9	15.63*	0.000
5-The feeling of security	31.0	32.3	7.81*	0.021
6-The obtaining social environment	25.9	54.5 (% of 121)	25.13*	0.000
7-Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	22.4	41.1	18.23*	0.000
8-The beauty of the campus you work in	17.2	65.0 (% of 123)	42.66*	0.000
9- Your access to computer and library facilities	10.3	17.9 (%of 123)	1.78	0.412
10-The environment in which you work	10.3	17.7	5.42	0.073
11-Space available to work during non-teaching time	10.3	44.6 (% of 121)	25.12*	0.000
12- Clerical and technical assistance offered	8.6	30.9 (% of 123)	14.84*	0.000
13-The intellectual stimulation of your university	8.6	34.7	19.21*	0.000
14-Facilities for relaxation	5.2	8.1 (% of 123)	2.85	0.241
15-The overall research facilities available	1.7	9.9 (% of 121)	3.96	0.141

* Significant at .05 level * Actual number of respondents on each factor is shown alongside percent score
 ■ Factor with Significant Loading

Second, proximity to the university (χ^2 of 16.32 { $p < 0.000$ }), as with the freedom of life style (χ^2 of 15.63 { $p < 0.000$ }). Third, association with the university (χ^2 of

25.01 { $p < 0.000$ }), and the obtaining social environment (χ^2 of 2513 { $p < 0.000$ }).

Fourth, day-to-day enjoyment on the job (χ^2 of 18.23 { $p < 0.000$ }), plus the space availability (χ^2 of 25.12 { $p < 0.000$ }).

Furthermore, with the secretarial support provided (χ^2 of 14.84 { $p < 0.000$ }), as with intellectual stimulation of the university (χ^2 of 19.21 { $p < 0.000$ }). Though MUK dons showed less discontent than the IUIU sample with the feeling of security, (χ^2 of 7.81 { $p < 0.021$ }), it is useful to note that both samples were disillusioned. This scenario is cause for concern with regard to safety of being and property. What then, might account for the significant differences in the sample?

The institution's history and geography, it would seem, could explain IUIU's disenchantment with physical conditions (See Section 4.2.2.2; Chapter, 2). Relative to geography, IUIU unlike MUK is situated in a peri-urban area three hours away from Kampala the only city in Uganda. Arguably, geography tends to deny IUIU some services that would seem appealing to the elite. Said one respondent,

“...One cannot change the location of the university, but if there could be facilities in Mbale-good schools for the education of my children and recreation of my family...Surely this situation is frustrating...” Lecturer, Islamic University in Uganda.

That MUK respondents then, expressed themselves as significantly satisfied with the location of their university than their IUIU colleagues could be partly explained by the above scenario. Furthermore, though in both institutions funding is inadequate, it is essential to note that MUK is a famous institution of long standing that has established its reputation over decades, as opposed to budding IUIU. Such a contrast could explain why MUK respondents derived more satisfaction than the IUIU sample from association with their institution. For instance, founded in 1988 by the OIC (Organisation of Islamic Conference) to cater mainly for Muslims in English speaking Africa, (IUIU Statute, 1990), IUIU has for most part sailed on troubled waters.

Bedevilled by political and economic woes, (Tizikara, 1998) the OIC funding to IUIU has over successive years been inadequate and erratic. This scenario, it would seem, contributed to IUIU's anguish with the social environment and enjoyment on job (See Table 4.33).

Moreover, study findings are consistent with prior research. Tizikara (1998) reported that whereas IUIU staff had gone for several months without pay, MUK was topping up staff salaries, with increased income from *evening* and *private* programmes. Inadequate and erratic funding, therefore, (by the time this research was conducted) has constrained IUIU's programmes, severely inhibiting its potential to procure institutional and instructional materials which, partly explains academic discontent with working facilities (Table 4.33).

4.3.6 Academic Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Job in General (JIG)

Respondents' ratings on JIG were surprisingly high (Table 4.34), considering the plight of Ugandan academics discussed in the review (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2).

Table 4.34 Distribution of Percent Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Job in General (JIG)

Factor	Dissatisfied (% of 182)	Indifferent (% of 182)	Satisfied (% of 182)
1-Academic work as an occupation	5.5	12.1	82.4
2-Status as a don	15.4	19.2	68.7
3- Career prospects in your job	12.1	19.2	65.4
4-Worthwhile accomplishment in your present job	9.9	25.8	64.3

Some insight was gained from these data. First, high academic satisfaction with work as an occupation, (82%) tends to support the arguments put forth by Pearson and Seiler (1983) and Moses (1986) that academics by the nature of their profession have a higher degree of control over the *content/intrinsic* elements of the work. Besides, these data chime with Enders and Teichler (1997) evidence that the relatively independent nature of academic work in USA, Japan and Europe allowed most dons

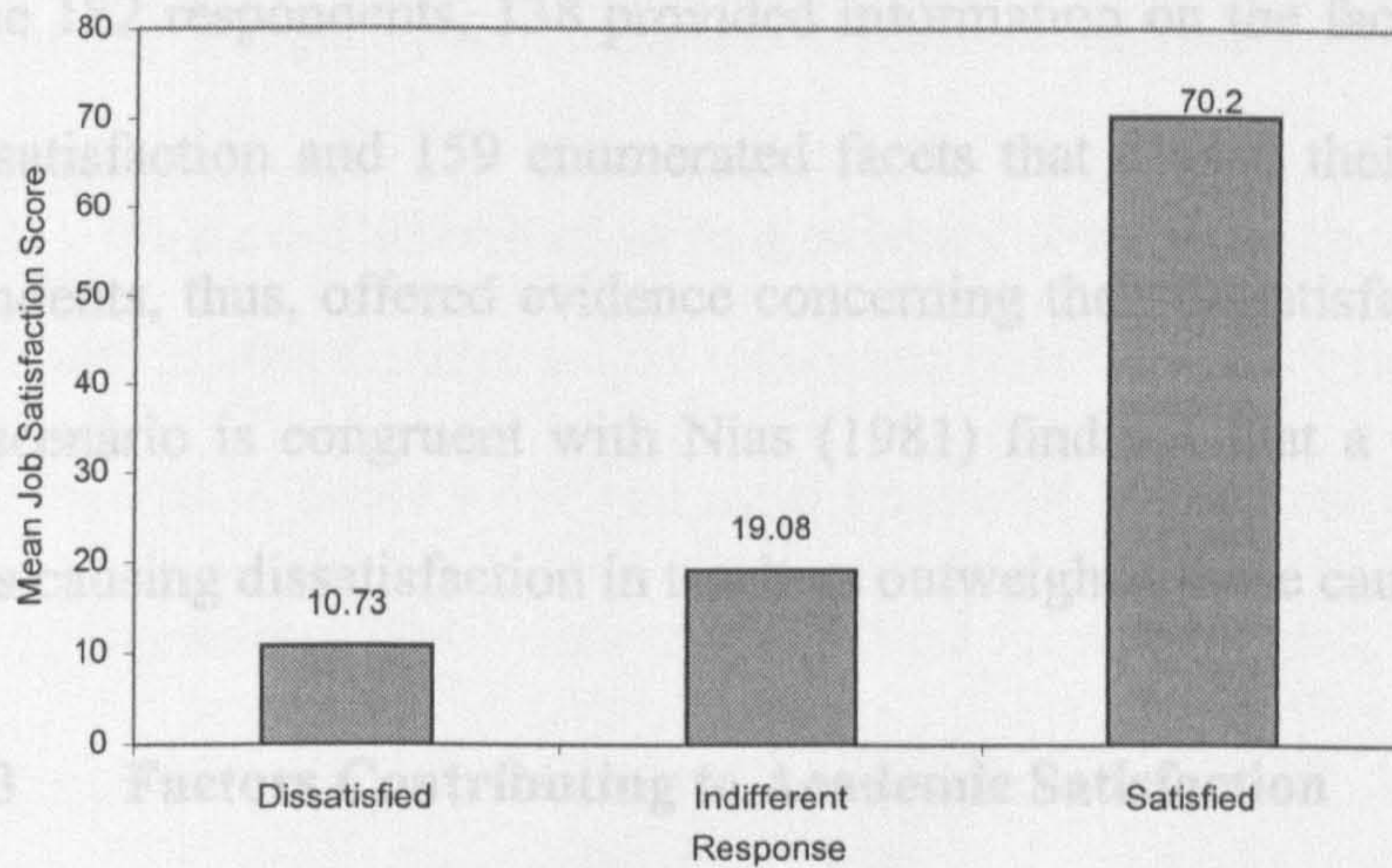
to find areas of professional activity, which were the source of satisfaction. Besides, USA faculty exercised a greater degree of autonomy over the conditions of their work than do their counterparts in other professions.

Conversely, the comparatively low overall delight with career prospects, 65% and worthwhile accomplishment, 64% in the job (Table 4.35; Chapter, 4) would seem to echo the notion that academics have limited control over *context/extrinsic* facets of the job (Table 4.33; Chapter, 4). Furthermore, that 36% of the respondents (Table 4.05; Chapter, 4) were *new comers* in the system could account for the overall indifference of 26% with worthwhile accomplishment in the job (Table 4.34; Chapter, 4). The researcher contends that perhaps it was probably too early for them to comment on their overall feelings in the job thus citing indifference.

The overall academic satisfaction level was greater than might have been expected considering the plight of Ugandan academics (Section 2.6.1 & 2.6.2; Chapter, 2), and high dissatisfaction with research (Section 4.2.2.1), governance (Section 4.2.3.1), remuneration (Section 4.3.1.1), promotion (Section 4.3.2.1) and working facilities (Section 4.3.5.1) in Chapter, 4. It is important to be aware, however, that when questionnaires alone are relied upon to measure job satisfaction, there is a tendency for teachers to respond to what they think is socially acceptable, thereby reporting work and professional satisfaction as high (Cornejo and Rodriguez, 1997) cited in Hean (2000). Moreover, these data though at variance with Fagbamiye's (1981) evidence in Nigeria, chime with several researches (Oshagbemi, 1996; 1997), in the UK, Boyer et al., (1994) in Europe, America, Asia and Australia, and Enders and Teichler (1997) in Europe, Japan and USA.

Figure 11 presents a graphic summary of academic responses on JIG.

Figure 11 Responses of Surveyed Academics on Job in General (JIG) Aspect



In sum, all the four (JIG) factors contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction, and the dissatisfaction levels were too low to warrant discussion.

4.4. Factors Contributory to Academic Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction: Free-Response Data

With quantitative and interview data, an image has emerged of those factors that contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This section, however, aims to elicit similar information but through a free-response format by which comparison, contrast and support may be made with information already collected. (Section 111) of the instrument (See Appendix 1) requested participants to list five factors of their job which contributed most to their satisfaction. In addition, respondents were also requested to list separately five factors or aspects of their job, which contributed most to their dissatisfaction.

4.4.1.1 Analysis

The responses of dons concerning sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction were then categorised basing on the eight aspects of their job (See Table 4.07). Categorisation into recurring themes was then achieved through a “cut and paste approach” of the free-response data. A summary of analysis according to age, and marital status, as with tenure, and academic rank will be presented in Chapter 5 and 6 respectively.

4.4.1.2 Response Rates

Of the 182 respondents, 138 provided information on the factors that contributed to their satisfaction and 159 enumerated facets that caused their dissatisfaction. More respondents, thus, offered evidence concerning their dissatisfaction than satisfaction. This scenario is congruent with Nias (1981) findings that a variety and number of factors causing dissatisfaction in teachers outweighed those causing satisfaction.

4.4.1.3 Factors Contributing to Academic Satisfaction

A summary of the satisfaction responses based on percentage of respondents can be viewed in Table 4.35.

The most frequently mentioned factors related to teaching were autonomy in content taught, as with relationship and respect by students. These data chime well with Likert scale and interview evidence discussed earlier (See Section 4.2.1; Chapter, 4). The next common factors related to the co-worker behaviour. This implied that Ugandan academics are sociable beings and value their collegial interactions.

Table 4.35: Distribution of Satisfaction Responses based on Job Aspect and Percentage of Academics mentioning Factor (n=138)

<i>Aspect of Job</i>	<i>Factor</i>	<i>Academics mentioning factor % of 138</i>
Co-workers	Relationship with others	82
	Support from co-workers	59
Teaching	Autonomy in content taught	72
	Sharing knowledge with students	64
	Recognition of efforts by students	62
P/Conditions	Location of university	63
Supervision	Freedom on the Job	62
	Working relationship with boss	56
Research	Freedom to research and publish	44
Miscellaneous		11

These data too accord with quantitative findings (See Section 4.3.4; Chapter, 4). Relative to supervision, freedom on the job and relationship with immediate boss were cited as sources of academic delight which, coheres with the data in (Section 4.3.3; Chapter, 4). Consistent with the data in (Section 4.3.5; Chapter, 4), location of university contributed most to academic satisfaction with respect to working

environment. The freedom to research and publish was the only factor mentioned as contributory to Ugandan academics satisfaction with research.

4.4.1.4 Factors Contributing to Academic Dissatisfaction

A summary of the dissatisfaction responses based on percentage of 159 respondents can be viewed in Table 4.36. The most frequently mentioned factors were inadequate and irregular salary. These data tend to reflect the pattern of IUIU and MUK academic discontent with salary discussed earlier (See Section 4.3.1.2; Chapter, 4). Relative to research, sources of disillusionment commonly mentioned were largely *extrinsic* such as lack of research grants and library facilities, which accords with the evidence adduced in (Section 4.2.2.1; Chapter, 4). Furthermore, consistent with the data in (Section 4.2.1.1; Chapter, 4) instructional materials and large classes were frequently mentioned as factors contributory to academic dissatisfaction with teaching.

Table 4.36: Distribution of Dissatisfaction Responses based on Job Aspect and Percentage of Academics mentioning Factor (n=159)

<i>Aspect of Job</i>	<i>Factor</i>	<i>Academics mentioning factor % of 159</i>
Remuneration	Inadequate salary	76
	Irregular salary	32
Research	Lack of research funds	71
	Library facilities for research	66
Admn. & Mgt.	Relationship with university admin.	64
	Policy formulation procedures	47
Teaching	Instructional materials	61
	Class size	59
W/ Facilities	Access to computer	62
	Facilities for relaxation	54
Promotion	Teaching skills in promotion	58
Miscellaneous		16

Computing and relaxation facilities were cited frequently as contributory to respondents anguish with working facilities which is congruent with (Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) and the data elicited in (Section 4.3.5.1; Chapter, 4). As reported in (Section 4.3.2.1; Chapter, 4), the majority of respondents felt that undervaluing of teaching excellence in the reward system accounted for their misgivings with promotion.

4.4.1.5 Comparison of Quantitative Findings with Free-Response Data

To give greater support to any conclusions that may be made, the data from the free-response format was compared with information already collected in the Likert type scales.

Table 4.37: Areas of convergence between Quantitative and Free-Response Data

<i>Aspect of Job</i>	<i>Quantitative (Likert scale)</i>	<i>Free-Response</i>
Teaching	Autonomy in content taught(s) Teacher-student relationship(s) Instructional materials (d) Class size(d)	Autonomy in content taught(s) Recognition of efforts by students(s) Large classes(d) Instructional materials(d)
Research	Freedom to research and publish(s) Research funds for research(d) Library facilities for research(d)	Freedom to research and publish(s) Research funding(d) Library facilities for research(d)
Admin. Management	Relationship with Univ. administration(d) Policy issues (d)	Relationship with Univ administrators(d) Policy formulation procedures(d)
Remuneration	Inadequate salary(d)	Inadequate salary(d)
Promotion	Teaching skills in promotion criteria (d)	Teaching skills in promotion(d)
Supervision	Overall freedom on the job (s)	Freedom on the job(s)
Co-workers' behaviour	Collegial relations in faculty(s) Social support from colleagues at work(s)	Relationship with others at work(s) Support from co-workers(s)
Working Facilities	Geographical location of university(s)	Location of university(s)

(s) Satisfaction (d) Dissatisfaction

There were notable areas of convergence relative to Ugandan academics sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as illustrated in Table 4.37. Based on the evidence adduced from survey, interview and free-response data, therefore, the factors contributory to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction are summarised in Table 4.38. Relative to teaching, findings from the Uganda study seem at variance with the notion that where lower order needs are not in place higher order needs do not contribute to satisfaction (Maslow, 1954; Evans, 1997; Garrett, 1999).

Indeed, some *intrinsic* factors contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction with teaching. These data, however, chime well with the contention that academics have control over *content* elements of their job (Pearson and Seiler, 1983; Moses, 1986; Enders and Teichler, 1997; Serow, 1997). Additionally, concurrent with Herzberg's dichotomy, *extrinsic* factors contributed to Ugandan academics job dissatisfaction as (Table 4.38) illustrates.

Table 4.38: Factors Contributing most to Ugandan Academics Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

<i>Aspect of Job</i>	<i>Satisfaction factors described by > 50 % of responding Academics</i>	<i>Dissatisfaction factors described by > 50% of responding Academics</i>
Teaching	Courses taught in relation to professional training Interest shown by students in courses taught Autonomy in content taught Time allocated for a lecture Teacher-student relationship Supervision of student projects	Library facilities for teaching Instructional materials available Recognition of teaching skills
Research	Academic freedom to research and publish	Research grants Library facilities for research Adequacy of research funds Opportunities to write and publish Sabbatical programmes Opportunities for research seminars Consultancy work The passion for research University intellectual life Research time available
Governance	Clarity of role in the department	Relationship with Univ. administrators Secretarial support provided Communication with Univ. authorities Policy formulation procedures
Remuneration	None	Salary as a supplier of basic needs Fringe benefits Level of compensation in university Present pay vs. skill and effort Position on pay scale Retirement benefits Material resources available Retiring with full benefits
Promotion	None	Recognition of achievements Teaching skills in promotion criteria Devotion to teaching in promotion
Supervision	Autonomy from supervisor Technical competence of supervisor Overall freedom on the job Opportunities to do challenging work Amount of responsibility you are given to handle Work time autonomy	None
Co-workers	Relationship with others Respect from fellow employees Confidence and trust in co-workers Personal interest in co-workers Value of meetings with colleagues at work Sense of community in university Social support from colleagues at work Professional interaction with colleagues at work Opportunities to get to know others Congeniality with colleagues at work Collegial relations in faculty Competence of co-workers	None
Working Facilities/ Environment	Geographical location of university Association with university Proximity to university from residence Freedom of life style	Overall research facilities available Facilities for relaxation Access to computer networks The environment in which you work Clerical and technical assistance Space available (non-teaching time)

CHAPTER 5

AGE, GENDER AND ACADEMIC JOB SATISFACTION

With the background now established in the previous chapters, the object of this chapter is to test and discuss the results of two research hypotheses, which sought to examine; First, the effect of age on satisfaction with respect to each of the eight aspects of the academic job. Second, to explore the influence of gender on academic satisfaction relative to each of the eight aspects of the academic job.

5.1. Hypothesis 1: There are no statistically significant differences among academics of different age levels regarding the factors contributing to their satisfaction with respect to 8 aspects of the academic job i.e. (Teaching, Research, Governance, Remuneration, Promotion, Supervision, Co-workers, and Working Environment).

5.1.1 Age and Academic Satisfaction with Primary Duties

This section will examine the effect of age on academic satisfaction with the core responsibilities of teaching, research and administration.

5.1.1.1 Age-Teaching Satisfaction

Relative to age-teaching satisfaction, significant differences were confirmed on ten out of the sixteen factors (Table 50.1). In contrast to younger academics, older respondents (45+) years old were more likely to derive satisfaction from *intrinsic* factors like supervision of students and marking answer scripts. From the results, it is likely that among Ugandan academics teaching satisfaction with *intrinsic facets* tended to increase with age. Such a finding seems to corroborate with prior research. Siassi et. al (1975) reported higher levels of job satisfaction in older workers than younger workers, regardless of the length of time they had been on the job. Similarly,

Ronen (1978) examined production workers and found a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction.

Table 5.01: Academic Satisfaction with Teaching by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All Age s	
1-Interest shown by students in courses you teach	92.3	93.5	94.4	94.7	93.4	♣ n.s
2- Course(s) taught in relation to training	86.2	96.8	94.4	89.5	91.8	n.s
3- Degree of autonomy in content taught	84.6	81.7	91.7	89.5	85.6	n.s
4- Time allocated for a lecture	72.3	80.6	83.3	73.7	77.5	n.s
5- Teacher-student relationship	86.2	82.3	52.8	73.7	76.9	P < 0.001*
6- Supervision of student projects	39.7	45.9	74.3	84.2	53.4	P < 0.002
7- Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	52.3	43.3	61.1	31.6	48.9	n.s
8-Marking answer scripts	29.2	54.8	55.6	57.9	46.2	P < 0.014
9- The size of class(es) taught	33.8	54.2	48.6	52.6	45.5	n.s
10- Teaching load	43.1	48.4	52.8	21.1	44.5	n.s
11- Procedures for course evaluation	33.8	45.2	30.6	31.6	36.8	P < 0.001
12- Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	41.3	35.5	27.8	36.8	36.1	P < 0.003
13- The quality of student intake	30.8	33.9	50.0	31.6	35.7	P < 0.023
14-Departmental strategy on teaching	34.9	46.8	27.8	15.8	35.6	P < 0.000
15- Quality of tutorials you conduct/conducted	33.9	38.7	29.4	26.3	33.9	n.s
16- Recognition of teaching skills in your university	22.2	14.8	27.8	5.30	19.0	P < 0.034
17- Instructional materials available for teaching	27.7	3.2	13.9	0.00	13.7	P < 0.007
18- Library facilities for teaching	21.5	3.2	8.3	5.30	11.0	P < 0.026

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

(U) Unclassifiable factor

□ Intrinsic factors

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Sufficiently comparable, Doering et al., (1983) in a review of ageing workers concluded that age is positively associated with job satisfaction. For Oshagbemi (1998) age of university teachers in the UK appears to be related to their level of satisfaction.

Interestingly, while older academics felt happy with *intrinsic* facets of teaching, it is useful to note that younger participants (> 45) years were more likely to signal satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors like relationship with students and library holdings. One explanation could be that younger dons found it easier to associate more freely with students than older academics. Or could this satisfaction level of younger dons be explained as Oshagbemi (1998) suggested by the enthusiasm of new entrants to a profession? Moreover, these data seem congruent with Luthans and Thomas's (1989) contention that due to the process of accommodation and resignation, older workers

may become increasingly disappointed in recognising that their expectations and aspirations are becoming more and more limited. Similarly, Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) concluded that teaching satisfaction among UK dons declines at a decreasing rate with age.

Overall, ten significant differences were confirmed. Based on these data, therefore, there is compelling evidence to support the notion that age has a significant influence on teaching satisfaction. Older academics derived significant satisfaction from largely *intrinsic* factors of teaching like supervision of student projects and marking answer scripts. Younger dons, however, were likely to signal satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors like teacher-student relationship, procedures for course evaluation, recognition of teaching skills, instructional and library materials, departmental strategy, quality of student intake, and student feedback on courses taught. Accordingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the ten factors and not rejected for the remaining eight (See Table 5.01).

5.1.1.2 Age and Research Satisfaction

The age-research satisfaction analyses evidenced more differences than similarities (Table 5.02). In contrast to teaching, there was pervasive unhappiness with research by respondents of all ages. Such a finding could echo the general state of inadequacy in Ugandan universities where, as discussed in the review, (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) research facilities in place cannot sustain learning in an academic community.

Frustrations notwithstanding, it can be seen that respondents in the (45+) age bracket were more likely to express satisfaction with both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* facets of research like time for independent thought, and becoming famous through publications respectively. Does this suggest that in a situation where lower order

needs are not met like in Uganda, age tends to influence academic satisfaction with research? Or could it be as Clark et al., (1996) concluded that the strong evidence for the association between job satisfaction and age among British employees was largely due to the changes in expectations with increasing age?

Table 5.02: Academic Satisfaction with Research by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f. = 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1- Academic freedom to research and publish	43.8	43.5	77.8	73.7	53.6	P < 0.004*
2- Recognition of research in university	33.8	37.1	41.7	47.4	37.9	♣ n.s
3- Time for independent thought	20.3	19.4	66.7	78.9	35.4	P < 0.000
4- Time available for personal development	17.2	4.8	61.1	73.7	27.6	P < 0.000
5- Research time available	20.0	8.2	58.3	52.6	27.1	P < 0.000
6- The quality of university intellectual life	32.3	14.5	13.9	26.3	22.0	n.s
7- Pressure to publish	23.1	13.3	16.7	36.8	20.0	P < 0.041
8- Opportunities for consultancy work	13.8	9.8	22.2	57.9	18.8	P < 0.000
9- Becoming famous through publications	10.8	8.1	22.2	57.9	17.0	P < 0.000
10- Opportunities to write and publish	16.9	9.7	16.7	15.8	14.3	n.s
11- Opportunities to set up research seminars	16.9	12.9	11.1	15.8	14.3	n.s
12- The passion for research	17.5	8.3	13.9	0.0	11.8	P < 0.034
13- The availability of sabbatical programmes	11.3	8.2	11.1	10.5	10.1	n.s
14- Library facilities for research	4.6	1.6	8.3	5.3	4.4	n.s
15- Adequacy of research funds	1.6	4.9	2.8	5.3	3.4	n.s
16- Time spent in obtaining research grants	1.6	1.6	5.6	0.0	2.2	P < 0.030

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

□ Intrinsic factors

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

It would seem, therefore, that among Ugandan academics, there tends to be a linear and positive age effect on both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors of research. Does this suggest that in Ugandan universities, the older a don is, the more satisfaction he or she derives from research? One possibility could be that older dons (perhaps through publications and experience) tend to be more *visible* and might be better able to adjust their expectations to the rewards the work can provide. Besides, these data are in conformity with the notion that older workers are more satisfied than their younger counterparts because they actually have *better* or more highly rewarded jobs (Quinn et al., 1974; Wright and Hamilton, 1978). Indeed, older workers tend to be better rewarded and expect less from their job (Clark et al., 1996), and in USA older

workers gained self-esteem simply by virtue of the length of time spent in the job (DeSantis and Durst, 1996).

These data seem to suggest, therefore, that as Ugandan academics grows older, until retirement age, their level of satisfaction particularly with *intrinsic* facets of research like freedom to publish and recognition tends to increase. Perhaps this could be as a result of more skilful approach to the task and their consequent better performance of these aspects of research. These findings are, however, at variance with Oshagbemi's (1998) results that research satisfaction among UK academics decreased consistently with age, and Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) evidence that research satisfaction among British academics increases with age at a decreasing rate.

Overall, older academics were more likely to derive satisfaction from both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors of research. Based on these data, therefore, there is overwhelming evidence to suggest that age has a significant influence on academic research satisfaction. Indeed, older academics expressed more satisfaction than their younger counterparts with *content* factors of research like freedom to research and publish recognition of research, and time available for independent thought. Likewise, older respondents were more likely to derive significant satisfaction from *context* facets of research like time for personal development, research grants, opportunities for consultancy, becoming famous through publications, and pressure to publish. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for nine factors and not rejected for seven facets of research (See Table 5.02).

5.1.1.3 Age and Satisfaction with Governance

Consistent with the research literature, discussed earlier (See Section 4.4.1.1; Chapter, 4) there was widespread discontent among Ugandan academics with institutional governance (Table 5.03). Does this suggest that governance being *extrinsic* in nature

lead more to job dissatisfaction than satisfaction? It can be seen, however, that with the exception of respondents in the (45-54) age group, other academics were more likely to derive satisfaction from clarity concerning their role in the department.

Table 5.03: Academic Satisfaction with Governance by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1- Clarity concerning your role in the department	57.8	65.6	33.3	63.2	56.1	P < 0.001
2-Influence in departmental administration	30.6	32.8	36.1	57.9	35.4	n.s
3-The number of meetings to attend	40.0	24.2	25.0	47.4	32.4	P < 0.048*
4- Clarity of institutional mission	32.8	35.0	22.2	15.8	29.6	♣ n.s
5-Time spent on administrative duties	29.5	24.6	19.4	15.8	24.3	n.s
6-Coordination between teaching, Res.&Admin.(U)	28.1	16.4	22.2	26.3	22.8	n.s
7- Faculty involvement in Uni. Administration	21.9	29.5	13.9	15.8	22.2	P < 0.031
8- The degree of fair treatment received	18.5	12.9	22.2	42.1	19.8	n.s
9- Secretarial support provided	10.9	6.6	50.0	31.6	19.4	P < 0.000
10- Communication with university authorities	24.6	8.2	22.2	21.1	18.2	P < 0.006
11- Policy formulation and impl. procedures	13.8	16.7	19.4	15.8	16.1	n.s
12-Academic-university administrators relations	16.9	3.2	13.9	0.0	9.9	n.s

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

(U) Unclassifiable factor

Quite why dons in the age range of (45-54) felt unhappy with clarity of their departmental role is somewhat difficult to interpret. This scenario, however, would seem to conform to the contention that this group is at the turning point in the life of academics, where they tend to appraise the realities of various facets of their job (Oshagbemi, 1998).

Interestingly, the general trend seems to suggest that while older respondents of (45+) years felt happy with departmental administration, their younger counterparts were more likely to derive satisfaction from institutional governance. Could it be that younger dons are probably still more hopeful of the rewards accruable from their performance and possibly more optimistic, so that as Fagbamiye (1981) concluded on Nigerian academics, they are not as yet negative in their attitude? Besides, this situation may well be explained by the undiminished enthusiasm of new entrants to the profession as reported in the UK by Oshagbemi (1998). Furthermore, older

academics satisfaction could suggest that as Ugandan dons age, either through (promotion or work experience), they tend to be assigned or requested to play more active roles in the department which, may well explain their happiness with secretarial support provided.

While younger respondents were more likely to derive satisfaction from communication with university authorities, and their involvement in institutional administration, older dons were more likely to signal happiness with secretarial support provided, number of meetings to attend, as with clarity of departmental role. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the five factors and not rejected for seven facets of governance (See Table 5.03). Overall, however, Ugandan academics in unison was disenchanted with governance, and there is lack of overwhelming evidence to show that age significantly influenced their governance satisfaction.

5.1.2 Satisfaction with other Aspects of the Academic Job

This section will explore the influence of age on academic satisfaction with respect to five aspects.

5.1.2.1 Age-Remuneration Satisfaction

The results in Table 5.04 confirm that while Ugandan academics were generally unhappy with their remuneration, younger dons (< 45 years) old (though not significant) were more likely to derive satisfaction from their present pay than older academics. One possibility could be that older dons, like many responsible Ugandan adults, tend to have more financial obligations particularly supporting the extended family, a typical scenario in the African set-up.

In contrast to younger respondents, older academics in age bracket of (45+) was more likely to derive satisfaction from their position on the pay scale. Could it be then, that in Ugandan universities satisfaction with position on pay scale is linear and positive?

Table 5.04: Academic Satisfaction with Remuneration by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1- Position on pay scale (U)	16.1	18.0	58.3	73.7	31.5	P < 0.000*
2-Salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	12.3	8.1	11.1	10.5	10.4	♣ n.s
3- Present pay, considering your skill and effort	10.8	12.9	5.6	5.3	9.9	n.s
4- Opportunities to retire with full benefits	1.6	12.9	17.1	0.0	8.4	P < 0.001
5- Your fringe benefits	6.2	6.6	11.4	10.5	7.8	n.s
6- The levels of compensation in your university	1.6	6.6	8.6	5.3	5.0	n.s
7- Material resources connected with your work	3.2	3.3	5.6	5.3	3.9	n.s
8- Your retirement benefits	1.6	4.9	2.9	0.0	2.8	P < 0.007

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

□ Factors with extrinsic elements

(U) Unclassifiable factor

One plausible explanation could be that older dons (perhaps through work experience and promotion) climb the salary scale and seem to be happy with that though the bone of contention lies in inadequate pay (See Table 5.04). One elderly don remarked,

“... I’m happy with my position on the pay scale. My major concern, however, perhaps like many colleagues, is inadequate pay, which obviously is not commensurate with my credentials...”

While retirement benefits are areas of major concern for all Ugandan academics, the (35-44) and (45-54) age groups were more likely to derive satisfaction from this factor than was the case with others, and the 55+ least satisfied. An inference might be that unlike others, dons close to retirement, are frustrated because they are very much aware that the prospects to retire with full benefits are remote, and the present package is laughable as one veteran observed.

Overall, respondents were more similar than different in their discontent with remuneration as discussed in the review (See Section 2.61; Chapter, 2). Accordingly, there is lack of compelling evidence to show that age has a significant influence on remuneration satisfaction of Ugandan academics. This view has been repeatedly

confirmed in the literature in Uganda (Kajubi, 1992; Ocitti, 1993; Passi, 1994), and in prior studies elsewhere (Altbach 1982; Boyer, et al., 1994; Oshagbemi, 1996) discussed earlier in (Section 4.3.1.1; Chapter, 4). These data reinforce Herzberg's conceptualisation that pay being *extrinsic* contributes to job dissatisfaction than satisfaction. Relative to the null hypothesis, only three significant at .05 level were confirmed. It can be seen that while older academics (45+) felt happy with position on pay scale, their younger counterparts were more likely to signal satisfaction with retirement benefits, and opportunities to retire with full pay. The null hypothesis, therefore, is rejected for the three factors and not rejected for five factors (See Table 5.04)

5.1.2.2 Age-Promotion Satisfaction

The analyses confirmed more contrasts than areas of commonalty (Table 5.05).

Table 5.05: Academic Satisfaction with Promotion by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1- Number of publications in promotion	27.7	48.4	74.3	73.7	48.6	P < 0.000*
2- Personal growth and development	41.5	33.9	44.4	63.2	41.8	♣ n.s
3- Quality of publications in promotion criteria	29.7	25.8	66.7	78.9	40.9	P < 0.000
4-Promotion prospects	20.0	30.6	42.9	68.4	33.1	P < 0.001
5- Your chances of getting ahead in the university	16.9	35.5	30.6	42.1	28.6	P < 0.032
6-Opportunities for professional development	23.1	21.0	33.3	52.6	27.5	n.s
7-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	18.5	17.7	22.2	57.9	23.1	P < 0.001
8-Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	3.4	16.1	24.2	50.0	16.9	P < 0.001
9- Recognition of achievements in university	10.9	18.0	22.2	15.8	16.1	n.s
10-Teaching skills in considering promotion	7.9	9.7	22.2	52.6	16.1	P < 0.005

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

□ Intrinsic factors

■ Factor with extrinsic elements

With the exception of academics under 35, other respondents were more likely to derive satisfaction from chances of getting ahead in the university. This situation could suggest that younger academics (< 35 years) old, despite the undiminished enthusiasm of fresh entrants to the profession (Oshagbemi, 1996) felt unhappy with the rigorous promotion criteria. In contrast to Herzberg's theory, therefore, we see

promotion opportunities an *intrinsic* factor contribute to job dissatisfaction. Indeed, one young participant noted,

“...I resent having to go through so many hurdles to get promoted, yet older staff in the past got it easily...Some professors here do not hold doctorates yet now it is a requirement among other things for one to be promoted to the rank of senior lecturer...”

Younger staff, therefore, felt that the rules of the game have been changed to their disadvantage. Many studies have found similar findings. Moses (1986) reported that Australian academics satisfaction with advancement was highly related to their perception of how much control they have over their work environment. Likewise, Enders and Teichler (1997) concluded that junior academics (majority of whom were young) expressed dissatisfaction with advancement opportunities inside academics.

Also, older academics were significantly more satisfied with quality and quantity of publications in promotion criteria, teaching skills in, as well as devotion to, and longevity of tenure in, promotion criteria than younger dons. This could well mean that in Ugandan universities, age has a linear and positive effect on promotion satisfaction. Indeed, there is compelling evidence to show that age has a significant influence on promotion satisfaction of Ugandan academics. These data suggest that the older academics are, the more satisfaction they tend to derive from promotion. Overall, while younger Ugandan dons were less likely to be satisfied with advancement opportunities inside academics, older academics (45+) years felt happy with the present promotion procedures, although many benefited from the old promotion criteria which was not as rigorous as the current one. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for seven factors and not rejected for three (See Table 5.05).

5.1.2.3 Age and Academic Supervision Satisfaction

The data confirmed more contrasts than areas of commonalty (Table 5.06). Perhaps rather surprisingly, dons in the age brackets of (< 35) and (55+) were more likely to derive satisfaction from supervisors success in getting people to work, and supervisors concern for task accomplishment than other age groups.

Table 5.06: Academic Satisfaction with Supervision by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1-The autonomy you have from your supervisor	67.7	62.9	44.1	73.7	62.2	n.s
2-The technical competence of your supervisor	56.9	49.2	76.5	78.9	60.3	♣ n.s
3-Your overall freedom on the job	47.7	59.7	74.3	73.7	59.7	P < 0.039*
4-Opportunities to do challenging work	54.7	43.5	71.4	89.5	57.8	P < 0.008
5-The responsibility you're are given to handle	49.2	46.8	71.4	84.2	56.4	P < 0.011
6- Your work time autonomy	60.3	61.3	32.4	63.2	55.6	n.s
7-The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	35.4	33.9	71.4	84.2	47.0	P < 0.000
8- Supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	33.8	36.1	57.1	78.9	43.9	P < 0.004
9-Supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	49.2	38.7	22.9	57.9	41.3	P < 0.007
10- Supervisor's success in getting people to work	52.3	31.1	17.1	63.2	39.4	P < 0.003
11-The overall quality of supervision you receive	38.5	36.1	25.7	42.1	35.6	n.s
12-Support & guidance received from supervisor	38.5	40.3	17.1	36.8	34.8	P < 0.007
13-Feedback from your supervisor	35.4	37.7	17.1	47.4	33.9	P < 0.003
14- The amount of close supervision	40.0	32.3	8.6	21.1	29.3	P < 0.004

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Findings on these factors would seem to suggest that among Ugandan academics, age-supervision satisfaction is U shaped. It is likely, therefore, that younger dons (< 35) years old are very satisfied with supervisors success in working through others to accomplish tasks. After 35, however, their happiness with their supervisors' success reduces and continues to decline till the age of 54. Nonetheless, toward retirement at (55+), their satisfaction with supervisors' success gains momentum and increases steadily.

This could well be that on commencement of their duties younger dons, as expected, need some guidance and supervision, which they receive through the departmental head or academic dean. Such support is presumably appreciated as reflected in the higher level of satisfaction (See Table 5.06). This situation could explain why

younger dons (< 45) years old were more likely to signal satisfaction with the support and guidance from supervisor, and amount of close supervision than older academics (See Table 5.06). As time goes by, however, dons through work experience gain some confidence in the performance of their duties, and subsequently seem to value less the guidance from their supervisors which negatively impacts on their level of satisfaction. Notwithstanding, toward retirement, (perhaps when most dons are playing more important roles as departmental heads or even faculty deans) they begin to appreciate their supervisory roles which is reflected in their happiness with accomplishing tasks successfully through others.

Older academics, however, expressed greater satisfaction with opportunities to do challenging work, the responsibility you're are given to handle, the freedom to try new ideas and programs, supervisors concern for staff welfare, and overall freedom on the job, than younger dons. By contrast, these data tend to suggest that age-supervision satisfaction among Ugandan academics is linear and positive. In other words, the older university teachers in Uganda are, the more satisfaction they tend to derive from these factors. One older respondent noted,

“...My delight comes as much from my role as dean as from being a senior academic and elder in this university...”

Could it be then, that older Ugandan academics expressed greater satisfaction with their overall freedom on the job, than their younger counterparts because some of them hold senior academic positions as well? Indeed, evidence exists to support the hypothesis that satisfaction with supervision is highly related to academics' perception of how much control they have over their work environment. Finkelstein (1984) reported that among American academics, those who experienced a high sense of autonomy were also more satisfied. Besides, age seems to impact positively on job satisfaction. Exploring employees in occupational health, Clark et al., (1996)

concluded that job satisfaction increased with chronological age. Similarly, Oshagbemi (1998) reported that older UK dons were more satisfied with their job than their younger counterparts.

Overall, in contrast to Herzberg's theory, respondents expressed satisfaction with supervision an *extrinsic* job aspect. Based on these data, age showed a predictive effect on academic supervision satisfaction. Indeed, younger dons were more satisfied with the support and guidance received from supervisors and the amount of close supervision than was the case with the (45+) respondents. Older dons, however, were more likely to derive satisfaction from the responsibility they are given to handle, opportunities for challenging work, freedom to try new ideas and programs, staff welfare by supervisor, and overall freedom on the job. Accordingly, the null hypothesis, is rejected for the ten factors and not rejected for four (See Table 5.06).

5.1.2.4 Age-Co-worker Satisfaction

The analyses revealed that Ugandan academics on the whole signalled considerable satisfaction with co-workers behaviour (Table 5.07).

Table 5.07: Academic Satisfaction with Co-workers Behaviour by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	<35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1-Your relationship with others	84.6	74.1	80.6	83.3	80.2	♣ n.s
2-The respect you earn from fellow employees	76.2	82.3	80.6	84.2	80.0	n.s
3-Confidence and trust you have in co-workers	64.6	71.0	69.4	94.7	70.9	n.s
4- The level of personal interest staff have in you	60.0	63.8	75.0	88.9	67.2	P < 0.021*
8- The value of meetings with colleagues at work	56.9	56.5	69.4	84.2	62.1	n.s
6-The sense of community in your university	55.6	45.2	72.2	68.4	56.7	n.s
7-The "social support" from colleagues at work	64.6	62.9	27.8	52.6	55.5	P < 0.000
8-Professional interaction at work	71.4	49.2	36.1	57.9	55.3	P < 0.005
9-Opportunities to get to know others	53.8	62.9	38.9	47.4	53.3	P < 0.005
10-The level of congeniality by colleagues at work	63.9	55.7	34.3	42.1	52.8	P < 0.012
11-Collegial relations in your faculty	50.0	64.5	27.8	63.2	51.9	P < 0.001
12-The degree of competence of co-workers	61.5	49.2	36.1	47.4	50.8	P < 0.000
13-The level of commitment by colleagues at work	56.9	54.8	22.2	47.4	48.4	P < 0.000
14-The degree of faculty morale	44.6	41.9	22.2	47.4	39.6	P < 0.016

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Indeed, with the exception of dons in the (45-54) age bracket, other academics expressed greater satisfaction with *extrinsic* facets of their job like collegial relations, support and commitment. Quite why academics in the age range of (45-54) were less likely to derive satisfaction from collegial relations is not easy to interpret. What would seem immediately clear, however, is that the dons in question as Oshagbemi (1998) suggested having appraised and appreciated the realities of different aspects of their job, would like to assert themselves as reputable academics, and feel that they not only deserve but merit promotion to very senior positions like senior lecturers, readers and professors.

It must, nevertheless, be said that both IUIU and MUK experience not only bans on recruitment without considering staffing needs, (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) but also have some ceiling on the number of senior lecturers and professorships. Thus, some dons (particularly in the age group of 45-54) who feel that they deserve to become senior lecturers and professors on the basis of merit tend to be denied such positions. Recognising that their expectations and aspirations are becoming more and more limited, such academics become disenchanted and withdrawn from others which tends to affect their satisfaction with collegial relations (See Table 5.07).

These data seem congruent with the notion that though not all interaction is satisfactory, frequency of social interaction in organisations is related to job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973). The findings are, however, rather worrying considering that Manger and Eikeland (1990) reported that among Norwegian academics, collegial relations predicted rather strongly intention to leave the university. Besides, these results tend to corroborate with prior research. Fagbamiye (1981) found that Nigerian academics that deserved but were denied promotion felt unhappy with collegial relations. In the same vein, professorial aspirants in Australia locked into systems

where only a certain percentage were allowed positions at different levels were more disenchanted than was the case with others (Imrie, 1983; Payne, 1983) cited in Moses (1986).

While Ugandan academics signalled satisfaction with co-worker behaviour, it is useful to highlight that younger respondents (< 45) years were more likely to derive satisfaction from competence and congeniality of co-workers, as with professional interaction. This situation may reflect that younger dons (majority of whom) tend to hold junior positions found it beneficial (for academic and professional advancement) to interact cordially with older and senior professionals at work.

Analogously, older academics were more likely to derive satisfaction from personal interest staff have in them than dons under 45. This scenario could suggest that older respondents felt happier with the interest co-workers have in them perhaps because the majority tend to hold senior positions, and are recognised as elders and opinion leaders in university communities. Siassi et al., (1975) found that as a result of greater stability and ego strength, older workers were more satisfied than younger ones. Besides, more seniority and work experience accorded older workers greater satisfaction (Mottaz 1987). Based on these data, thus, there is substantial evidence to show that age has a significant influence on academic co-worker satisfaction. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for nine factors and not rejected for five (See Table 5.07).

5.1.2.5 Age and Working Facilities Satisfaction

Relative to age-working environment satisfaction, respondents feelings were more different than similar (Table 5.08). Indeed, with respect to proximity to university, the results reported a positive age effect. From the data, it would seem that the older a Ugandan don is, the more satisfaction he or she tends to derive from distance between

university and place of residence. This may well be explained by the housing allocation policy in IUIU and MUK. The views of one participant seem telling,

“...The housing policy of awarding points to applicants basing on seniority and experience tends to favour older academicians...”

Older dons, therefore, felt happier with proximity to university perhaps because many of them were allocated houses that were within or close to their campuses.

Table 5.08: Academic Satisfaction with Working Environment by Age (n=182)

Factor	Age					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 6)
	< 35 (n=65)	35-44 (n=62)	45-54 (n=36)	55+ (n=19)	All ages	
1-The geographical location of the university	73.8	69.4	88.6	84.2	76.2	♣n.s
2- Being associated with your university	61.5	56.5	77.8	78.9	64.8	n.s
3- Distance between university and your residence	46.9	66.1	80.6	89.5	64.6	P < 0.011*
4-The freedom of your life style	42.2	48.4	75.0	68.4	53.6	P < 0.009
5-The beauty of the campus you work in	42.2	38.7	69.4	73.7	49.7	P < 0.014
6- The obtaining social environment	39.7	32.3	60.0	78.9	45.3	P < 0.006
7-Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	38.5	30.6	30.6	47.4	35.2	P < 0.020
8- Space for you to work during non-teaching time	28.6	21.0	60.0	42.1	33.5	P < 0.006
9- The feeling of security	30.8	41.9	22.2	21.1	31.9	n.s
10- The intellectual stimulation of your university	29.2	14.5	30.6	47.4	26.4	P < 0.003
11- Clerical and technical assistance offered	15.6	8.1	63.9	26.3	23.8	P < 0.000
12-Your access to computer and library facilities	20.3	16.1	8.3	10.5	15.5	n.s
13- The environment in which you work	21.5	8.1	13.9	21.1	15.4	n.s
14- The overall research facilities available	11.1	4.9	2.8	10.5	7.3	n.s
15-Facilities for relaxation	10.8	1.6	11.4	5.3	7.2	n.s

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

While there were no significant differences among Ugandan academics with of all age groups with respect to the working environment, it is notable that older respondents (45+) expressed significant satisfaction with the obtaining social environment, the beauty of the campus, space availability, freedom of life style, proximity to, and intellectual stimulation of, the university.

Elsewhere, Enders and Teichler (1997) found that junior European dons (majority of who tend to be young) rated their satisfaction with working conditions lower than senior colleagues did. Does this suggest that older employees appreciate the rewards the work can provide more than their younger counterparts as observed by (Rhodes, 1983; Lee and Wilbur, 1985)? If the above conceptualisation merits attention, it

tenable to infer that older workers may simply gain esteem by virtue of the length of time spent in the job (DeSantis and Durst, 1996), and thus express greater satisfaction with the working conditions than younger employees because they tend to expect less (Clark et al., 1996).

Overall, there is evidence to suggest that age has a significant influence on academic satisfaction with working facilities. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for eight factors and not rejected for seven factors (See Table 5.08).

5.2 Factors Contributory to Academic Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Age: Free Response Data

Using the same analysis as in (Section 4.4.1.1; Chapter, 4), the responses of academics relative to factors contributory to their satisfaction and dissatisfaction with eight job aspects by age were obtained.

5.2.1 Satisfaction Responses

Satisfaction responses were grouped according to age. Each percentage was calculated using as a total the maximum number of dons for each age group that had made a response to the satisfaction component of the question.

Table 5.09: Distribution of Satisfaction Responses based on Job Aspect and Percentage of Respondents mentioning Factor (n=138)

Job Aspect	Factor	Respondents by Age	
		(< 45) % of 101	(45+) % of 37
Teaching	Supervision/guidance of students	32	68
	Relationship with students	71	26
	Autonomy in content taught	49	74
Research	Intellectual freedom	11	63
Supervision	Work time autonomy	36	59
Co-workers	Collegial relations/support	67	48
	Respect earned	23	61
Miscellaneous		04	09

For ease of analysis, however, respondents were categorised in two groups notably < 45 and > 45 years old. Given space limitations, only results of interest will be reported. A summary of satisfaction responses based on percentage of respondents by age can be viewed in Table 5.09.

The most frequently mentioned source of satisfaction was related to autonomy in content taught, supervision and working with students. Consistent with interview and Likert scale data, while older academics were more likely to mention *intrinsic* factors of teaching and research, their younger counterparts felt happier with *extrinsic* facets like relationship with students, as with collegial relations.

Based on these data, it would seem that younger academics find some novelty in working with students. As dons ascend the academic ladder, however, this novelty fades and, as each year passes, relationships formed with students are no longer something new and central to the job. Moreover, as the academics get older, the broadening age gap between themselves and students reduces the possibility or even the wish to form closer relationships with them that a younger academic may have desired. Arguably, relationships with students continue to be seen as important by older dons but are a reduced source of active satisfaction.

5.2.1.1 Dissatisfaction Responses

Likewise, the responses of academics concerning factors that caused them dissatisfaction were categorised into job aspects presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Distribution of Dissatisfaction Responses based on Job Aspect and Percentage of Respondents mentioning Factor (n=159)

Job Aspect	Factor	Respondents by Age	
		(< 45) % of 116	(45+) % of 43
Teaching	Size of class(es) taught	31	39
	Instructional facilities	46	61
Research	Research grants and facilities	59	37
	Recognition of research	41	27
Governance	Institutional administration	28	66
Remuneration	Salary	54	67
	Fringe benefits	23	31
Promotion	Teaching skills in promotion	51	29
Miscellaneous		04	03

It can be observed firstly that more factors were forthcoming than was the case in satisfaction categories. These findings tend to chime with the evidence produced by

Nias et. al., (1981) that the variety and number of factors causing dissatisfaction in teachers outweighed those causing satisfaction.

The trend of dissatisfaction largely concurred with the data elicited in Likert scale and interview. Relative to teaching, older academics felt more disenchanted than younger dons with *extrinsic* factors like class size, as with instructional resources as reported in (Section 5.1.1.1; Chapter, 5).

Interestingly, as discussed in (Section 5.1.1.2; Chapter, 5), older dons showed less discontent with *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* facets of research like grants and recognition of research. Contrary to Herzberg's theory, younger academics evoked more dissatisfaction from undervaluing of teaching in promotion, an *intrinsic* factor. Consistent with (Section 5.1.1.3 and 5.1.2.1; Chapter, 5), older dons more than their younger counterparts, felt disillusioned with *extrinsic* factors like institutional governance, as with salary. Based on the Likert scale, interview and free-response data, thus, the factors that contributed most to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction by age were identified. Table 5.11 is a summary of these factors.

Table 5.11: Factors Contributing most to Ugandan Academics Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Age

Job Aspect	Satisfaction factors by (> 50%) of respondents		Dissatisfaction factors by (> 50%) of respondents	
	(<45) years old	(45+) years old	(<45) years old	(45+) years old
Teaching	Student relationship	Autonomy in content taught Student supervision	None	Instructional facilities
Research	None	Intellectual freedom	Grants and facilities	None
Governance	None	None	None	Institutional administration
Remuneration	None	None	Salary	Salary
Promotion	None	None	Teaching skills in promotion	None
Supervision	None	Work time autonomy	None	None
Co-workers	Collegial relations	Respect earned	None	None

5.01 Summary

In all, the influence of age on satisfaction with respect to eight aspects of the academic job has been examined and discussed. Relative to age-teaching satisfaction, while younger respondents were more likely to derive satisfaction from *extrinsic*

factors, their older counter parts evoked satisfaction from *intrinsic* facets of teaching. Research evidence, thus, indicates that age has a significant influence on teaching satisfaction. While there was considerable misgivings with research, it is useful to note that older Ugandan academics were more likely to derive satisfaction from both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors. Consequently, age showed predictive effect on research satisfaction. Consistent with the research literature, all age groups felt unhappy with institutional governance. Age, however, showed no overwhelming effect on academic satisfaction with institutional governance.

Though older dons were more likely to express satisfaction with position on pay scale, it is useful to note that no overriding age differences in academic satisfaction with remuneration were observed. By contrast, age showed predictive influence on academic satisfaction with promotion. While younger dons rated favourably the support and guidance received from supervisor, it is useful to highlight that there was compelling evidence to show that age influences academic supervision satisfaction.

5.3 Hypothesis 2: There are no statistically significant differences among academics of different gender regarding the factors contributing to their satisfaction with respect to 8 aspects of the academic job i.e. (Teaching, Research, Governance, Remuneration, Promotion, Supervision, Co-workers, and Working Environment).

5.3.1 Gender and Academic Satisfaction with Primary Duties

This section will explore the effect of gender on academic satisfaction with teaching, research and administration. While male and female respondents felt happy with *intrinsic* factors, it is notable that men, more than women, were more likely to express satisfaction with *extrinsic* facets of teaching. This finding though consistent with the evidence produced by Mwamwenda (1994) on teacher gender-satisfaction in

Transkei, is at variance with (Olsen et al, 1992; Poole, et al., 1997) findings that women, more than men, in USA derived satisfaction from their teaching roles.

5.3.1.1 Gender-Teaching Satisfaction

Five significant differences were evident as illustrated in (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12: Academic Satisfaction with Teaching by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1-Interest shown by students in courses you teach	92.3	97.5	93.4	♣ n.s
2-Course(s) taught in relation to training	93.0	87.5	91.8	n.s
3-Degree of autonomy in content taught	84.4	89.7	85.6	n.s
4-Time allocated for a lecture	82.4	60.0	77.5	P < 0.006*
5-Teacher-student relationship	77.5	75.0	76.9	n.s
6-Supervision of student projects	56.4	42.1	53.4	n.s
7-Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	50.7	42.5	48.9	n.s
8-Marking answer scripts	51.4	27.5	46.2	P < 0.007
9-The size of class(es) taught	48.6	35.0	45.5	n.s
10-Teaching load	46.5	37.5	44.5	n.s
11-Procedures for course evaluation	42.3	17.5	36.8	P < 0.001
12-Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	39.4	23.7	36.1	P < 0.010
13-The quality of student intake	38.7	25.0	35.7	n.s
14-Departmental strategy on teaching	36.2	33.3	35.6	P < 0.016
15-Quality of tutorials you conduct/conducted	38.1	18.4	33.9	n.s
16-Recognition of teaching skills in your university	17.7	23.7	19.0	n.s
17-Instructional materials available for teaching	11.3	22.5	13.7	n.s
18-Library facilities for teaching	10.6	12.5	11.0	n.s

* Significant at .05 level ♣ n.s not significant (U) Unclassified factor
 Intrinsic factors Factors with extrinsic elements

The researcher contends that such variations could be due to cultural and contextual differences because societal perception and roles of women in the industrialised world tend to differ from the African conceptualisation of women (Nassali-Lukwago, 1998). Indeed, in contrast to women, men derived more satisfaction from *extrinsic* factors of teaching like procedures for course evaluation, as with time allocated for a lecture. An inference might be that Ugandan women because of family-work conflict have less time to invest in teaching. This could perhaps explain why female respondents were less likely to express satisfaction with marking answer scripts (Table 5.12). Explained one woman,

“...Unlike, male colleagues, I have extra responsibilities as a mother and wife which eat up some of my valuable time...”

Sufficiently comparable, Olsen et al., (1992) reported that some USA women academics who had kids felt that they gave graduate students less time than they deserved. Could it be then, as contended by Toren (1993: 439) that women have “less time, energy, and commitment to invest in their professional careers and are therefore less productive scientifically than men?” Or does this suggest that males are socialised to value strength, be it physical or mental, and independence more highly than females as observed by Brandon (2000)? It is likely, therefore, that women dons more than men, tend to have less time to invest in teaching, and perhaps because of this, women on the whole, spend more time preparing for teaching (Davis and Astin, 1990).

Additionally, Ugandan women, perhaps as elsewhere, are under represented in academia (See Table 4.02; Chapter, 4). Indeed, academia is traditionally elitist, male and patriarchal in its workplace culture, structure and values (Sutherland, 1994; Caplan, 1994). Ugandan women dons, thus, unlike comparable men, are less well integrated into their academic departments and disciplines as reflected in their lower satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors of teaching like procedures for course evaluation, and departmental strategy (See Table 5.12). Moreover, these results accord with prior research. In USA, O’Leary and Mitchell (1990) found that women lacked mentors and networks which inhibited their professional integration and productivity particularly in information exchange, and access to visibility.

Overall, while both genders felt happy with *intrinsic* factors, it is useful to note that men were more likely to evoke satisfaction from *extrinsic* facets of teaching like procedures for course evaluation, time allocated for a lecture, departmental strategy, as with student feedback on courses taught, and marking answer scripts. Accordingly,

the null hypothesis is rejected for the five factors and not rejected for thirteen (Table 5.12).

5.3.1.2 Gender and Research Satisfaction

More men than women were satisfied with *extrinsic* factors like research time available, and time available for personal development, an *intrinsic* factor (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13: Academic Satisfaction with Research by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1-Academic freedom to research and publish	54.6	50.0	53.6	♣ n.s
2- Recognition of research in university	40.8	27.5	37.9	n.s
3-Time for independent thought	41.8	12.5	35.4	P < 0.003*
4- Time available for personal development	33.3	7.5	27.6	P < 0.003
5-Research time available	30.5	15.0	27.1	P < 0.043
6-The quality of university intellectual life	23.9	15.0	22.0	n.s
7-Pressure to publish	18.6	25.0	20.0	n.s
8- Opportunities for consultancy work	21.3	10.0	18.8	n.s
9-Becoming famous through publications	19.0	10.0	17.0	n.s
10-Opportunities to set up research seminars	14.1	15.0	14.3	n.s
11-Opportunities to write and publish	16.9	5.0	14.3	n.s
12-The passion for research	12.9	7.9	11.8	n.s
13-The availability of sabbatical programmes	8.7	15.0	10.1	n.s
14-Library facilities for research	4.9	2.5	4.4	n.s
15-Adequacy of research funds	3.6	2.6	3.4	n.s
16-Time spent in obtaining research grants	2.2	2.5	2.2	n.s

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

□ Intrinsic factors

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Does this suggest that because of family-work conflict, Ugandan women don't tend to have less time for research as with teaching (See Section 5.2.11; Chapter, 5)? Or could it be as (Poole et al., 1997) found that men, more than women, in the countries surveyed appeared to be more positively oriented towards research? The patriarchal character of most Ugandan societies (Nassali-Lukwago, 1998) where, domestic chores are entirely a women domain could also account for the above scenario.

Interestingly, these data accord with the notion that the job model and career structure of research which require long hours are often assumed incompatible with the dual

responsibilities of women (Collings, 1992 in Poole et al., 1997). For instance, in USA children cost some women academics a couple of articles a year (Olsen, et al., 1992; Olsen, et al., 1995). Additionally, evidence exists to suggest that Ugandan societies consider gender as not only important for prestige and status, but men and women are assigned different roles (Ntagali, 1992). Consequently, Ugandan women, unlike men, seem to have lower levels of reputational standing which tends to impact negatively on societal perception of their scholarly works. This situation could perhaps well explain why women were less likely than men to derive satisfaction from recognition and becoming famous through research and publications (Table 5.13). Elsewhere, studies suggest that women's research more often than not is evaluated as deficient in quality. For instance, in USA, not only do women publish on average less than comparable men (Cole and Zuckerman, 1984) in Poole et al., (1997), but strangely, even if women's research performance is comparable it can still be evaluated as less worthy or valued in the academic work place (Cole, 1979). Surprisingly, women academics in USA are rarely cited as having made scholarly contributions (Billard, 1993; Toren, 1993). Arguably, the gendered nature of academic work, coupled with the masculine character of the Ugandan society could have influenced women rating of research satisfaction.

While male dons expressed significant satisfaction with time available for research, personal development, as with independent thought, it's important to highlight that, on the whole, there was no compelling evidence to show that gender has any influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction with research. The null hypothesis, however, is rejected for the three factors and not rejected for thirteen (See Table 5.13).

5.3.1.3 Gender and Academic Governance Satisfaction

Statistically significant differences were evident only in two out of the 12 factors on governance (Table 5.14). While male respondents were significantly satisfied with institutional policy formulation procedures and time spent on administrative duties, it can be seen that both men and women academics felt unhappy with governance.

These data are consistent with Herzberg's contention that *extrinsic* factors of the job lead to job dissatisfaction. This situation could suggest that because Ugandan male dons, unlike comparable females, have relatively more time to invest in teaching and research (See Section 5.1.2.1&5.1.1.2; Chapter, 5), they were similarly happier with time spent on administrative duties.

Table 5.14: Academic Satisfaction with Governance by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1- Clarity concerning your role in the department	57.4	51.3	56.1	♣ n.s
2-Influence in departmental administration	36.2	32.5	35.4	n.s
3-The number of meetings to attend	33.8	27.5	32.4	n.s
4-Clarity of institutional mission	32.4	20.0	29.6	n.s
5-Time spent on administrative duties	26.6	15.8	24.3	P < 0.012*
6-Coordination between teaching, Res.&Adm. (U)	24.3	17.5	22.8	n.s
7-Faculty involvement in Uni. Administration	22.7	20.5	22.2	n.s
8-The degree of fair treatment received	19.7	20.0	19.8	n.s
9-Secretarial support provided	22.9	7.5	19.4	n.s
10-Communication with university authorities	19.1	15.0	18.2	n.s
11-Policy formulation and impl. procedures	14.3	22.5	16.1	P < 0.044
12-Academic-university administrators relations	11.3	5.0	9.9	n.s

* Significant at .05 level

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

♣ n.s not significant

(U) Unclassifiable factor

Does this suggest that family-work conflict tends to limit the presence and participation of Ugandan women in institutional governance? Or could it be that the organisational culture of Ugandan universities is not women friendly? Said one woman,

“...Being underrepresented in MUK tends to make us less significant...In this faculty not even a single woman is a head of department...and there is a tendency to look down upon women's views...”

This finding may perhaps explain why women respondents were more disillusioned with their relationship with university administrators, as with secretarial support provided than comparable men (Table 5.14) were.

Strikingly, it is documented by research that women dons work in hostile environments and perhaps, because of this, tend to derive less satisfaction from administrative duties. Farley (1990) reported that doing so much of the work on campus, and having so little voice in policy disenchanted USA women academics. Likewise, Hawkins and Schultz (1990) found that in Netherlands and West Germany, women were less likely to be appointed to powerful committees at their universities. Other studies have reported women avoiding administrative duties. For instance, in Australia women dons avoid administrative roles because these positions are more managerial than educational (Limerick and Lingard, 1995). Based on these data, therefore, Ugandan women dons, perhaps like elsewhere, felt uncomfortable with time spent on administrative duties because of working in environments that tend to be patriarchal in structure and values, and seem to exclude or not fully integrate them into formal and informal structures of their universities.

While men expressed significant satisfaction with policy matters, and administrative issues, it is useful to highlight that consistent with evidence-informed data, both genders were disenchanted with institutional governance. In general, study findings revealed that Ugandan men and women dons overlapped broadly in their dissatisfaction with governance. Consequently, there is lack of evidence to support that gender has a significant influence on governance satisfaction. The null hypothesis, however, is rejected for the two factors and not rejected for ten facets (See Table 5.14).

5.4.1 Gender and Academic Satisfaction with other Duties

This section will examine the influence of gender on five job aspects of Ugandan dons.

5.4.1.1 Gender-Remuneration Satisfaction

While men more than women respondents signalled significant satisfaction with pay scale, it is notable that both genders expressed pervasive discontent with their remuneration (Table 5.15). This was expected considering the discussion in the review (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter, 2) and study findings in (Section 4.3.1.1; Chapter, 4). Does this suggest that remuneration being an *extrinsic* aspect leads to job dissatisfaction as conceptualised by Herzberg? Moreover, prior studies have elicited similar evidence. (Fagbamiye, 1981; Boyer et al., 1994; Oshagbemi, 1998) (See Section 4.3.1.1; Chapter, 4).

Table 5.15: Academic Satisfaction with Remuneration by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1- Position on pay scale (U)	37.0	12.5	31.5	P < 0.007*
2-Salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	9.2	15.0	10.4	♣ n.s
3- Present pay, considering your skill and effort	8.5	15.0	9.9	n.s
4- Opportunities to retire with full benefits	6.5	15.4	8.4	n.s
5- Your fringe benefits	7.1	10.0	7.8	n.s
6- The levels of compensation in your university	5.8	2.5	5.0	n.s
7- Material resources connected with your work	4.3	2.5	3.9	n.s
8- Your retirement benefits	1.5	7.7	2.8	n.s

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

(U) Unclassifiable factor

Relative to remuneration satisfaction, therefore, there were more similarities than contrasts among Ugandan academics. More women than men, however, were less discontent (though not significant) with their salary and retirement benefits. Does this suggest that women rated their academic salary higher than men because of their privileged status considering that over 60% of women in Uganda (World Bank, 1993) do not go beyond primary cycle? Besides, traditions and customary values of most Ugandan societies that require men as Ntagali (1992) reported to meet family

obligations regardless of whether their spouses are in paid employment or not could also explain this scenario. One woman commented,

“...I’m not very happy with my pay...but my delight comes when I compare myself with fellow women in Uganda...Luckily, I’m married and my husband as you might be aware takes care of family expenses...”

Arguably, responding women, unlike men, were more likely to signal satisfaction with their salary because they are not obliged as is customary to shoulder family expenses.

Surprisingly, considering that academic salaries in Uganda are equal for the same rank regardless of gender, male respondents were significantly satisfied with position on pay scale than comparable females. Could it be then, that gender-linked differences exist in the distribution of rewards among Ugandan academics? There would seem, as the research literature suggests, to be more constraints by female academics that could explain this situation. Toren (1990) argued that though academia has a fundamentally egalitarian and collegial ethos, the academic labour market is segregated and sex-typed. Does this suggest that under-representation of women in academia impact on their perception of rewards and working conditions? Indeed, exploring academics in eight countries, Poole et al., (1997: 375) produced evidence to show that women on average receive not only fewer rewards than comparable men but are paid lower salaries. Arguably, Ugandan women academics discontent with pay scale could be explained by their being under-represented and less integrated into formal and informal structures of academia.

Based on these data, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for one factor-position on pay scale, and not rejected for seven factors (See Table 5.15). It must, nevertheless, be stressed that there is lack of compelling evidence to support a gender influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction with remuneration.

5.4.1.2 The Influence of Gender on Promotion

Ugandan men and women academics overlapped broadly in their satisfaction with promotion (Table 5.16). Indeed, there were only two significant differences notably, male respondents were satisfied with recognition of achievement in university, as with number of publications in promotion criteria. An inference might be that because of family-work conflict, (See Section, 5.3.1.2; Chapter, 5) women had comparatively less time for research, and as a result felt unhappy with the number of publications in promotion criteria. Said one woman,

“...To be promoted to the rank of senior lecturer, among other things one has to publish three articles in recognised journals, yet research facilities are inadequate. Funding is uncertain...My teaching load is heavy not to mention domestic chores...I simply cannot get ample time for research...”

Also, more men than women, derived significant satisfaction from recognition of achievements in university. This is not surprising considering the masculine character of Ugandan societies discussed in (Section 5.2.1.2; Chapter, 5), and the male and patriarchal nature of academia in general (Caplan, 1994; Sutherland, 1994).

Table 5.16: Academic Satisfaction with Promotion by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1-Number of publications in promotion	51.1	40.0	48.6	P < 0.013*
2- Personal growth and development	41.5	42.5	41.8	♣ n.s
3- Quality of publications in promotion criteria	44.0	30.0	40.9	n.s
4-Promotion prospects	33.3	32.5	33.1	n.s
5- Your chances of getting ahead in the university	26.8	35.0	28.6	n.s
6- Opportunities for professional development	27.5	27.5	27.5	n.s
7-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	23.2	22.5	23.1	n.s
8- Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	18.0	13.2	16.9	n.s
9- Recognition of achievements in university	16.3	15.4	16.1	P < 0.003
10- Teaching skills in considering promotion	16.4	15.0	16.1	n.s

* Significant at .05 level

♣ n.s not significant

□ Intrinsic factors

■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Arguably, if Ugandan women don't, unlike men, have less time for research (a major determinant of performance and recognition in academia), it is unsurprising that they were less likely to derive satisfaction from promotion. Sufficiently comparable, Poole

et al., (1997) reported that women in countries surveyed not only held lower ranks, but also were promoted at a slower pace. Rather surprisingly, even when women are matched with men on the rate of publication, they still receive less reward and move up the academic ladder at a slower pace (Toren, 1990: 75 cited in Poole et al. 1997). In contrast to Herzberg's conceptualisation, therefore, we see promotion an *intrinsic* aspect of the job contributing to academic dissatisfaction.

Overall, while male respondents evoked significant satisfaction from recognition of achievements in university, as with number of publications in promotion criteria, it must be stressed that from the data, there is lack of compelling evidence to support a gender influence on promotion satisfaction. The null hypothesis, however, is rejected for the two factors, and not rejected for 8 factors (See Table 5.16).

5.4.1.3 Gender and Supervision Satisfaction

The analyses confirmed ten similarities and three contrasts between both genders (Table 5.17).

Table 5.17: Academic Satisfaction with Supervision by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1-The autonomy you have from your supervisor	62.1	62.5	62.2	♣ n.s
2-The technical competence of your supervisor	62.6	52.5	60.3	n.s
3- Your overall freedom on the job	59.6	60.0	59.7	n.s
4-Opportunities to do challenging work	57.1	60.0	57.8	n.s
5-The responsibility you're are given to handle	58.2	50.0	56.4	n.s
6- Your work time autonomy	55.1	57.5	55.6	P < 0.027*
7- The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	46.8	47.5	47.0	n.s
8- Supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	47.9	30.0	43.9	P < 0.004
9-Supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	45.4	26.3	41.3	n.s
10- Supervisor's success in getting people to work	39.3	40.0	39.4	n.s
11- The overall quality of supervision you receive	37.9	27.5	35.6	n.s
12-Support & guidance received from supervisor	33.3	40.0	34.8	n.s
13-Feedback from your supervisor	35.0	30.0	33.9	n.s
14- The amount of close supervision	29.8	27.5	29.3	P < 0.020

* Significant at .05 level ♣ n.s not significant ■ Factors with extrinsic elements

More male dons than comparable females, however, were significantly satisfied with close supervision, as with supervisor's concern for staff welfare. This scenario seems

to accord with study findings that gender is a powerful factor in relation to processes operating within workplace practices (See Section 5.2.1.1; Chapter, 5).

Does this suggest that men, in contrast to women, felt relatively happy with the welfare and amount of supervision provided by fellow men? Said one woman,

“...There is some kind of discrimination we face here...While men have informal gatherings where department issues are even deliberated on, women have to wait for formal settings where we are under-represented to raise concerns...”

Men, in contrast to women, therefore, were more likely to signal satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors like welfare and amount of supervision provided by fellow men because of the social support they received. Indeed, O’Leary and Mitchell (1990) reported that while men academics in USA were inducted into their professional world under the tutelage of male models and mentors, comparable women relied on the process of acculturation, as they don’t have access to women models and mentors.

Women academics, however, evoked substantial satisfaction with work time autonomy than comparable men. An inference might be that if women academics as this research has shown tend to avoid administrative duties (See Section 5.3.1.3; Chapter, 5), then it is likely that they would derive more satisfaction from work time autonomy than men. This could perhaps explain why women more than men, felt happier with freedom to try new ideas and programmes, as with overall freedom on the job (Table 5.17).

Overall, in contrast to Herzberg’s dichotomy, Ugandan academics signalled satisfaction with supervision, an *extrinsic* aspect of the job. While women evoked substantial satisfaction from work time autonomy, it is useful to stress that men were significantly satisfied with supervisor’s concern for staff welfare, as with close supervision. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the three factors and not rejected for 11 factors (Table 5.17). It is potentially instructive to note, nonetheless,

that there is lack of overwhelming evidence to show a gender influence on academic supervision satisfaction.

5.4.1.4 Gender and Co-worker Behaviour Satisfaction

Respondents' satisfactions with their co-workers were more similar than different. It can be seen that Ugandan men and women academics rated their satisfaction with co-worker behaviour highly (Table 5.18). This finding is at variance with Herzberg's dichotomy where, we see interpersonal relationship, an *extrinsic* aspect of the academic job contributing to job satisfaction.

Though it was likely for female dons to evoke more morale, as with collegial congeniality, comparable males expressed significant satisfaction at the .05 level with the value of collegial meetings, opportunities to know others, confidence and trust in co-workers, as with personal interest shown by staff.

Table 5.18: Academic Satisfaction with Co-workers by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
1- Your relationship with others	81.2	76.9	80.2	♣ n.s
2- The respect you earn from fellow employees	82.4	71.1	80.0	n.s
3- Confidence and trust you have in co-workers	75.4	55.0	70.9	P < 0.043*
4- The level of personal interest staff have in you	71.7	51.3	67.2	P < 0.046
5- The value of meetings with colleagues at work	68.3	40.0	62.1	P < 0.005
6- The sense of community in your university	59.2	47.4	56.7	n.s
7- The "social support" from colleagues at work	57.0	50.0	55.5	n.s
8- Professional interaction at work	58.2	44.7	55.3	n.s
9- Opportunities to get to know others	59.2	32.5	53.3	P < 0.009
10-congeniality by colleagues at work	51.4	57.9	52.8	n.s
11-Collegial relations in your faculty	53.2	47.5	51.9	n.s
12- The degree of competence of co-workers	51.8	47.5	50.8	n.s
13- Commitment by colleagues at work	49.3	45.0	48.4	n.s
14-The degree of faculty morale	39.4	40.0	39.6	n.s

* Significant at .05 level ♣ n.s not significant ■ Factors with extrinsic elements

Does this suggest as adduced in the literature that women dons appear to have inner motivation and largely self-determined professional objectives? Indeed, Olsen et al., (1992) reported that USA women, more than comparable men, were satisfied with the personally and intellectually enriching nature of an academic position. It would seem,

therefore, that despite working in a world for which their socialisation does not prepare them (O’Leary and Mitchell, 1990), and the gendered nature of academic work (Poole et al., 1997), women rated their satisfaction with collegial congeniality and morale slightly higher than men. One woman spoke of the source of her delight,

“...Against all odds...I’m one of the very few lucky women in Uganda who has managed to join this profession which I consider a male preserve...That I think keeps me upbeat...”

Analogously, men more than women felt happier with collegial relations and integration. This situation is unsurprising considering the male and patriarchal nature of academia in its work place culture, structure and values (Caplan, 1994; Sutherland, 1994). Indeed, it emerged during interviews that women were underrepresented. Similar views emerged during interviews, to the extent that one respondent described his discipline as a male world.

Based on these data, therefore, while Ugandan male dons felt freer to integrate and participate in departmental business, comparable females were constrained by their gender from full participation. This scenario could perhaps explain why women were less likely to evoke satisfaction with opportunities to get to know others (Table 5.18). Elsewhere, Baldwin (1985) provided evidence that Australian women dons were often shut out of the *networks*, which seemed to be the main vehicle for induction into the professional academic life. Sufficiently comparable, O’Leary and Mitchell (1990:59) found among USA academics the *invisible college* whose members functioned as gatekeepers to the extent that even those women who attended meetings reported fewer productive conversations leading to collaboration. In West Germany and Netherlands, Hawkins and Sebultz (1990) reported that while men were encouraged to reach their full potential by their professors, comparable females had none to induct them into the fabric of academic life. Arguably, Ugandan women under-

representation in academia (perhaps as elsewhere) impacted on their satisfaction with collegial participation and integration.

Overall, based on these data, there would seem to be some evidence to suggest that gender does influence academic satisfaction with co-workers. Indeed, while Ugandan academics felt happy with collegial relations, men more than women, rated their satisfaction with getting to know others, collegial trust and confidence, personal interest shown, as with the value of collegial meetings, significantly higher. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the four factors and not rejected for ten (See Table 5.18).

5.4.1.5 Gender and Working Conditions Satisfaction

Not unexpectedly, considering the plight of Ugandan academics (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2), and consistent with Herzberg's theory, respondents evoked pervasive discontent with *extrinsic* factors of working environment like instructional and relaxation facilities (Table 5.19).

Table 5.19: Academic Satisfaction with Working Environment by Gender (n=182)

Factor	Gender			χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 2)
	Male (n=142)	Female (n= 40)	Both	
1-The geographical location of the university	74.5	82.5	76.2	♣ n.s
2- Being associated with your university	62.7	72.5	64.8	n.s
3- Distance between university and your residence	65.2	62.5	64.6	n.s
4- The freedom of your life style	54.2	51.3	53.6	n.s
5- The beauty of the campus you work in	52.5	40.0	49.7	n.s
6- The obtaining social environment	47.1	38.5	45.3	n.s
7- Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	29.6	55.0	35.2	P < 0.006*
8- Space for you to work during non-teaching time	36.0	25.0	33.5	n.s
9- The feeling of security	33.1	27.5	31.9	n.s
10- The intellectual stimulation of your university	26.8	25.0	26.4	n.s
11-Clerical and technical assistance offered	27.0	12.5	23.8	n.s
12-Your access to computer and library facilities	17.7	7.5	15.5	n.s
13- The environment in which you work	16.9	10.0	15.4	n.s
14- The overall research facilities available	7.9	5.0	7.3	n.s
15-Facilities for relaxation	8.5	2.5	7.2	P < 0.047

* Significant at .05 level ♣ n.s not significant ■ Factors with extrinsic elements

While dons' satisfactions with working conditions were more similar than different, it is useful to stress that women more than men, derived significant satisfaction at the .05 level from day-to-day enjoyment on the job.

Analogously, men were highly likely to evoke satisfaction from relaxation facilities than comparable women. It could well be that women dons, unlike comparable men, perhaps because of (their privileged status considering the worrying plight of the bulk Ugandan women) and more so, having penetrated a profession that some considered a male preserve, rated their enjoyment on the job more favourably (See Table 5.19).

Does this suggest that women perceive their working conditions more positively in terms of *intrinsic-subjective* satisfaction as opposed to male assessment based more on the *extrinsic-objective* of status, salary and conditions as found among Australian academics by Poole and Langan-Fox (1996)?

While there were no major discrepancies perceived between Ugandan men and women dons with respect to working conditions, two factors stand out as discriminating. Consistent with the research literature, women had a more positive attitude with respect to the enjoyment on the job. On the other hand, men more than women were likely to rate their satisfaction with instructional and relaxation facilities higher. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the two factors and not rejected for 13 factors (See Table 5.19). It must, nevertheless, be stressed that the data confirmed lack of compelling evidence to support a gender influence on working environment satisfaction.

5.5 Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Gender: Free Response Data

As with age, sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors were partitioned between male and female academics. Consistent with Nias et. al., (1981) evidence, and reflective of the worrying plight of Ugandan academics (See Section 2.6.2;

Chapter, 2), more dissatisfaction than satisfaction factors were forthcoming. Given space limitations, only results of interest will be reported. Overall, there were notable factors like salary, funding, and university administration that caused displeasure to both genders. As adduced in the literature, (See Section 5.3.1.2; Chapter, 5), there was a tendency for women respondents to mention frequently that time for research, as with opportunities for growth were scanty. Table 5.20 illustrates key sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as mentioned by male and female respondents.

Table 5.20: Factors Contributing most to Ugandan Academics Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Gender

Job Aspect	Satisfaction factors by (> 50%) of respondents		Dissatisfaction factors by (> 50%) of respondents	
	Male (n=106)	Female (n=32)	Male (n=138)	Female (n=21)
Teaching	Sharing knowledge Student supervision	Content taught Identity as don	Instructional facilities	Teaching load Marking answer scripts
Research	Academic freedom	Academic freedom	Chances for funds/grants Library facilities	Time for research Opportunities for growth
Governance	None	None	Involvement in Univ. admin	Comm. with Univ. admin
Remuneration	None	None	Salary and material resources	Salary
Promotion	Promotion prospects	None	Teaching skills in promotion	Teaching skills in promotion
Co-workers	Collegial relations Value of meetings	Social support	None	Getting to know others Professional interaction

5.02 Summary

Results from the Uganda study suggest a picture of academics with much in common but some significant differences. Although both male and female respondents felt relatively happy with teaching, there is some evidence to suggest that men were more likely to signal satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors. Consequently, the pattern recurring in the literature that women appear to be more positively oriented towards teaching does not hold for Ugandan academics. Both men and women respondents overlapped broadly in expressing their disenchantment with research, and there was no compelling evidence to suggest a gender difference relative to research satisfaction. Consistent with the research literature, academic discontent with institutional governance was

pervasive. The study, however, produced no evidence to show a gender difference with respect to academic governance satisfaction.

While male respondents rated their satisfaction with pay scale higher than comparable female, no difference in remuneration satisfaction was found by differences in gender. Relative to gender-promotion satisfaction, Ugandan women dons more than men, were highly disenchanted with promotion criteria. Though study findings, tend to sustain the current thinking in the literature that women academics are promoted at a slower pace, it must be said that no evidence was revealed to show a gender difference with academic promotion satisfaction. While more women dons than men, felt happier with work time autonomy, it is potentially instructive to note that no compelling evidence was reported to show a gender influence on supervision satisfaction. Though both Ugandan male and female dons expressed high satisfaction with co-worker behaviour, men more than women were significantly satisfied with collegial participation and integration. Overall, while there were no major discrepancies perceived between Ugandan men and women dons with respect to working conditions, some contrasts were apparent. In conformity with evidence-informed data, women had a more positive attitude to their working conditions relative to the enjoyment on the job.

CHAPTER 6

RANK, TENURE AND ACADEMIC JOB SATISFACTION

In the previous chapter, two research hypotheses relative to age, and gender and their influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction were tested and the results discussed. The central focus of this chapter is to identify and establish if rank and tenure have any significant impact on academic job satisfaction.

6.1. Hypothesis 3: There are no statistically significant differences among academics of different ranks regarding the factors contributing to their satisfaction with respect to 8 aspects of their job i.e. (Teaching, Research, Governance, Remuneration, Promotion, Supervision, Co-workers, and Working Environment).

6.1.1 Rank and Academic Satisfaction with Core Responsibilities

In this section, the influence of rank on academic satisfaction with teaching, research, and administration will be examined.

6.1.1.1 Rank-Teaching Satisfaction

The analyses revealed more commonality than contrasts (Table 6.01). While academics of all ranks expressed great satisfaction with *intrinsic* factors like autonomy in courses taught, they rated quite negatively *context* facets of teaching such as instructional and library facilities. These data are unsurprising considering the plight of Ugandan academics discussed in the review (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Besides, these data seem congruent with Moses' (1986) results that Australian academics have control over *content* but not *context* factors of their job, which tends to lend support to Herzberg's *intrinsic/extrinsic* dichotomy.

In contrast to others, however, professorial staff were more likely to evoke satisfaction from both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* facets of teaching like supervision of students' projects, as with procedures for course evaluation respectively, and, assistant lecturers felt least content. This situation is reflective of the role played by professors in IUIU and MUK particularly in supervision of graduate work, administration and teaching which might explain their discontent with the teaching load (Table 6.01).

Table 6.01: Academic Satisfaction with Teaching by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1-Interest shown by students in courses you teach	100.0	100.0	96.9	89.0	96.0	93.4	♣ n.s
2- Course(s) taught in relation to training	93.3	100.0	96.9	89.0	88.0	91.8	n.s
3- Time allocated for a lecture	93.3	89.5	87.1	86.7	91.3	88.2	n.s
4- Degree of autonomy in content taught	100.0	94.7	83.9	82.2	84.0	85.6	n.s
5- Teacher-student relationship	100.0	5.3	75.0	86.8	84.0	76.9	P < 0.000*
6-Marking answer scripts	60.0	52.6	53.1	45.1	28.0	46.2	n.s
7- The size of class(es) taught	50.0	57.9	54.8	42.7	32.0	45.5	n.s
8- Teaching load	20.0	52.6	46.9	47.3	40.0	44.5	P < 0.005
9- Procedures for course evaluation	53.3	15.8	43.8	40.7	32.0	37.8	P < 0.000
10- Supervision of student projects	73.3	94.7	19.4	20.2	12.5	31.5	P < 0.000
11- Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	6.7	5.3	38.7	25.6	27.3	24.3	n.s
12- Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	20.0	15.8	25.8	28.9	16.0	22.8	n.s
13- Recognition of teaching skills in your university	33.3	26.3	6.3	18.9	0.0	19.0	P < 0.029
14- Library facilities for teaching	0.0	15.8	15.6	15.4	24.0	15.4	n.s
15- The quality of student intake	20.0	21.1	15.6	10.9	24.0	15.4	n.s
16- Quality of tutorials you conduct/conducted	13.3	15.8	12.5	9.9	16.0	12.1	n.s
17-Departmental strategy on teaching	6.7	10.5	15.6	8.8	20.0	10.4	n.s
18- Instructional materials available for teaching	6.6	10.5	12.5	8.8	12.0	9.9	n.s

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect.. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc.

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

One possibility for assistant lecturers' unhappiness with recognition of teaching skills could well be explained by the nature of their appointment. Indeed, in IUIU and MUK, assistant lecturers are initially appointed for a period of two years (IUIU and MUK Terms of Service). Arguably, the insecure nature of assistant lecturers' appointment could have influenced their discontent with recognition of teaching skills. The general trend would seem to suggest that teaching satisfaction tends to increase with occupational level. This finding, though at variance with the data produced by Fagbamiye (1981) on Nigerian academics, lends support to Oshagbemi's

(1997) results in the UK where, senior academics were generally more satisfied with their jobs than their junior counterparts.

Overall, however, only five significant differences were confirmed. While junior academics showed content with teacher-student relationship, their senior counterparts were more likely to signal satisfaction with supervision of student projects, recognition of teaching skills, procedures for course evaluation, as with teaching load. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the five factors and not rejected for the remaining thirteen (See Table 6.01). It must, nevertheless, be stressed that on the whole rank showed no predictive influence on teaching satisfaction.

6.1.1.2 Rank and Research Satisfaction

With respect to rank-research satisfaction, more differences than similarities were confirmed (Table 6.02).

Table 6.02: Academic Satisfaction with Research by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1- Academic freedom to research and publish	80.0	94.7	65.6	42.9	29.2	53.6	P < 0.001*
2- Recognition of research in university	73.3	10.5	59.4	36.3	24.0	37.9	P < 0.001
3- Time for independent thought	80.0	94.2	40.6	16.7	24.0	35.4	P < 0.000
4- Opportunities for consultancy work	73.3	42.1	25.8	13.2	12.0	33.8	P < 0.000
5- Becoming famous through publications	80.0	31.5	21.9	13.2	0.0	29.3	P < 0.000
6- Time available for personal development	80.0	94.7	18.8	8.9	24.0	27.6	P < 0.000
7- Research time available	40.0	89.5	34.4	13.3	12.0	27.1	P < 0.000
8- The quality of university intellectual life	20.0	21.1	25.0	26.4	0.0	22.0	P < 0.015
9- Pressure to publish	40.0	5.3	25.0	18.0	24.0	20.0	P < 0.004
10- Opportunities to write and publish	26.7	5.3	15.6	17.6	4.0	14.3	♣ n.s
11- Opportunities to set up research seminars	6.7	10.5	25.0	15.4	12.0	14.3	P < 0.005
12- The passion for research	0.0	5.3	19.4	11.1	17.4	11.8	P < 0.030
13- The availability of sabbatical programmes	0.0	0.0	19.4	9.0	16.7	10.1	P < 0.038
14- Library facilities for research	6.7	5.3	6.3	4.4	4.0	4.4	n.s
15- Adequacy of research funds	0.0	0.0	3.2	5.6	0.0	3.4	n.s
16- Time spent in obtaining research grants	0.0	0.0	6.5	2.2	0.0	2.2	n.s

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factors with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

In contrast to teaching where respondents felt happy largely with *intrinsic* factors, there was widespread discontent with research. Professors, however, were significantly satisfied with *content* factors of research like academic freedom to

research and publish. This situation could suggest that despite the deplorable research infrastructure, professors felt that they have a professional obligation to extend the frontiers of knowledge through research. Does this suggest that in academia interest in *intrinsic* facets of research tends to increase with rank?

Indeed, evidence exists to suggest that professorial staff consider research as central to their responsibilities. Austin and Pilat (1990) found that most USA professors regarded their research responsibilities and interests as a central thread woven through all aspects of their lives. Similarly, German university professors were highly likely to devote more time to research (Enders and Teichler, 1997). It would seem, therefore, that whereas professorial staff felt happy with *intrinsic* factors of research, mid-rank and junior lecturers were more likely to rate favourably *extrinsic* facets. From the data, it appears likely that though non-professorial staff were irked with research facilities available, they had come to terms with the status quo because as one lecturer hinted even some professors made it to the top in similar circumstances.

Overall, while junior respondents were more likely to express satisfaction with *extrinsic* facets of research like the quality of university intellectual life, sabbatical programmes, opportunities to set up research seminars, as with passion for research, an *intrinsic* element, their senior counterparts were less likely to show discontent with *intrinsic* factors like academic freedom to research and publish, recognition of research, as with time for independent thought. Likewise, senior respondents derived more satisfaction from *extrinsic* facets of research like research time available, pressure to publish, becoming famous through publications, time available for personal development, as with consultancy opportunities. Based on these data, therefore, rank had a predictive influence on research satisfaction of Ugandan

academics. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the twelve factors and not rejected for the remaining four (See Table 6.02).

6.1.1.3 Rank and Academic Governance Satisfaction

Consistent with research literature, respondents showed discontent with institutional governance (Table 6.03).

Table 6.03: Academic Satisfaction with Governance by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1-Clarity concerning your role in the department	73.3	42.1	83.9	57.8	48.0	60.6	P< 0.000*
2-Influence in departmental administration	80.0	52.6	48.4	36.4	16.0	46.4	P < 0.000
3- Secretarial support provided	60.0	94.7	16.1	9.9	8.3	37.8	P < 0.001
4-The number of meetings to attend	53.3	15.8	31.3	36.3	32.0	32.4	P < 0.003
5- Faculty involvement in Uni. Administration	6.7	5.3	41.9	24.2	16.7	30.5	P < 0.000
6- Clarity of institutional mission	6.7	5.3	36.7	37.4	29.2	29.6	P < 0.021
7-Time spent on administrative duties	6.7	5.3	38.7	25.6	27.3	24.3	♣ n.s
8- Co-ordination between teaching, Res.&Adm.(U)	20.0	0.0	25.8	28.9	16.0	22.8	n.s
9- The degree of fair treatment received	53.3	5.3	25.0	16.5	16.0	19.8	P < 0.007
10- Communication with university authorities	20.0	10.5	25.8	19.8	16.0	18.2	P < 0.022
11- Policy formulation and impl. procedures	6.7	0.0	43.3	13.2	12.0	16.1	P < 0.006
12-Academic-university administrators relations	0.0	0.0	12.5	12.1	12.0	9.9	n.s

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

Indeed, with the exception of Japan and Brazil the majority of academics in several countries felt alienated from top administrators of their universities (Boyer, et al, 1994), and there is a nearly universal alienation and marked disenchantment on the part of faculty with academic administrators (Lewis and Altbach, 1996). Does this suggest that managerial practices being associated with the *context* in which work is performed lead to job dissatisfaction, as Herzberg (1968) dichotomy would seem to contend?

It is notable, however, that while professors felt happy with departmental administration, mid and junior respondents were more likely to signal satisfaction with institutional governance. A possible explanation could be that professorial staff in IUIU and MUK, as one would expect, hold positions of responsibility, and

consequently, their views and opinions in departmental business are held in high regard as one professor hinted. Similar results have been elicited elsewhere. Oshagbemi's (1997) findings in the UK where, academic rank appeared to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Similarly, professors in several countries were more likely to rate their job favourably (Enders and Teichler, 1997).

Analogously, non-professorial staff were more likely to derive satisfaction from institutional administration. It could well be that since junior dons were unlikely to hold senior positions, they were likely to have some misgivings with those in charge of departmental administration. Indeed, one junior don observed,

“...We have a clique of very senior people who dominate everything in this faculty...One is just informed what has been resolved...”

In all, consistent with Herzberg's theory, Ugandan academics were irked with governance, an *extrinsic* facet of the job. It is notable, however, that more differences than similarities were observed. Indeed, while mid and junior dons showed less discontent with clarity of institutional mission, policy formulation procedures, communication with university authorities, as with involvement in university administration, professorial staff were likely to evoke satisfaction from the treatment received, the meetings to attend, influence in departmental administration, clarity of role in the department, and secretarial support provided. There was overwhelming evidence, therefore, to show that differences in academic rank have a predictive influence on Ugandan academics governance satisfaction. Accordingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the nine factors and not rejected for three (See Table 6.03).

6.1.2. Rank and Academic Satisfaction with other Aspects

6.1.2.1 Rank –Remuneration Satisfaction

As with research, respondents showed discontent with remuneration (Table 6.04). This was expected considering the fiscal exigency that characterise Ugandan

universities discussed in the review (Section 2.6.1&2.6.2; Chapter, 2). Does this suggest that remuneration being an *extrinsic* aspect of the job contribute more to job dissatisfaction than satisfaction?

Table 6.04: Academic Satisfaction with Remuneration by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1- Position on pay scale (U)	73.3	94.7	19.4	20.2	12.5	31.5	P < 0.000*
2-Salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	6.7	0.0	15.6	8.8	20.0	10.4	♠ n.s
3- Present pay, considering your skill and effort	0.0	0.0	9.4	13.2	12.0	9.9	n.s
4- Opportunities to retire with full benefits	0.0	0.0	40.6	2.3	0.0	8.4	P < 0.000
5- Your fringe benefits	0.0	0.0	16.7	9.9	0.0	7.8	n.s
6- The levels of compensation in your university	0.0	0.0	10.0	6.7	0.0	5.0	n.s
7- Material resources connected with your work	0.0	0.0	6.5	4.5	4.2	3.9	P < 0.005
8- Your retirement benefits	0.0	0.0	6.7	2.3	4.2	2.8	n.s

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor ♠ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

Interestingly, while professorial staff were significantly satisfied with position on pay scale, junior and middle rank respondents were less likely to show discontent with salary and retirement benefits.

An inference might be that with increased *privatisation* particularly at MUK, the trend appears to point to some improvement in academic pay packages and benefits in the long run (Tizikara, 1998). This scenario could perhaps explain why lecturers and senior lecturers were less disillusioned with opportunities to retire with full benefits (Table 6.04). It seems apt to be assumed, therefore, that professors were irked by retirement benefits perhaps because many were approaching retirement and saw no immediate prospects of retiring with full pay. In addition, it might be argued that assistant lecturers discontent with benefits could echo the nature of their tenure, where in both IUIU and MUK may be extended biennial for no more than three times. Yet, university teachers need security and independence through tenure not only as a compensation for relatively low salaries but also to demonstrate their ability as scholars (Bragg et al., 1985).

Based on these data, therefore, the results of satisfaction with remuneration seem not to be dependent on rank although pay levels in universities, as in other organisations, generally reflect rank. One professor observed,

“...Of course compared to others, I’m handsomely paid...but in assessing pay satisfaction one should not lose sight of factors like family size, life style and inflation...”

Does this suggest that in IUIU and MUK satisfaction with pay is not a function of one’s rank? One explanation for this possibility is that in Uganda, as elsewhere in SSA, poverty at family level is rife as is dependency syndrome. Though there is little empirical information, the researcher’s experience would seem to suggest that Ugandan senior elite (being torchbearers in predominantly illiterate societies) tend to attract dependants from far and wide among their kin. Indeed, Uganda’s dependency ratio is 113%, and the population is projected to increase by 132% by 2015 (World Bank, 1993).

It would seem, therefore, that while Ugandan professors felt happy with their position on the pay scale, they were disillusioned by salary perhaps because of family size and the desire to live a middle class life style expected of them. Mujaju (1996) succinctly observed that the MUK professor moves on foot because he cannot buy a car, and the little money a professor earns is hardly enough to attend to his many needs. Additionally, handsome earnings of people with similar credentials in government and commerce could explain further Ugandan professors’ disenchantment with their pay. Elsewhere, similar findings abound. Fagbamiye’s (1981) found that most senior dons in Nigeria were least satisfied with remuneration. Strangely, this finding tends to be congruent with Osagbemi’s (1997) results on UK academics, where senior lecturers were reported to be the most satisfied with pay, followed by professors, readers, and lecturers. Study findings, however, contradict the evidence produced by (Enders and

Teichler, 1997) that German and Dutch professors, more than others, rated their salary most favourably.

While non-professorial staff were less disenchanted with compensation levels, and opportunities to retire with full benefits, it is useful to note that professorial staff were substantially satisfied with their pay scale. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the three factors and not rejected for the remaining five (See Table 6.04). Overall, however, there was no overriding evidence to show that rank has predictive influence on remuneration satisfaction of Ugandan academics.

6.1.2.2 The Influence of Rank on Promotion Satisfaction

In contrast to remuneration, rank-promotion satisfaction analyses evidenced more contrasts than similarities (Table 6.05).

Table 6.05: Academic Satisfaction with Promotion by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1- Number of publications in promotion	85.7	89.5	71.9	35.2	16.0	48.6	P < 0.000*
2- Your chances of getting ahead in the university	80.0	63.2	59.4	20.9	8.0	46.1	P < 0.000
3-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	93.3	63.1	18.8	19.8	16.0	43.1	P < 0.000
4- Personal growth and development	80.0	31.6	59.4	28.6	52.0	41.8	P < 0.001
5- Quality of publications in promotion criteria	100.0	89.5	43.8	26.4	16.7	40.9	P < 0.000
6- Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	84.6	52.6	13.8	14.6	4.3	33.9	P < 0.000
7- Opportunities for professional development	86.7	63.2	21.9	25.3	24.0	33.5	P < 0.000
8- Teaching skills in considering promotion	86.7	42.1	15.6	8.8	13.0	33.2	P < 0.000
9-Promotion prospects	85.7	36.8	56.3	22.0	12.0	33.1	P < 0.001
10- Recognition of achievements in university	6.7	10.5	37.5	13.3	8.3	16.1	P < 0.002

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect.. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factor with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

Indeed, junior and senior academics differed most strikingly and consistently. For instance, senior lecturers and professors were more likely to express satisfaction with *intrinsic* facets like quality of publications in promotion criteria. These findings appear to suggest that Ugandan academics satisfaction with promotion, as one might expect, is dependent on rank. In the circumstances, it is apt to infer that there is compelling evidence to suggest that rank has a predictive impact on promotion satisfaction of Ugandan academics.

One possibility for this scenario could be that whereas a vast majority of senior and middle-rank dons are in a secure position (which would seem to guarantee their continuity with university service), most of their junior counterparts in IUIU and MUK, perhaps as elsewhere, serve on periodical terms. Indeed, part-time assignments with university staff are more common to junior staff than to their seniors on professorial or sub-professorial positions (Enders and Teichler, 1997: 368). One informant remarked,

“...Unlike senior dons, I’m constantly worried about extension of my tenure...”

It is plausible to be assumed, therefore, that junior dons with an uncertain job security, tend to be preoccupied with tenure and, as a consequence, focus less on research which could explain their anguish with promotion in a research-based reward system (See Table 6.05). Sufficiently comparable, are the data produced by (Oshagbemi, 1997) that in UK while professors were most happy with promotion, lecturers and assistant lecturers were least content perhaps because of being at the bottom of the academic rank. This situation could also explain why junior dons, in contrast to, their senior colleagues were less likely to derive satisfaction from opportunities to write and publish, as with consultancy discussed earlier (See Section 6.1.1.2; Chapter, 6). Furthermore, junior dons discontent with promotion could be attributed to the current rigorous promotion criteria in IUIU and MUK. Said one respondent,

“...Some professors in this university do not hold doctorates, yet now it is a key requirement for promotion to senior lecturer...”

Does this suggest that the stiff hurdles dons have to traverse to attain the pinnacle of academic ladder irked junior respondents more than their senior counterparts, many of whom might have benefited from a comparatively flexible promotion system? In contrast to Herzberg’s dichotomy, therefore, we see promotion an *intrinsic* aspect of the work contributing to job dissatisfaction. Indeed, in Canada movement through the

professorial ranks was perceived as more difficult than achieving tenure (Thorsen, 1996). These findings appear to suggest that junior dons see some kind of frustration with the existing promotion practices in IUIU and MUK, and in particular, the undervaluing of teaching excellence in promotion reward system (See Table 6.05).

Overall, while junior respondents were less likely to show discontent with recognition of teaching skills, it is pertinent to stress that their senior counterparts were more likely to signal satisfaction with longevity of tenure in promotion criteria, opportunities for professional development, chances of getting ahead in university, promotion prospects, teaching skills in considering promotion, devotion to teaching in promotion, personal growth and development, as with number and quality of publications in promotion criteria. The null hypothesis, therefore, is rejected for all the ten factors (See Table 6.05).

6.1.2.3 Rank and Supervision Satisfaction

As with promotion, the analyses produced more contrasts than similarities (Table 6.06).

Table 6.06: Academic Satisfaction with Supervision by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1- The autonomy you have from your supervisor	86.7	84.2	76.7	67.0	44.0	71.4	P < 0.003*
2-The technical competence of your supervisor	80.0	94.7	63.3	48.9	60.0	60.3	P < 0.002
3- Your overall freedom on the job	73.3	94.7	77.4	48.4	44.0	59.7	P < 0.003
4-Opportunities to do challenging work	86.7	89.5	54.8	46.7	60.0	57.8	P < 0.009
5-The responsibility you're are given to handle	80.0	94.7	25.8	56.0	52.0	56.4	P < 0.000
6- Your work time autonomy	86.7	78.9	70.0	60.4	43.5	55.6	P < 0.002
7- The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	86.7	89.5	54.8	33.0	32.0	47.0	P < 0.000
8- Supervisor's success in getting people to work	80.0	63.1	22.6	41.1	20.0	45.2	P < 0.000
9- Supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	80.0	78.9	41.9	31.1	44.0	43.9	P < 0.002
10-Supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	60.0	10.5	32.3	48.4	39.1	41.3	P < 0.012
11-Feedback from your supervisor	53.3	42.1	41.9	32.2	20.0	37.6	P < 0.000
12- The overall quality of supervision you receive	40.0	15.8	41.9	33.3	48.0	35.6	P < 0.013
13-Support & guidance received from supervisor	40.0	5.3	35.5	37.4	32.0	34.8	P < 0.000
14- The amount of close supervision	20.0	15.8	16.1	37.4	40.0	28.3	P < 0.000

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect.. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

■ Factor with extrinsic elements *Significant at .05 level

The general trend would seem to suggest that supervision satisfaction among Ugandan academics rose proportionately with rank, assistant lecturers being least content and professorial staff most happy. Contrary to Herzberg's conceptualisation, respondents were relatively satisfied with supervision, an *extrinsic* aspect of the job.

One explanation for this possibility is that senior dons in IUIU and MUK, perhaps as elsewhere, tend to be more independent in determining their work tasks than their junior counterparts. This scenario could explain why professors felt happier with work-time autonomy as with overall freedom on the job. Besides, evidence exists to support the notion that satisfaction is dependent on academics' perception of how much control they have on their work environment. Finkelstein (1984) produced evidence to show that American dons who experienced a high sense of autonomy were also more satisfied. The words of one professor seem revealing,

“...Unlike lecturers, I'm empowered, to participate fully in the organisation and development of my department...Besides, it is mainly junior teachers who need guidance or supervision...”

Could this scenario suggest that there is a positive association between rank and job satisfaction as found in the literature? Indeed, this finding reinforces earlier ones where a positive association between rank and job satisfaction was reported in the UK (Near et al, 1978; Oshagbemi, 1997). Likewise, junior academics in several countries perceived their job situation less favourably than professorial or sub-professorial staff (Enders and Teichler, 1997).

Overall, contrary to Herzberg's theory responding academics felt happy with supervision, an *extrinsic* aspect of the job. While there is compelling evidence to show that rank differences in supervision satisfaction were observed, it is useful to note that junior and middle rank dons were more likely to signal satisfaction with the amount and quality of supervision. Professorial staff, however, felt happy with autonomy from, and technical competence of supervisor, supervisor's success in getting people

to work, opportunities to do challenging work, the freedom to try new ideas and programmes, feedback from supervisor, supervisor's concern for tasks and staff welfare, as with overall freedom on the job (See Table 6.06). Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for all fourteen factors on the supervision job aspect.

6.1.2.4 Rank and Co-worker Behaviour Satisfaction

In contrast to Herzberg's theory, respondents were delighted with co-worker behaviour, an *extrinsic* facet of the job (Table 6.07).

Table 6.07: Academic Satisfaction with Co-workers by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1- The "social support" from colleagues at work	86.7	84.2	96.9	89.0	96.0	93.4	♠ n.s
2- The level of commitment by colleagues at work	100.0	100.0	96.9	89.0	96.0	93.4	n.s
3- Opportunities to get to know others	93.3	68.4	96.9	89.0	96.0	88.7	n.s
4- Collegial relations in your faculty	100.0	94.7	71.9	75.9	84.0	80.2	n.s
5- Your relationship with others	100.0	94.7	71.9	75.9	84.0	80.2	n.s
6- The degree of competence of co-workers	100.0	89.5	84.4	75.8	69.6	80.0	n.s
7- The respect you earn from fellow employees	100.0	89.5	84.4	75.8	69.6	80.0	n.s
8- Confidence and trust you have in co-workers	100.0	84.2	84.4	59.3	68.0	70.9	P < 0.007*
9- The level of personal interest staff have in you	92.9	94.7	78.1	56.3	56.0	67.2	P < 0.011
10- The value of meetings with colleagues at work	86.7	89.5	65.6	53.8	52.0	62.1	P < 0.030
11- The sense of community in your university	66.7	89.5	59.4	44.0	69.6	56.7	P < 0.025
12- Professional interaction at work	86.7	5.3	45.2	61.5	65.2	55.3	P < 0.000
13- Congeniality by colleagues at work	53.3	5.3	67.7	55.6	61.9	52.8	P < 0.001
14- The degree of faculty morale	60.0	21.1	31.3	47.3	40.0	39.6	P < 0.000

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect.= Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

■ Factor with extrinsic elements ♠ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

This finding would seem congruent with the notion that academia has a fundamentally egalitarian and collegial ethos (Toren, 1990:75). Besides, these data are consistent with the evidence produced by Everett and Entekin (1987) that Australian academics generally valued collegial interaction. While all respondents felt happy with collegial relations and support, it is useful to stress that senior academics were more likely to rate favourably the sense of community in university, and trust in co-workers.

Interestingly, the results appear to suggest that respondents' satisfaction with the value of collegial meetings as with general inter-personal relations increase with rank, professors being most content and assistant lecturers least delighted. Does this imply

that satisfaction with collegial interaction and integration among Ugandan academics is dependent on rank? This situation tends to accord with the conclusion made by Holden and Black (1996) that satisfaction among psychologists was dependent on rank, where associate professors felt less delighted than full professors. Indeed, it emerged during interviews that senior respondents felt happier with collegial relations. One professor remarked,

“...The interest and trust colleagues have in me boosts my confidence...and I think being senior and congenial earns me a lot of respect...”

It would seem, therefore, that junior academics were more likely to respect and show interest in their senior counterparts for purposes of academic and professional growth. Furthermore, it is apt to be assumed that these data seem to reflect harmonious collegial relations in IUIU and MUK. This is a healthy sign considering that decision-making process at universities is much more likely to be influenced by complex social interaction among participants. Indeed, Manger and Eikeland (1990) found that the general job satisfaction of Norwegian academics was very much influenced by the collegial relations.

Strikingly, associate professors, in contrast to others, were least likely to derive satisfaction from professional interaction at work, as with faculty morale. Quite why this is so is not easy to interpret. One might speculate, however, that because of individual differences in how important social needs are work group relationships probably have considerable effect on satisfaction for some and little effect on others.

While junior respondents felt happy with faculty morale, collegial congeniality, as with professional interaction at work, it is useful to note that their senior counterparts were delighted with the sense of community, value of collegial meetings, confidence and trust in co-workers, as with personal interest shown by staff. Correspondingly, the

null hypothesis is rejected for the seven factors and not rejected for the remaining seven (See Table 6.07). Overall, however, there was no overwhelming evidence to show that academic rank has a predictive effect on co-worker behaviour satisfaction.

6.1.2.5 The Influence of Rank on Working Conditions Satisfaction

With respect to rank-working environment satisfaction, more differences than similarities were confirmed (Table 6.08).

Table 6.08: Academic Satisfaction with Working Environment by Rank (n=182)

Factor	Rank						χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	Prof. (n=15)	A/Prof. (n= 19)	S/Lect. (n=32)	Lect. (n=91)	Other (n=25)	All Ranks	
1-The geographic location of the university	80.0	94.7	84.4	66.7	84.0	76.2	♠n.s
2- Being associated with your university	80.0	89.5	78.1	54.9	56.0	64.8	P < 0.015*
3- Distance between university and your residence	86.7	94.7	81.3	52.7	50.0	64.6	P < 0.012
4- The freedom of your life style	73.3	84.2	68.8	38.9	52.0	53.6	P < 0.003
5- The beauty of the campus you work in	80.0	89.5	62.5	30.8	54.2	49.7	P < 0.002
6- The obtaining social environment	80.0	89.5	50.0	27.8	47.8	45.3	P < 0.002
7- Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	53.3	5.3	56.3	27.5	48.0	35.2	P < 0.000
8- Space for you to work during non-teaching time	26.7	94.7	18.8	28.1	29.2	33.5	P < 0.000
9- The feeling of security	13.3	5.3	62.5	31.9	24.0	31.9	P < 0.001
10- The intellectual stimulation of your university	46.7	31.6	25.0	20.9	32.0	26.4	n.s
11- Clerical and technical assistance offered	26.7	84.2	18.8	1.3.3	20.0	23.8	P < 0.000
12- Your access to computer and library facilities	0.0	0.0	18.8	18.7	20.8	15.5	n.s
13- The environment in which you work	0.0	15.8	15.6	15.4	24.0	15.4	n.s
14- The overall research facilities available	0.0	5.3	6.3	9.1	8.0	7.3	P < 0.014
15- Facilities for relaxation	0.0	0.0	12.5	5.6	16.0	7.2	n.s

Prof. =Professor ; A/Prof. =Associate Professor; S/Lect.. = Senior Lecturer; Lect. =Lecturer; Other =Assistant Lecturers etc..

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factor with extrinsic elements ♠ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

Interestingly, *extrinsic* factors (contrary to Herzberg's theory) contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction with physical facilities. For instance, while respondents were delighted with the geographic location of, and association with, their universities, they were, not unexpectedly, disillusioned with computer, library, and relaxation facilities. These data are unsurprising because debate on the plight of Ugandan academics is devoid of serenity and contentment (See Section 2.4; Chapter, 2).

Frustrations notwithstanding, senior dons rated their satisfaction with proximity to university, as with freedom of life style, more favourably than their junior counterparts. Sufficiently comparable, Ugandan academics satisfaction with working

space, and secretarial support provided increased with rank. These data tend to suggest that senior academics, as one would expect, are relatively well facilitated than their junior counterparts. Does this suggest that employees at higher ranks, because of their status are well facilitated? Logically, therefore, senior academics are well facilitated perhaps to signify their status in their institutions, which as Oshagbemi (1997) contended would enhance their productivity and the quality of their physical work environment.

Rank, however, does not seem to offer any consistent indication of contentment on the job. For instance, associate professors and lecturers, were least likely to be delighted with the enjoyment on the job. One source of delight for professors could come from attaining the pinnacle of academic ladder together with the material and non-material benefits associated with it. In a like manner, senior lecturers could have derived the joy from getting into their stride to join the highly cherished “*club*” of senior dons in UIIU and MUK. By the same token, it seems apt to be assumed that the enthusiasm of new entrants to the profession (Oshagbemi, 1996) might explain assistant lecturers happiness with the job.

While senior academics felt happy with space availability and enjoyment on the job, the obtaining social environment, proximity to, and association with their university, junior respondents were likely to be less disillusioned with computing and library facilities, the feeling of security, as with general work environment. Consistent with the research literature, therefore, there is evidence to support the notion that academic rank has a predictive influence on working environment satisfaction. Consequently, the null hypothesis, is rejected for the ten factors and not rejected for five (See Table 6.08).

6.2 Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Rank: Free-Response Data

Satisfaction and dissatisfaction responses were grouped according to rank. Utilising the same analysis as in Section 4.4.1.1.; Chapter, 4), each percentage was calculated using as a total the maximum number of respondents for each rank that had made a response to the satisfaction and dissatisfaction components of the question. For ease of analysis, however, respondents were grouped into senior and junior dons. Given space considerations, only results of interest will be reported.

Table 6.09: Factors Contributing most to Ugandan Academics Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Rank

Job Aspect	Satisfaction factors by (> 50%) of respondents		Dissatisfaction factors by (> 50%) of respondents	
	Senior (n=39)	Junior (n=99)	Senior (n=44)	Junior (n=115)
Teaching	Content taught Recognition of skills	Teacher-student relationship Identity as lecturer	Instructional facilities	Marking answer scripts Teaching load
Research	Research/publications Research recognition	None	Quality of intellectual life Sabbatical programs	Grants/funds for research Research time available
Governance	Influence in the Dept.	None	Relationship with admin. Communication with admin.	Secretarial support Time spent on admin.
Remuneration	None	None	Salary/retirement benefits	Gaps in salary scales
Promotion	Promotion prospects	None	Opportunities for publishing	Teaching in promotion
Co-workers	Respect earned Collegial meetings	Social support Professional interaction	None	None

Dept. =Department

Admin. =Administration

6.01 Summary

The influence of rank on academic satisfaction with respect to eight job aspects has been examined. The results elicited by Likert scale, and interview data were largely congruent with the free-response findings (See Table 5.11). Relative to rank-teaching satisfaction, while respondents derived satisfaction from *intrinsic* factors, the findings revealed that senior academics were more likely to signal satisfaction with both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* facets. No compelling evidence, however, was apparent to show that academic rank has a predictive influence on teaching satisfaction. With respect to research, while professorial staff, felt happy with *content* elements, middle and junior respondents were more likely to signal satisfaction with *context* factors.

Based on study findings, therefore, there was overwhelming evidence to support the notion that rank has a predictive influence on research satisfaction. While professorial staff signalled satisfaction with departmental administration, mid and junior dons rated institutional governance more favourably. The data reported that differences in academic rank significantly influenced governance satisfaction.

With regard to remuneration, whereas professorial staff were delighted with pay scale, mid and junior academics showed less discontent with benefits and compensation. There was no overriding evidence, however, to suggest that differences in academic rank impact on remuneration satisfaction. In contrast to Herzberg's dichotomy, promotion-an *intrinsic* aspect of academic work contributed to respondents' dissatisfaction. There were striking and persistent differences between senior and junior dons, however, to suggest that promotion satisfaction among Ugandan academics was dependent on rank. Strikingly, respondents were delighted with supervision, an *extrinsic* aspect of academic work. The data revealed that supervision satisfaction among Ugandan academics rose proportionately with rank. Contrary to Herzberg's conceptualisation, respondents felt happy with co-worker behaviour, an *extrinsic* aspect of academic work. There was no compelling evidence, however, to show that differences in academic rank consistently predicted differences in co-worker satisfaction. Interestingly, *extrinsic* factors (contrary to Herzberg's theory) contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While rank offered no consistent indication of contentment on the job, the general trend indicated that differences in academic rank significantly influenced working environment satisfaction.

6.3 Hypothesis 4: There are no statistically significant differences among academics of different tenure regarding the factors contributing to their satisfaction with respect to 8 aspects of the job i.e. (Teaching, Research, Governance, Remuneration, Promotion,

Supervision, Co-workers, and Working Environment).

6.3.1. Tenure and Academic Satisfaction with Core Responsibilities

This section will explore how present university tenure impacts on academic satisfaction with teaching, research and administration.

6.3.1.1 Tenure-Teaching Satisfaction

Ugandan academics felt happy with *content* factors of teaching notably autonomy of content taught, as with interest shown by students in courses taught (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10: Academic Satisfaction with Teaching by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1-Interest shown by students in courses you teach	95.4	91.7	93.8	95.0	93.4	♠ n.s
2- Course(s) taught in relation to training	87.7	93.8	93.8	95.6	91.8	n.s
3- Degree of autonomy in content taught	79.7	80.9	93.8	95.2	85.6	n.s
4- Teacher-student relationship	92.3	83.3	47.9	80.0	80.9	P < 0.000*
5- Time allocated for a lecture	80.0	68.8	85.4	70.7	77.5	n.s
6- Supervision of student projects	35.5	47.9	72.3	76.1	53.4	P < 0.009
7- Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	48.4	54.2	53.2	26.1	48.9	n.s
8-Marking answer scripts	43.1	35.4	56.3	56.2	46.2	P < 0.033
9- The size of class(es) taught	43.5	39.6	54.2	45.0	45.5	n.s
10- Teaching load	53.8	37.5	45.8	26.2	44.5	P < 0.040
11- Procedures for course evaluation	40.0	39.6	29.2	36.5	36.8	P < 0.034
12- Student feedback on course(s) taught (U)	44.4	35.4	27.1	31.5	36.1	P < 0.004
13- The quality of student intake	30.8	37.5	43.8	30.0	35.7	n.s
14-Departmental strategy on teaching	51.6	38.3	18.8	16.6	35.6	P < 0.000
15- Quality of tutorials you conduct/conducted	40.0	30.4	35.6	16.7	33.9	P < 0.026
16- Recognition of teaching skills in your university	20.6	22.9	17.0	10.0	19.0	P < 0.013
17- Instructional materials available for teaching	15.4	22.9	6.3	5.0	13.7	P < 0.007
18- Library facilities for teaching	13.8	18.8	2.1	5.0	11.0	P < 0.030

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Extrinsic factors (U) Unclassifiable factor ♠ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

These findings are consistent with the evidence produced in Australia by (Moses, 1986; Lacy Sheehan, 1997). Not unexpectedly, considering the discussion in the review (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) respondents expressed discontent with *extrinsic* factors of teaching like instructional and library materials.

In contrast to others, respondents in the tenure bracket of (0-5) and (6-10) years were more likely to evoke satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors like teaching load and procedures for course evaluation. Does this suggest that as tenure increases in IUIU

and MUK, dons become more and more disillusioned with *managerial* factors in their working environment? Said one veteran,

“...Student numbers at MUK have continued to outpace facilities...We now have a situation of teaching 300 students in a lecture room that was designed for 60...Those with notoriously large classes end up teaching in dining halls of students’ residences which is discomfoting...”

One possible explanation could be that new entrants, in contrast to the tenure group of (11-20) and (21-30) years were likely to signal satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors of teaching (perhaps because many are not only new, but young and less experienced) and probably still hopeful of the rewards accruable from their performance. Understandably, these findings are at variance with Boot et al., (1977) results in the UK and USA, where a correlation between length of service and job satisfaction was reported. This is unsurprising considering the socio-economic disparity between the affluent North and afflicted South. These data, however, seem to concur with Fagbamiye’s (1981) findings that long serving, experienced and more qualified Nigerian dons were more likely to signal discontent with conditions of service than new entrants.

It is notable, however, that new entrants unlike those in the tenure category (11-20) and (21-30) years were less likely to derive satisfaction from *intrinsic* facets of teaching like marking answer scripts, and supervision of student projects. These data appear to suggest that Ugandan academics satisfaction with *intrinsic* elements of teaching tends to increase with tenure. Does this suggest that in IUIU and MUK as tenure increases, dons gain more skilful approach to those tasks of teaching and consequently perform better than new entrants? This situation appear to corroborate with the Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) evidence that teaching satisfaction among UK dons not only increased with the length of present university tenure, but did so at an increasing rate.

Overall, consistent to Herzberg's dichotomy Ugandan academics were irked with *extrinsic* factors of teaching. Strikingly, more differences than similarities were observed between new entrants and long-serving respondents. In contrast to others, dons in the tenure category of (0-5) and (6-10) years felt happier with teacher-student relationship, and were less disillusioned with *extrinsic* factors like teaching load, procedures for course evaluation, departmental strategy on teaching, quality of tutorials, recognition of teaching skills, instructional materials, as with library holdings. Analogously, respondents in the tenure bracket of (11-20) and (21-30) years felt happier with *intrinsic* factors of teaching like supervision of student projects, and marking answer scripts. Based on these data, therefore, there was overwhelming evidence to suggest that differences in tenure influence significantly teaching satisfaction. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the eleven factors and not rejected for the remaining seven (Table 6.10).

6.3.1.2 Tenure-Research Satisfaction

While Ugandan academics were disenchanted with *extrinsic* factors of research like research facilities and grants, (Table 6.11), it is useful to note that research satisfaction, as with rank, (See section 6.1.1.2; Chapter, 6) tended to increase with tenure. It can be seen that academics in the tenure category (11-20) and (21-30) years rated their satisfaction with *extrinsic* factors like research time available, and *intrinsic* facets such as freedom to research and publish significantly higher than their counterparts in the (0-5) and (6-10) years of tenure. These data, therefore, would seem to suggest that in IUIU and MUK as tenure increases, dons satisfaction with research tends to increase. One possibility is that research satisfaction in academics requires among other things adequate time for academics to follow research interests, demonstrate their ability as scholars, and thus earn recognition and advancement. As a

consequence, tenure plays a significant role in research satisfaction. Indeed, Bragg et al., (1985) reported that UK dons needed not only ample time but also security and independence to pursue long-term scholarly projects. Similarly, Shattock (2001) found that until 1980's UK academics had tenure, which offered clear protection to academic freedom.

Table 6.11: Academic Satisfaction with Research by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1-Academic freedom to research and publish	36.9	40.4	81.3	75.0	53.6	P< 0.007*
2- Recognition of research in university	32.3	37.5	39.6	55.0	37.9	n.s
3- Time for independent thought	15.6	25.0	54.2	80.0	35.4	P < 0.000
4- Time available for personal development	10.8	14.9	43.8	75.0	27.6	P < 0.000
5- Research time available	9.2	27.1	42.6	50.0	27.1	P < 0.001
6- The quality of university intellectual life	23.1	31.3	12.5	20.0	22.0	♣ n.s
7- Pressure to publish	15.6	25.0	14.9	35.0	20.0	n.s
8- Opportunities for consultancy work	7.8	16.7	22.9	50.0	18.8	P < 0.003
9- Becoming famous through publications	4.6	16.7	18.8	55.0	17.0	P < 0.000
10- Opportunities to write and publish	13.8	16.7	10.4	20.0	14.3	n.s
11- Opportunities to set up research seminars	13.8	14.6	14.6	15.0	14.3	n.s
12- The passion for research	14.5	10.6	12.5	5.0	11.8	n.s
13- The availability of sabbatical programmes	9.8	10.4	10.4	10.0	10.1	n.s
14-Library facilities for research	4.6	4.2	2.1	10.0	4.4	n.s
15- Adequacy of research funds	4.8	2.1	2.1	5.0	3.4	n.s
16-Time spent in obtaining research grants	1.6	2.1	2.1	5.0	2.2	n.s

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factors with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

Arguably, given the peripheral status and expendable nature of non-tenure appointments, respondents without tenure (for new entrants in IUIU and MUK except professors serve a two-year probation before tenure), being new and perhaps unsure about their positions were less likely to be delighted by research. Besides, these data tend to support the notion that non-tenure academics experience more occupational stress than those who are tenured (Gmelch et al., 1986). Moreover, non-tenure track faculty in USA were not only less committed but more pessimistic about the future than their tenured colleagues (Chronister, et al., 1992), commanded less respect (Trower, 2000), and felt less secure and less sure about their positions and work (Honan and Teferra, 2001).

In contrast to Herzberg's theory, therefore, research an *intrinsic* aspect of work contributed to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While responding academics were irked with *extrinsic* facets, it is pertinent to note that research satisfaction tended to increase with tenure. Indeed, dons in tenure bracket of (11-20) and (21-30) years rated their satisfaction with freedom to research and publish, time available for research, independent thought, and personal development, as with consultancy opportunities higher than new entrants. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the six factors and not rejected for the remaining ten (See Table 6.11). Overall, however, there was no overriding evidence to suggest that differences in tenure consistently predicted research satisfaction of Ugandan academics.

6.3.1.3 Tenure and Academic Governance Satisfaction

Consistent with the research literature and the evidence adduced earlier (See Section, 6.1.1.3; Chapter, 6) respondents were irked with institutional governance (Table 6.12).

Table 6.12: Academic Satisfaction with Governance by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1- Clarity concerning your role in the department	64.1	45.8	55.3	56.0	56.1	♣ n.s
2-Influence in departmental administration	27.0	34.0	40.4	51.6	35.4	n.s
3-The number of meetings to attend	38.5	31.3	18.8	46.7	32.4	P < 0.005*
4- Clarity of institutional mission	33.3	37.5	21.3	20.0	29.6	n.s
5-Time spent on administrative duties	29.0	21.3	27.7	10.0	24.3	n.s
6-Coordination between teaching, Res.&Adm (U)	23.1	23.4	21.3	22.4	22.8	n.s
7- Faculty involvement in Uni. Administration	24.6	19.1	27.7	10.0	22.2	P < 0.045
8- The degree of fair treatment received	16.9	6.3	25.0	47.8	19.8	P < 0.006
9- Secretarial support provided	7.8	12.5	40.4	25.0	19.4	P < 0.008
10- Communication with university authorities	26.2	8.3	17.0	18.0	18.2	P < 0.008
11-Policy formulation and impl. procedures	9.4	16.7	25.5	15.0	16.1	n.s
12-Academic-university administrators relations	12.3	4.2	14.6	9.5	9.9	n.s

■ Factor with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

Does this suggest that management being an *extrinsic* aspect contribute to job dissatisfaction as contented by Herzberg? Frustrations notwithstanding, there were notable differences between long-serving dons and new entrants. Indeed, respondents

in the tenure category of (11-20) and (21-30) years were less irked by the treatment they received, as with the secretarial support provided. Does this suggest that long-serving IUIU and MUK dons were better facilitated and perhaps, fairly treated compared to new entrants? It may well be that as with age, (See Section 5.1.1.3; Chapter, 5), and rank, (See Section 6.1.1.3; Chapter, 6), Ugandan academics satisfaction with these factors tended to increase with tenure.

Despite the facilitation, dons in the tenure category of (11-20) and (21-30) were more disenchanted with institutional administration. These data should not appear as surprising considering that even in several affluent countries dons agreed that lack of involvement in university governance was a problem (Boyer, et al., 1994; Lewis and Altbach, 1996). Moreover, there is evidence to suggest that MUK dons are sidelined by central administration. For instance, the IIEP case study from MUK reported that university secretary's office was powerful and conservative and had marginalized academics in decision-making (Sanyal, 1995). Could it be then, as contended by Blair (1991) that African universities tend to be inadequately financed leading to inflexible management of financial and human resources? In the circumstances, it is arguable that internal management at IUIU and MUK suffers as much from uncertain funding as from management expertise.

Overall, consistent with Herzberg's dichotomy, respondents signalled misgivings with institutional governance. While dons in the tenure category of (11-20) and (21-30) years were less disillusioned with the treatment received, as with secretarial support provided, their counterparts of > 10 years of tenure felt less irked with the number of meetings, communication with university authorities, as with involvement in university administration. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the five factors, and not rejected for the remaining seven (See Table 6.12). Based on these

data, thus, it seems likely that whereas satisfaction with treatment received, as with secretarial support tended to increase with tenure, Ugandan academics satisfaction with involvement in, and communication with, central administration tended to decrease with tenure. There was, nonetheless, no overwhelming evidence to support the notion that tenure consistently influenced Ugandan academics governance satisfaction.

6.3.2 Tenure and Academic Satisfaction with other Job Aspects

This section will explore the impact of tenure on secondary aspects of Ugandan academics.

6.3.2.1 Tenure-Remuneration Satisfaction

Responding academics expressed persistent discontent with remuneration (Table 6.13). This was expected considering the plight of Ugandan academics discussed in the review (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter, 2). Nonetheless, while respondents in the tenure category of (0-5) and (6-10) years were less disillusioned with their present pay and salary, their (11-20) and (21-30) years of tenure counterparts were more likely to express satisfaction with position on the pay scale, as with full benefits.

Table 6.13: Academic Satisfaction with Remuneration by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1-Position on pay scale (U)	24.6	14.6	45.8	60.0	31.5	P < 0.004*
2-Salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	9.2	16.7	8.3	4.8	10.4	P < 0.022
3- Opportunities to retire with full benefits	1.6	2.1	25.5	9.5	8.4	P < 0.000
4- Your fringe benefits	4.8	10.4	10.4	4.8	7.8	♣ n.s
5- Present pay, considering your skill and effort	20.0	2.1	8.3	0.0	7.6	P < 0.000
6- The levels of compensation in your university	4.8	2.1	8.3	5.6	5.0	n.s
7- Material resources connected with your work	3.3	2.1	6.3	9.5	3.9	n.s
8- Your retirement benefits	5.0	0.0	4.3	0.0	2.8	n.s

■ Factors with extrinsic elements (U) Unclassifiable factor ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

One possibility might be that respondents holding (> 10) years of tenure were relatively younger and, since this research has shown that younger dons were less irked with salary (See Section 5.1.2.1; Chapter, 5), it would seem apt to be assumed

that Ugandan academics satisfaction with salary tended to decrease with tenure. Put differently, as tenure increases, satisfaction with salary tends to decrease, which is reflective of the constraining environment that beset Ugandan academics (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter, 2). These data accord with the evidence produced by Fabgamiye (1981) that long-serving Nigerian dons were more disillusioned with salary than new entrants.

Analogously, long serving dons showed less discontent with pay scale and retirement benefits. Does this suggest that an increase in tenure impact on respondents' satisfaction with position on pay scale? It could well be that as tenure increases some IUIU and MUK dons, (through publication and teaching experience) get promoted. And since promotion leads to an increase in salary Oshagbemi (1998), it would seem intuitive to suggest that Ugandan academics satisfaction with pay scale tended to increase with tenure.

In sum, consistent with Herzberg's dichotomy remuneration contributed to Ugandan academics dissatisfaction. While new entrants signalled less discontent with salary and present pay, it is pertinent to highlight that long serving dons (> 10) years of tenure were less disenchanted with pay scale, as with retirement benefits. It must, nevertheless, be stressed that there was no consistent evidence to show that differences in academic tenure predicted remuneration satisfaction. The null hypothesis, however, is rejected for the four factors and not rejected for the remaining four factors (See Table 6.13).

6.3.2.2 The Influence of Tenure on Promotion Satisfaction

As with rank, (See Section 6.1.2.1; Chapter, 6) Ugandan academics satisfaction with promotion tended to increase with tenure (Table 6.14). Contrary to Herzberg's dichotomy, however, promotion-an *intrinsic* aspect of the job contributed to academic

dissatisfaction! Interestingly, these data suggest that Ugandan academics satisfaction with promotion prospects and criteria tended to increase with tenure. Does this suggest that an increase in tenure in IUIU and MUK has a corresponding increase in academic satisfaction with promotion?

If as this research has established, that the older Ugandan academics are, the more satisfaction they tend to derive from promotion (See 5.1.2.2; Chapter, 5), and given that promotion happens only at certain points in an academic career (Sanyal, 1995), it is logical that tenure showed a predictive effect on promotion.

Table 6.14: Academic Satisfaction with Promotion by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1- Number of publications in promotion	29.2	37.5	75.0	74.8	48.6	P < 0.000*
2- Personal growth and development	41.5	18.8	54.2	66.3	41.8	P < 0.004
3- Quality of publications in promotion criteria	26.2	27.7	56.3	81.4	40.9	P < 0.000
4-Promotion prospects	18.5	20.8	54.2	59.6	33.1	P < 0.003
5- Your chances of getting ahead in the university	23.1	18.8	37.5	51.7	28.6	♣ n.s
6- Opportunities for professional development	29.2	14.6	25.0	57.0	27.5	P < 0.009
7-Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	20.0	20.8	10.4	67.4	23.1	P < 0.000
8- Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	11.5	12.2	12.8	63.9	16.9	P < 0.000
9- Recognition of achievements in university	7.8	10.6	33.3	17.2	16.1	P < 0.001
10- Teaching skills in considering promotion	10.9	6.4	12.5	66.8	16.1	P < 0.000

☐ Intrinsic factors ■ Factor with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

This is perhaps why, in contrast to new entrants, long-serving dons were likely to be more delighted with opportunities for personal growth and development, as with promotion prospects (See Table 6.14).

In all, tenure-promotion satisfaction analyses evidenced more contrasts than similarities. As with age (See Section 5.1.2.2.; Chapter, 5), and rank (See 6.1.2.2; Chapter, 6), respondents satisfaction with promotion tended to increase with tenure. Based on these data, therefore, there is compelling evidence to suggest that academic tenure showed a predictive effect on Ugandan academics promotion satisfaction. Though satisfaction with promotion was relatively mild, it is useful to note that, in contrast to new entrants, respondents in the tenure category of (11-20) and (21-30) were likely to show less discontent with recognition of achievements in university,

personal growth and development, promotion prospects, opportunities for professional development, longevity of tenure, and devotion to teaching, as with quality and number of publications in promotion criteria. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the nine factors and not rejected for only one factor (See Table 6.14).

6.3.2.3 Tenure and Supervision Satisfaction

More differences than similarities were observed (Table 6.15). Not unexpectedly, respondents felt happy with their work time autonomy, which is reflective of the independent nature of academics also found by (Moses, 1986; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997) in Australia, and (Serow, 2000) in USA.

While respondents in the tenure group of (0-5) and (6-10) years were less irked by the amount of close supervision, as with support and guidance from supervisor, it is useful to note that their long serving counterparts felt happy with the supervisor's competence, as with overall freedom on the job. An inference might be that as tenure increases, dons gain skills in their tasks (some assume leadership positions) and subsequently tend to deserve less guidance and supervision.

Table 6.15: Academic Satisfaction with Supervision by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1-The autonomy you have from your supervisor	62.5	66.7	55.3	65.9	62.2	♣ n.s
2-The technical competence of your supervisor	48.4	45.8	87.0	70.9	60.3	P < 0.002*
3- Your overall freedom on the job	43.1	50.0	89.4	65.9	59.7	P < 0.003
4-Opportunities to do challenging work	52.3	45.8	73.9	66.0	57.8	P < 0.020
5-The responsibility you're are given to handle	50.8	56.3	59.6	66.0	56.4	n.s
6- Your work time autonomy	57.1	57.4	51.1	56.0	55.6	P < 0.038
7- The freedom to try new ideas and programmes	33.8	27.1	72.3	76.2	47.0	P < 0.000
8- Supervisor's concern for the welfare of staff	36.9	29.2	58.7	66.3	43.9	n.s
9-Supervisor's concern for task accomplishment	50.8	35.4	29.8	51.4	41.3	P < 0.021
10- Supervisor's success in getting people to work	47.7	39.6	23.9	46.4	39.4	P < 0.038
11- The overall quality of supervision you receive	43.1	29.2	28.3	41.6	35.6	n.s
12-Support & guidance received from supervisor	43.1	27.1	34.0	26.6	34.8	P < 0.004
13-Feedback from your supervisor	41.5	22.9	30.4	41.6	33.9	P < 0.001
14- The amount of close supervision	43.1	31.3	14.9	11.9	29.3	P < 0.007

■ Factor with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

This finding is broadly consistent with the notion that many academics do not see themselves as belonging to a structure that has to be managed at all (Middlehurst, 1993). Moreover, research findings accord with the evidence that new faculty in USA valued chairpersons who encouraged them to change, who facilitated their efforts, who recognised and rewarded effort, and who were knowledgeable about curriculum and instruction matters (Falk, 1979; Hammons, 1984).

Furthermore, while respondents in the tenure category of (0-5) and (21-30) years were more likely to be delighted by feedback from supervisor, their counterparts with (6-10) and (11-20) years showed least happiness. These data would seem to suggest that Ugandan academics satisfaction with supervisor's feedback and success is U shaped. This scenario could be attributed to the enthusiasm of new beginners as reported in the UK by Oshagbemi (1996), and the advisory role and professional expertise of long-serving dons, many of whom tend to appreciate academic values and have insight into the abilities and weaknesses of their colleagues (Bennett 1988).

Overall, the tenure-supervision analyses revealed more contrasts than commonalty. While respondents in the tenure category of (0-5) and (6-10) years showed less discontent with support and guidance from the job, as with close supervision, it is useful to note that long-serving dons felt happy with competence of supervisor, opportunities to do challenging work, the freedom to try new ideas and programs, supervisors concern for tasks, as with overall freedom on the job. Based on these data, therefore, tenure showed a significant influence on academic supervision satisfaction. Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the ten factors, and not rejected for four factors (See Table 6.15).

6.3.2.4 The Influence of Tenure on Co-worker Behaviour Satisfaction

In contrast to Herzberg's theory, Ugandan academics evoked satisfaction from co-worker behaviour, an *extrinsic* aspect of the job (Table 6.16). While respondents in the tenure group of (0-5) and (6-10) years were more likely to derive satisfaction from collegial commitment and professional interaction at work, it is useful to note that their long serving counterparts felt happier with collegial meetings, as with personal interest shown by staff. Does this suggest that tenure accorded long serving dons in IUIU and MUK more delight from collegial relation and integration?

Table 6.16: Academic Satisfaction with Co-workers by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1- Your relationship with others	82.3	74.5	79.2	90.2	80.2	♣ n.s
2- The respect you earn from fellow employees	81.0	70.8	85.4	85.7	80.0	n.s
3- Confidence and trust you have in co-workers	61.5	64.6	81.3	90.8	70.9	n.s
4- The level of personal interest staff have in you	59.7	57.4	79.2	85.0	67.2	P < 0.025*
5-The value of meetings with colleagues at work	64.6	41.7	72.9	75.9	62.1	P < 0.016
6- The sense of community in your university	54.0	41.7	72.9	61.0	56.7	n.s
7- The "social support" from colleagues at work	66.2	56.3	39.6	56.0	55.5	P < 0.006
8-Professional interaction at work	72.6	54.2	31.3	61.0	55.3	P < 0.003
9- Opportunities to get to know others	66.2	52.1	35.4	56.0	53.3	P < 0.002
10-Congeniality by colleagues at work	59.3	54.2	45.8	46.1	52.8	n.s
11-Collegial relations in your faculty	63.1	42.6	43.8	56.1	51.9	P < 0.016
12-The degree of competence of co-workers	44.6	68.8	40.4	51.1	50.8	P < 0.003
13-The level of commitment by colleagues at work	60.0	52.1	31.3	41.1	48.4	P < 0.032
14-The degree of faculty morale	47.7	43.8	20.8	46.4	39.6	P < 0.009

■ Factor with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

One possibility might be that such dons, as one would expect, tend to hold senior positions, which might give them the leverage to be influential in departmental business thus attracting interest from co-workers. These data though broadly consistent with previously reported evidence, (Mottaz, 1987; Enders and Teichler, 1997), they provide no empirical support for Fabgamiye's (1981) findings on Nigerian academics.

It is notable, however, that academics in the tenure bracket of (11-20) years were least happy with faculty morale, as with the opportunities to know others. The explanation for this scenario is not immediately clear but may echo the evidence produced by

Oshagbemi (1998) that such dons having appraised and appreciated the realities of their job, feel that they not only merit but deserve promotion. Perhaps realising that their aspirations are being thwarted by the promotion systems in IUIU and MUK, academics in the tenure group of (11-20) years decide to *withdraw* from co-workers, which might impact on their morale, as with collegial relations and integration (See Table 6.15). This scenario might perhaps explain why dons in the tenure category of (6-10) and (11-20) years showed least content with professional interaction at work.

Overall, tenure-co-worker analyses evidenced more contrasts than similarities. While respondents felt happy with co-worker behaviour, it is notable that long serving dons were more likely to derive satisfaction from collegial meetings, and interest shown by co-workers. New entrants, however, were more delighted with competence and commitment of co-workers, faculty morale and social support, collegial relations, and professional interaction at work, as with opportunities to know others. Based on these data, therefore, differences in academic tenure influenced significantly differences in co-worker satisfaction. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected for the nine factors, and not rejected for the remaining five (See Table 6.16).

6.3.2.5 Tenure-Working Conditions Satisfaction

Respondents showed discontent with *extrinsic* facets of their working environment like library and computer facilities (Table 6.17).

This was expected considering the inhibiting environment in which Ugandan academics operate (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2). For instance, it is reported that in MUK research had virtually ceased. Indeed, in 1990 only 24 papers for journals were produced (Sanyal, 1995).

Interestingly, while respondents were disillusioned with *extrinsic* factors like library facilities, other *context* facets in their working environment such as location of, and

association with, their university contributed to their satisfaction! Does this suggest that *extrinsic* facets in the working environment of Ugandan academics contributed to their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as well? These data therefore, are at variance with Herzberg's *extrinsic/intrinsic* dichotomy where the two are treated as bipolar elements leading to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Table 6.17: Academic Satisfaction with Working Environment by Tenure (n=182)

Factor	Present University Tenure (Years)					χ^2 statistic (d.f.= 8)
	0-5 (n=65)	6-10 (n= 48)	11-20 (n=48)	21-30 (n=21)	All Tenure	
1-The geographic location of the university	69.2	72.3	91.7	75.0	76.2	P < 0.013*
2- Being associated with your university	47.7	62.5	85.4	82.4	64.8	P < 0.003
3 Distance between university and your residence	44.6	59.6	87.5	93.4	64.6	P < 0.004
4- The freedom of your life style	35.9	41.7	81.3	77.3	53.6	P < 0.000
5- The beauty of the campus you work in	26.2	44.7	79.2	72.2	49.7	P < 0.000
6- The obtaining social environment	34.4	27.7	68.1	66.2	45.3	P < 0.006
7- Degree of day-to-day enjoyment on your job	36.9	29.2	33.3	51.4	35.2	♣ n.s
8-Space for you to work during non-teaching time	24.6	33.3	45.8	35.0	33.5	n.s
9-The feeling of security	32.3	27.1	41.7	22.3	31.9	n.s
10-The intellectual stimulation of your university	24.6	16.7	31.3	47.1	26.4	P < 0.020
11-Clerical and technical assistance offered	6.2	23.4	47.9	28.0	23.8	P < 0.001
12-Your access to computer and library facilities	20.0	25.5	4.2	9.5	15.5	P < 0.002
13- The environment in which you work	10.8	18.8	18.8	17.6	15.4	n.s
14-The overall research facilities available	7.9	12.8	2.1	5.7	7.3	n.s
15-Facilities for relaxation	9.2	6.4	6.3	5.7	7.2	n.s

□ Intrinsic factors ■ Factors with extrinsic elements ♣ n.s Not significant *Significant at .05 level

While dons in their (0-5) and (6-10) years of tenure were less irked with computer and library facilities, it can be seen that their long serving counterparts showed more delight with the obtaining social environment, as with the freedom of life style. Does this suggest that satisfaction with the general social environment and life style in IUIU and MUK tended to increase with tenure? Arguably, if older dons appreciate the rewards the work can provide more than their younger counterparts as shown earlier (See Section 5.1.2.5; Chapter, 5), it is apt to infer that long serving dons as reported by Enders and Teichler, (1997) rated their satisfaction with working environment higher than new entrants.

In sum, while new entrants showed less disillusionment with instructional and computing facilities, it is notable their that long serving counterparts felt happier with

the obtaining social environment, the beauty of the campus, location of, and proximity to university, the freedom of life style, secretarial support, and intellectual stimulation of, and association with university. Consequently, these statistical differences at .05 level of significance suggest that tenure showed a predictive influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction with co-worker behaviour. Accordingly, the null hypothesis is rejected for the nine factors and not rejected for the remaining six (See Table 6.17).

6.4 Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Ugandan Academics by Tenure: Free-Response Data

As with rank, factors contributory to Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction based on present university tenure were partitioned between new entrants (0-10) years, and long-serving respondents in the tenure category of (11-30) years. Overall, there were notable aspects like co-workers, which delighted both groups, and remuneration that was a source of discontent to all respondents. Consistent with Likert scale, and interview data, however, long-serving respondents were likely to show less disenchanted with promotion. Results of the findings are summarised below.

Table 6.18: Factors Contributing most to Ugandan Academics Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction by Tenure (years)

Job Aspect (Years)	Satisfaction factors by (> 50%) of Respondents		Dissatisfaction factors by (> 50%) of Respondents	
	(0-10) (n=94)	(11-30) (n=44)	(0-10) (n=111)	(11-30) (n=48)
Teaching	Student relationship Identity as lecturer	Content taught Recognition of skills	Marking answer scripts Teaching load	Instructional facilities
Research	None	Research/publications Research recognition	Grants/funds for research Research time available	Quality of intellectual life Sabbatical programs
Governance	None	Influence in the Dept.	Secretarial support Time spent on admin.	Relationship with admin. Comm. with admin.
Remuneration	None	None	Gaps in salary scales	Salary/retirement benefits
Promotion	Promotion prospects	None	Teaching in promotion	Opportunities for publishing
Co-workers	Respect earned Collegial meetings	Social support Professional interaction	None	None

Dept. =Department

Admin. =Administration

6.02 Summary

The impact of tenure on Ugandan academics satisfaction with eight aspects of their job has been examined. Relative to teaching, while new entrants were likely to show less discontent with *extrinsic* factors, long serving respondents felt happier with *intrinsic* facets. No consistent evidence, however, was found to show that tenure influenced respondents satisfaction with teaching. In contrast to Herzberg's theory, research an *intrinsic* aspect contributed to respondents dissatisfaction. Differences in tenure, however, consistently predicted Ugandan academics research satisfaction. Governance contributed to dons dissatisfaction than satisfaction. No evidence, however, was observed to suggest that tenure consistently influenced Ugandan academics governance satisfaction.

Not unexpectedly, and consistent with the research literature Ugandan academics were disenchanted with remuneration. Data showed that differences in tenure did not influence differences in remuneration satisfaction. Relative to promotion, the data evidenced more contrasts than similarities. There was compelling evidence to suggest that academic tenure showed a predictive effect on Ugandan academics promotion satisfaction. As with promotion, the data produced overriding evidence to show that supervision satisfaction tended to increase with tenure among Ugandan dons. In contrast to Herzberg's theory, respondents expressed satisfaction with co-worker behaviour, an *extrinsic* aspect of academic work. It was found that differences in academic tenure influenced significantly differences in co-worker satisfaction of Ugandan academics. Contrary to Herzberg's theory, it was of interest to note that *extrinsic* factors contributed to respondents satisfaction and dissatisfaction with working facilities. Tenure, however, showed a predictive influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction with their working environment.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS FOR JOB SATISFACTION OF UGANDAN ACADEMICS, AND FOR RESEARCH AGENDA

The principal objectives of the study were to:

- (a) Identify the factors that contribute to job satisfaction of Ugandan academics
- (b) Identify the factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction of Ugandan academics
- (c) Examine the influence of age and gender on Ugandan academics satisfaction as measured by each of the eight aspects of their job
- (d) Explore the impact of rank and tenure on Ugandan dons satisfaction relative to each of the eight job aspects

This chapter presents the principal conclusions, their implications for academic job satisfaction in Uganda, and suggestions for further research.

7.0. Conclusions regarding Academic Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Core Obligations

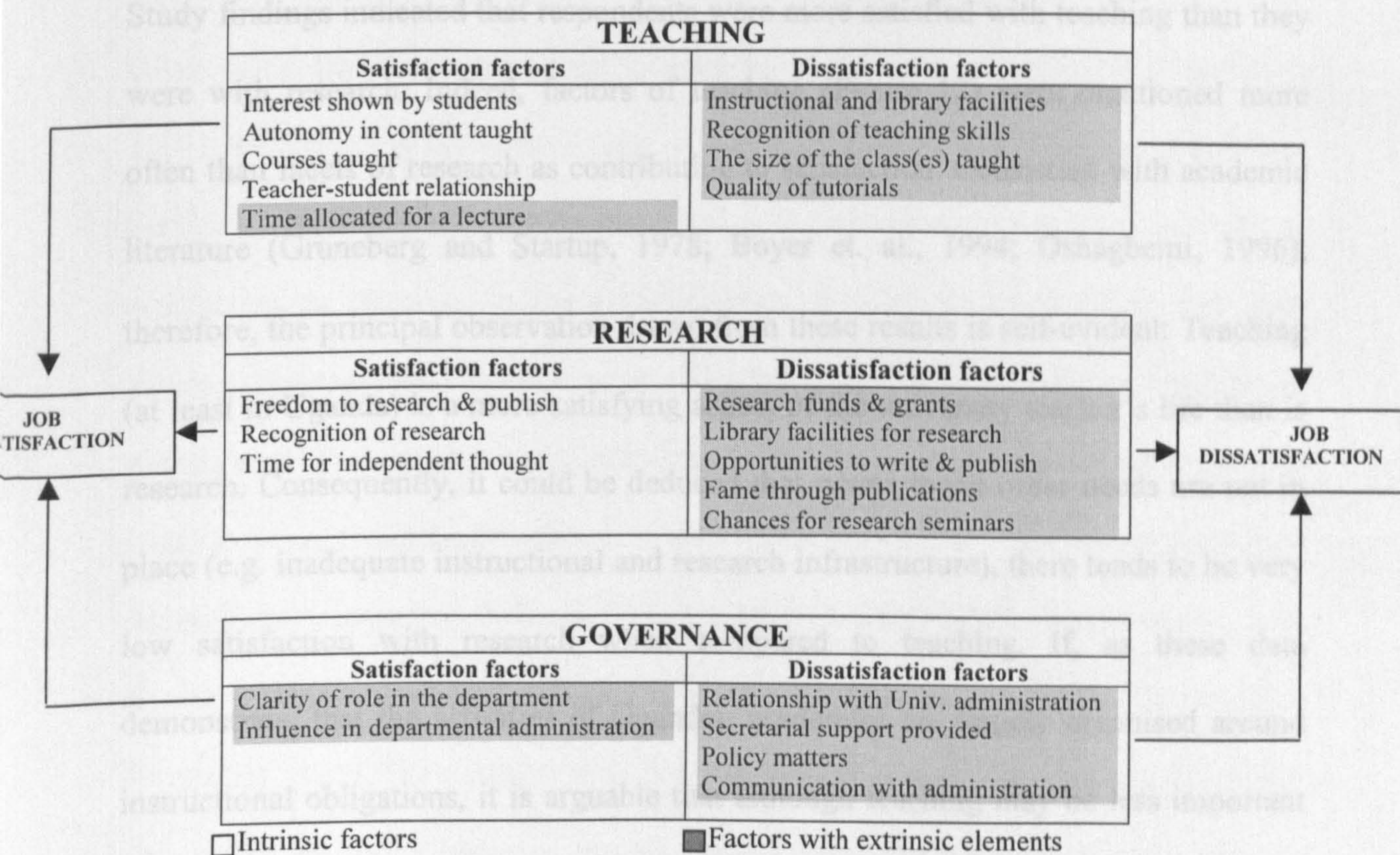
Data is not wisdom and the researcher has good reasons not to overemphasise the survey results from only IUIU and MUK-two out of twelve universities in Uganda. It would seem fair, nevertheless, to draw some conclusions from the findings and experiences of this study for the debate on the academic profession in Uganda.

(a) Teaching

Given that IUIU and MUK are teaching-intensive institutions, teaching is the main activity and perhaps primary interest of most of the responding academics. Congruent with the Herzberg et al., (1959) dichotomy, the findings of this study indicated that *intrinsic* factors of teaching were most prevalent in the prediction of job satisfaction of Ugandan academics. Indeed, 92 percent were satisfied with courses taught, the

most common reason given for this being the exercise of control which the individual had on content of his/her course. Figure 12 represents a possible model of Ugandan academics satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their core obligations. Consequently, the current notion in the literature that academics enter university teaching because of intellectual pleasure (Altbach, 1996) or the enjoyment they receive (McKeachie, 1982; Serow, 2000) was sustained.

Figure 12: Model of Ugandan Academics Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Primary Duties



It is potentially instructive, however, to note that these data are at variance with the contention that where lower order needs (*extrinsic*) factors are not met, (See Section 2.6.1& 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) higher order needs (*intrinsic*) cannot come into play as sources of satisfaction (Maslow, 1954; Evans, 1997), and particularly in the context of low-resource countries (Garrett, 1999). Based on these findings, (See Figure 12) it is conclusive that despite the arduous working conditions (Mujaju, 1996), and the

mismatch between instructional and student numbers (Tizikara, 1998), Ugandan dons seem satisfied with *intrinsic* facets of their job, particularly teaching and research and, unsurprisingly, dissatisfied with *extrinsic* features of their academic role.

Not unexpectedly, given the findings discussed (See Section 4.2.1.2; Chapter, 4) MUK respondents evoked significantly more satisfaction from teaching than their IUIU colleagues.

(b) Research

Study findings indicated that respondents were more satisfied with teaching than they were with research. Indeed, factors of teaching (Figure 12) were mentioned more often than facets of research as contributing to satisfaction. Consistent with academic literature (Gruneberg and Startup, 1978; Boyer et. al., 1994; Oshagbemi, 1996), therefore, the principal observation drawn from these results is self-evident: Teaching (at least in Uganda) is a more satisfying aspect of the university teacher's life than is research. Consequently, it could be deduced that where lower order needs are not in place (e.g. inadequate instructional and research infrastructure), there tends to be very low satisfaction with research when compared to teaching. If, as these data demonstrate, that the activities of Ugandan academics are largely organised around instructional obligations, it is arguable that although teaching may be less important than research as a criterion of promotion (See Section 4.3.2.1; Chapter, 4) it is more salient in everyday practice. Moreover, while research is done independently, teaching is public action, subject to public criticism (Chen et al., in Altbach, 1996).

From the findings, therefore, there emerges among respondents a clear commitment to *intrinsic* factors of teaching, but relatively less pervasive commitment and delight with research. Put differently, Ugandan dons do not display the level of satisfaction for research that they do for teaching. This is not surprising given that IUIU and MUK

are largely teaching-intensive universities, in dire need of facilities suitable to sustain an academic community (See Section 4.2.2.1; Chapter, 4). Other studies seem to support these findings. Indeed, SSA universities generate too little new knowledge and direct development support (Habte, 1989). Though publications *per se*, do not necessarily generate new knowledge, it is estimated that African university researchers in the natural and biological sciences produce, on average, one scientific publication every seven years (Gaillard and Waast, 1991). Not surprisingly, thus, in MUK only 24 papers for journals were produced in 1990 (Sanyal, 1995).

Given that research output is directly related to the amount invested in research (Saint, 1992), the paucity of resources to ensure sustainable research funding and grants (See Section 2.6.1; Chapter, 2) can be associated with Ugandan dons declining interest and satisfaction in research. In the circumstances, it is apt to be deduced that most Ugandan dons as found elsewhere Altbach (1982), are largely *consuming intellectuals* transmitters of knowledge to students from those who do write and who participate in creative work. Consistent with the evidence that MUK has better instructional and institutional resources than IUIU (Tizikara, 1998), MUK respondents were significantly more satisfied with research than their IUIU counterparts. The results of the present study, thus, concur with the Herzberg et al., (1959) theory to the extent that while *intrinsic* factors of teaching and research evoked Ugandan academics satisfaction, (Figure 10) *extrinsic* facets were largely associated with dissatisfaction.

(c) Governance

While governance irked Ugandan dons, it can be seen that respondents were relatively satisfied with the decision-making process at the department level, where 56 percent felt that their role was very clear, and 35 percent felt very influential. This sense of involvement and satisfaction, however, quickly dissipated (Figure 12) as decisions

moved to institutional level, which was reflected by academic dissatisfaction with policy, communication, and relationship with university administrators. Similar findings were adduced by previous research. Blair (1991) found that African universities tend to be expensive, inefficient and inadequately financed leading to inflexible management of staffing resources. For instance, at MUK the office of the university secretary was considered as very powerful and had eliminated academics from the decision-making process (Sanyal, 1995).

Given that respondents were irked by the more hierarchical, more rigid governance structure, academic dissatisfaction with governance was high, and certainly a cause for concern. Consequently, from the findings and discussions as presented in (Section 4.2.3& 4.2.3.1; Chapter, 4), it is conclusive that Ugandan academics, at least in IUIU and MUK, and perhaps as their colleagues elsewhere, (Boyer, 1994; Lewis and Altbach, 1996) are moderately satisfied with departmental administration, but express dissatisfaction with institutional governance. While Ugandan academics were irked by institutional governance, study findings concur with Tizikara (1998) evidence, that MUK dons more than IUIU respondents, were significantly satisfied with secretarial support provided, and less likely to show discontent with office space.

7.0.1 Conclusions pertaining to Academic Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with other Aspects of the Job

What follows are key conclusions arising from sources of academic satisfaction and disillusionment with six aspects investigated in this study.

(a) Remuneration

Not unexpectedly, given the plight of Ugandan dons (Mujaju, 1996) respondents were dissatisfied with remuneration which, lends credence to Herzberg's (1959) contention that pay being an *extrinsic* aspect does not lead to true gratification. Consistent with several studies (Mujaju, 1996; Tizikara, 1998) discussed in (Section 2.6.1; Chapter,

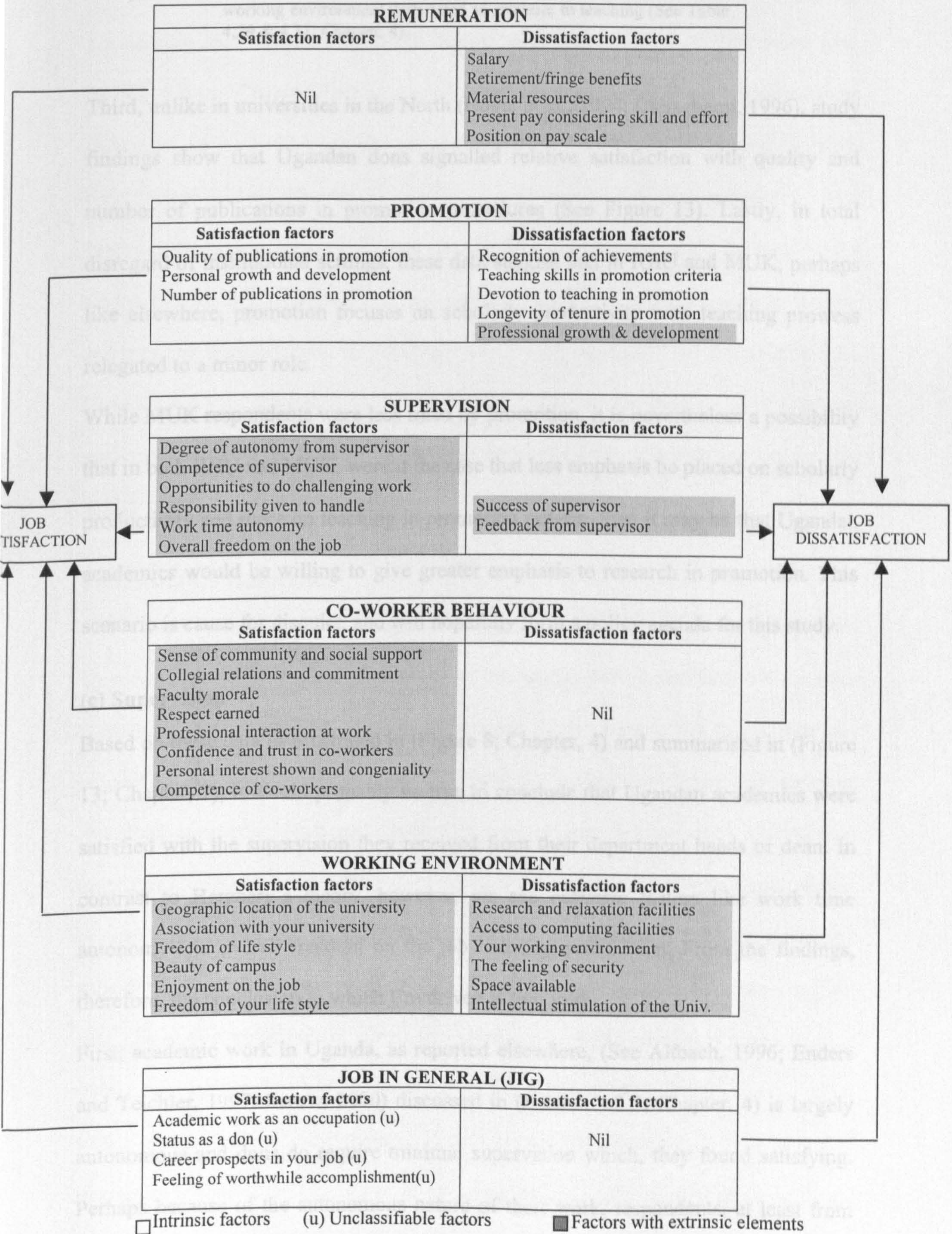
2), therefore, it is conclusive that Ugandan dons are dissatisfied with their remuneration. In particular, their salaries are not competitive with comparable professionals in private and public sectors. Inflation has further eroded their incomes (World Bank, 1994) leading to a deterioration of their retirement expectations.

Consequently, a good many Ugandan dons have been forced to take other jobs, thereby dividing their loyalty to their employer, and reducing their commitment to their university obligations. It is notable, however, that while IUIU dons signalled discontent with erratic pay, inadequate emoluments irked their MUK counterparts.

(b) Promotion

As the results indicate, (Figure 13) Ugandan dons were dissatisfied with promotion. Consequently, four key observations emerge: First, given that promotion would lead to an increase in pay (Oshagbemi, 1996), it is plausible to deduce that Ugandan dons dissatisfaction with promotion is in part, explainable by inadequate and erratic pay (See Section 4.3.1.2; Chapter, 4). Second, respondents dissatisfaction with promotion arose *inter alia* from their being unappreciated and unrecognised for achievements made, where 58 percent of the sample felt unhappy (See Table 4.23; Chapter, 4). Contrary to Herzberg's dichotomy, therefore, we see recognition, an *intrinsic* factor, inducing job dissatisfaction.

Figure 13: Model of Ugandan Academics Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with Other Job Aspects



N.B It should be noted that all factors relating to co-worker and working environment were rated as *extrinsic* to teaching (See Table 4.29 & 4.31; Chapter, 4).

Third, unlike in universities in the North (Boyer et al., 1994; Oshagbemi, 1996), study findings show that Ugandan dons signalled relative satisfaction with quality and number of publications in promotion procedures (See Figure 13). Lastly, in total disregard of institutional settings, these data suggest that in IUIU and MUK, perhaps like elsewhere, promotion focuses on scholarly productivity with teaching prowess relegated to a minor role.

While MUK respondents were less irked by promotion, it is nevertheless a possibility that in both IUIU and MUK, were it the case that less emphasis be placed on scholarly productivity and more on teaching in promotion criteria, then it may be that Ugandan academics would be willing to give greater emphasis to research in promotion. This scenario is cause for disquiet, and will hopefully form a policy agenda for this study.

(c) Supervision

Based on these data as illustrated in (Figure 8; Chapter, 4) and summarised in (Figure 13; Chapter, 7), it would probably be true to conclude that Ugandan academics were satisfied with the supervision they received from their department heads or dean. In contrast to Herzberg's theory, however, we see *extrinsic* factors like work time autonomy and overall freedom on the job inducing satisfaction. From the findings, therefore, the conclusion to which I'm driven is two fold:

First, academic work in Uganda, as reported elsewhere, (See Altbach, 1996; Enders and Teichler, 1997; Serow, 2000) discussed in (Section 4.3.3; Chapter, 4) is largely autonomous and dons do require minimal supervision which, they found satisfying. Perhaps because of the autonomous nature of their work, respondents, at least from

the sample of this study, felt that heads of their units or academic deans were competent and concerned with their welfare and tasks. These data are not surprising considering that Ugandan dons felt happy with departmental administration (See Section 7.0 (c); Chapter, 7). Not unexpectedly, given the arduous working conditions (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2), and the economic need to do supplementary work (See Section 7.01(a); Chapter, 7) responding academics expressed dissatisfaction with feedback from, and success of supervisor in getting people to work. Seemingly, the findings echo lack of facilitation and communication on appraisal, which, in part, explains the dissatisfaction in IUIU and MUK with the quality of supervision (See Section 4.3.3.2; Chapter, 4). Consequently, this is an area where, perhaps, performance could be improved, and will hopefully form a policy agenda for this study.

(d) Co-worker Behaviour

The general conclusion that emerges from the data (See Figure 13) is self-evident: Ugandan dons, at least from the sample of this study, evoked satisfaction from their colleagues' behaviour. Indeed, over 80 percent of the sample felt happy with the respect earned, as with interpersonal relationships. Consistent with research literature, therefore, it is conclusive that there were no perverse interpersonal relationships among respondents. Collegiality, thus, prevailed among Ugandan academics. Again, as with supervision, we see co-worker behaviour, an *extrinsic* aspect of work evoking satisfaction. This is, however, far from suggesting that Ugandan dons are conflict-free, given that conflicts are prone to low-resource organisational settings (Kraus, 1980), and universities are far from being congenial places (Serow, 2000). What would seem intuitive, nevertheless, is that co-worker behaviour is one area that university managers in Uganda need to strengthen, considering that dons need one

another in the performance of their duties. Besides, collegial relations predict rather strongly the intention to leave one's work place (Manger and Eikeland, 1990).

(e) Working Environment

At variance with Herzberg's et al., (1959) dichotomy, data in Figure 13 showed that *extrinsic* facets in the working environment contributed to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. What emerges suggests that while satisfaction was coming from the *physical conditions* in their environment like beauty and geographic location of the university, Ugandan dons attributed most dissatisfaction to *working facilities* like research, instructional and computing facilities where, 75 percent of the sample were dissatisfied (See Section 4.3.5.1; Chapter, 4).

It would seem, therefore, that continuing expansion and diminishing resources have characterised academic landscape in IUIU and MUK. Arguably, factors related to institutional resources for instruction and research impact upon Ugandan dons perceptions of their working environment which, in turn, influence levels of dissatisfaction. What is immediately conclusive, therefore, is that in Ugandan universities, at least in IUIU and MUK, while *intrinsic* factors of teaching and to some extent research contribute to academic satisfaction, *extrinsic* facets of work like security, computing and research facilities over which dons have limited control, induce dissatisfaction. It is useful to note, however, that unlike IUIU dons, MUK respondents were less disenchanted with their working environment (See Section 4.3.5.2; Chapter, 4).

(f) Job in General (JIG)

Strikingly, while these data have indicated obvious areas of dissatisfaction like remuneration, research and working facilities, the overall picture (JIG) as illustrated in

Figure 13 is not as gloomy. Indeed, it can be seen (Table 4.34; Chapter, 4) that over 80 percent of respondents evoked satisfaction from academic work as an occupation. What would seem conspicuous from the findings, thus, is that while being asked by administrators and policy makers to do more with fewer resources, Ugandan dons are being told, at least from the sample of this study, that they should not expect to be facilitated or rewarded financially for meeting ever increasing demands. Yet, while obviously frustrated by arduous working conditions and poor emoluments, when asked about their job in general (JIG), most respond that it is satisfactory. Looking ahead, it seems safe to predict that the high degree of control academics have over *intrinsic* elements of their work (Pearson and Seiler, 1983; Moses, 1986) and the intellectual pleasure derived (Altbach, 1996), or the degree of autonomy in academics (Enders and Teichler, 1997; Serow, 2000) contributes to overall satisfaction. This scenario would seem to be a fruitful avenue of future investigation.

7.1. Conclusions pertaining to Age and Job Satisfaction of Ugandan Dons

This section presents the conclusions drawn from the findings and discussions with respect to age in Chapter 5 of this study.

7.1.1 Age and Ugandan Academics Satisfaction with Core Duties

This section will highlight key observations emerging from the findings and discussion on academic age and traditional obligations.

(a) Age-Teaching Satisfaction

Study findings conveyed overwhelming evidence to show that age has a significant influence on teaching satisfaction. Consistent with the many studies (See Section 5.1.1.1; Chapter, 5), therefore, the current notion in the literature that age has an influence on teaching satisfaction was sustained. It must, nevertheless, be stressed that while older academics attributed satisfaction largely to *intrinsic* elements of their

instructional obligations, satisfaction for younger dons was coming from mainly *extrinsic* factors of teaching.

(b) Age and Research Satisfaction

As with teaching, age was found to have a significant impact on Ugandan academics research satisfaction. In contrast to teaching, however, older Ugandan dons were more likely to derive satisfaction from both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors of research. (See Section 5.1.1.2; Chapter, 5). This scenario was attributed to the possibility that older dons, unlike their younger counterparts, tend to be more *visible* through experience, publications and research. Indeed, Clark et al., (1996) concluded that among British employees the strong association between age and job satisfaction was largely due to changes in expectations with increasing age. It would seem, therefore, that as a result of more skilful approach to the task and their consequent better performance of key aspects of research, older academics were more likely to rate their satisfaction higher than their younger colleagues.

(c) Age-Governance Satisfaction

Consistent with the research literature, (See Fagbamiye, 1981; Tizikara, 1998) there was marked dissatisfaction with governance by dons of all age groups. It is appropriate to highlight, however, that while younger academics attributed their satisfaction to communication and involvement in institutional administration, older dons were satisfied with their influence in the department, as with secretarial support provided. On the whole, however, there was lack of corroborative evidence to suggest that academic age has a predictive impact on governance satisfaction.

7.1.1.2 Age and Academic Satisfaction with other Aspects

This section is a summary of general conclusions arising from the findings and discussion on the influence of age on five aspects of the academic job.

(a) Age and Remuneration Satisfaction

While older dons were likely to attribute their satisfaction to position on pay scale, it is appropriate to highlight that respondents were more similar than different in their dissatisfaction with remuneration (See Section 5.1.2.1; Chapter, 5). Considering that there was no evidence to suggest that academic age has a predictive effect on remuneration satisfaction, the view that has been repeatedly confirmed in the literature in Uganda (Kajubi, 1992; Ocitti, 1993; Passi, 1994) that salaries are not commensurate with academic credentials was upheld by this study.

(b) Age-Promotion Satisfaction

In contrast to remuneration, there was overwhelming evidence from the data to suggest that age has a significant influence on promotion satisfaction. The general picture that emerges from the findings would seem to suggest that despite the enthusiasm of younger dons as reported elsewhere (Oshagbemi, 1996), they were dissatisfied with the rigorous promotion criteria in IUIU and MUK. Congruent with Enders and Teichler's (1997) findings, therefore, it is concluded, at least from the sample of this study, that the older Uganda dons are, the more satisfaction they tend to derive from promotion. Moreover, if as these data have demonstrated that older Ugandan academics were more satisfied with *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors of research, (See Section 7.0 (b); Chapter, 7), then it can be deduced that age has a predictive influence on promotion.

(c) The Influence of Age on Supervision

Considering that older respondents, more than their younger colleagues, expressed greater satisfaction with supervision, it would probably be true to conclude that satisfaction with supervision among Ugandan dons is linear and positive. Academic age, thus, at least from the sample of this study, has a significant impact on

supervision satisfaction. Consistent with Finkelstein (1984) findings, therefore, this study supports the notion that academic satisfaction with supervision is highly related to one's level of autonomy over the work environment.

(d) Age and Co-worker Behaviour Satisfaction

While respondents expressed satisfaction with their co-workers, it is important to note that younger dons were more likely to attribute their satisfaction to interpersonal relations and professional interaction at work. Satisfaction for older academics, however, was coming from personal interest staff have in them. What these data seem to reveal as found in the literature (Siassi et al., 1975; Mottaz, 1987) is that, because older dons tend to hold senior positions, and are recognised as elders and opinion leaders in university communities, they tend to signal more satisfaction with collegial relations. The conclusion to which I'm driven, therefore, is that academic age is significantly related to satisfaction with co-workers because more seniority and work experience accords older Ugandan dons greater satisfaction with collegial relations.

(e) The Influence of Age on Working Environment

Study findings suggest that older academics were more likely to show greater satisfaction with working environment than their younger colleagues. Consequently, there is evidence to show that academic age has a significant influence on working environment satisfaction. What stands out as conclusive, thus, corroborates (Rhodes, 1983; Lee and Wilbur, 1985; Enders and Teichler, 1997) findings that older workers, perhaps because of seniority and experience, appreciate the rewards work can provide more than their younger counterparts. Arguably, older Ugandan dons may simply gain esteem by virtue of the length of time spent on the job, and consequently express greater satisfaction with working environment than their younger counterparts.

7.2. Conclusions pertaining to Gender and Job Satisfaction of Ugandan Dons

This section presents the conclusions drawn from the findings and discussions relative to gender in Chapter 5 of this study.

7.2.1 Gender and Academic Satisfaction with Primary Duties

General conclusions arising from academic satisfaction with core responsibilities are highlighted in this section.

(a) Teaching, Research, and Administration

In contrast to age, which had a significant influence on Ugandan dons job satisfaction with respect to six aspects, notably teaching, research, promotion, supervision, co-worker behaviour, and working environment, gender demonstrated no significant impact on all the eight job aspects of the academic job. Put differently, while the impact of age on respondents job satisfaction yielded more contrasts than similarities, Ugandan men and women dons' opinions overlapped. Consequently, as the findings on gender are largely not significant, no strong inferences can be made. It is appropriate, however, to note that some aspects which stand out as discriminating between male and female respondents (though not significant) merit attention.

Relative to teaching, while both men and women dons attributed satisfaction to *intrinsic* factors, it is useful to note that the former more than the latter, were likely to derive satisfaction from *extrinsic* facets like marking answer scripts, and time allocated for a lecture (See Section 5.1.1.1; Chapter, 5). Consequently, the pattern recurring in the literature that women appear to be more positively oriented to teaching (Poole et al., 1997) was not supported by this study.

With respect to research, Ugandan male dons more than comparable females, were likely to attribute their satisfaction to research. In particular, women academics, perhaps because of family-work conflict, were likely to signal dissatisfaction with

research time available (See Section 5.3.1.2; Chapter, 5). The general tentative conclusion that emerges from the results, therefore, would seem to concur with the notion that the job model and career structure of research which require long hours are often assumed incompatible with the dual responsibilities of women (Collings, 1992 in Poole et.al., 1997). Arguably, the gendered nature of academic work (Caplan, 1994; Sutherland, 1994) coupled with the masculine character of the Ugandan society (Nassali-Lukwaago, 1998) could have influenced Ugandan women's exceedingly low rating of research.

Seemingly, though the organisational culture of IUIU and MUK appeared not to be women-friendly, it is useful to stress that as with age, no evidence was adduced to suggest that gender has as a significant impact on academic governance satisfaction. It would seem safe to conclude, therefore, that Ugandan men and women dons (as with respondents of all age groups) (See Section 7.1.1 (c); Chapter, 7) overlapped broadly in their dissatisfaction with institutional governance. This scenario, in part, lends support to Herzberg's theory, and justifiably, echoes the need to rethink the policy governing appointment and training of university administrators and managers in Uganda.

7.2.1.1 Gender and Academic Satisfaction with other Job Aspects

A summary of the impact of gender on five other aspects of Ugandan dons is highlighted below.

(a) Gender and Remuneration Satisfaction

While Ugandan women dons were less likely to express dissatisfaction with their salary, no credible evidence was found to suggest that gender has a significant influence on remuneration satisfaction. Concurrent with the literature, (Toren, 1990; Poole et al., 1997) in (See Section 5.4.1.1; Chapter, 5) study findings suggest gender

stratification, precisely with women largely under-represented and less integrated into formal and informal structures of Uganda academia. Nonetheless, consistent with Tizikara's (1998) findings, it is concluded that Ugandan dons irrespective of gender are dissatisfied with their remuneration.

(b) Gender-Promotion Satisfaction

Relative to promotion, while Ugandan men and women dons overlapped broadly in their satisfaction with promotion, it must, nevertheless, be stressed that the former were less likely to show discontent with recognition of achievements in university. Consequently, given that the academic labour market is segregated and sex-typed (Toren, 1990), and considering that women respondents seem to have less time for research (See Section 7.2.1 (a); Chapter, 7), it is concluded that Ugandan women dons more than comparable men, were likely to attribute their dissatisfaction to promotion.

(c) The Influence of Gender on Supervision

As found in the literature, (Hawkins and Schultz, 1990) while women respondents more than comparable men, felt that IUIU and MUK exclude their full participation and integration into the formal and informal structures, there was no strong evidence to suggest that gender has a predictive effect on supervision satisfaction.

(d) Gender and Co-worker Behaviour Satisfaction

Despite working in a world that is not women friendly, female respondents were highly likely to signal more morale than comparable men. Though no evidence was adduced to suggest a gender influence on co-worker satisfaction, one principal observation emerges. Study findings are germane to the evidence that female academics, more than comparable males, are satisfied with the personally and intellectually enriching nature of an academic position (Olsen et al., 1992), and

women tend to be slightly more satisfied in their career than males (Hickson and Oshagbemi, 1999).

(e) Gender and Working Environment

Not unexpectedly, given the arduous nature of Ugandan academics, (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2) male and female respondents attributed their dissatisfaction to working facilities. Though study findings could not suggest a gender influence on working environment, it was notable that congruent with the research literature (Poole and Langan-Fox, 1996), female academics were more likely to express satisfaction with *intrinsic* factors. Analogously, male respondents satisfaction was coming from *extrinsic* elements of their work like salary and status.

7.3. Conclusions regarding Rank and Job Satisfaction of Ugandan Academics

This section presents principal observations emerging from the findings and discussions with respect to rank in Chapter 6 of this study.

7.3.1 Rank and Primary Duties of Uganda Dons

This section highlights principal observations emerging from the effect of rank on traditional obligations of Ugandan academics

(a) Teaching, Research and Governance

While academic rank showed no significant impact on teaching satisfaction, the general observation emerging from the results would seem to suggest that senior dons more than their junior counterparts, were likely to attribute their satisfaction to *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors of teaching. Consequently, the findings though largely congruent with Fagbamiye's (1981) results on Nigerian academics, lend partial support to Oshagbemi's (1997) evidence on UK dons where, teaching satisfaction tended to increase with academic rank.

Striking and consistent contrasts were evident (See Section 6.1.1.2; Chapter, 6) to suggest that academic rank is related to research satisfaction. Unlike teaching, therefore, research satisfaction among Ugandan academics, as found in the literature (Austin and Pilat, 1990; Enders and Teichler, 1997) is overwhelmingly dependent on rank. Consequently, it is concluded that senior Ugandan dons more than their junior counterparts, attributed their satisfaction to *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* factors of research.

As found in the literature, (Boyer et al., 1994; Lewis and Altbach, 1996), Ugandan dons of all ranks were dissatisfied with institutional governance. In contrast to age and gender, however, findings from the Ugandan study show that academic rank has a significant impact on governance satisfaction. In the circumstances, it can be deduced that senior Ugandan dons more than their junior colleagues were likely to signal satisfaction with institutional governance.

7.3.1.1 Conclusions pertaining to Rank and other Job Aspects of Ugandan Dons

Principal observations arising from the influence of rank on five job aspects investigated in this study are summarised in this section.

(a) Rank-Remuneration Satisfaction

Though senior academics more than their junior colleagues were likely to derive satisfaction from their position on pay scale, academic rank offered no strong evidence to influence remuneration satisfaction. Accordingly, consistent with Tizikara (1998) findings, and understandably, at variance with Oshagbemi's (1997) evidence in the UK, it is observed that as with gender and age, Ugandan senior and junior dons alike, at least from the sample of this study, were dissatisfied with their remuneration.

(b) Rank and Promotion Satisfaction

In contrast to remuneration, rank-promotion satisfaction demonstrated striking and consistent contrasts between senior and junior respondents (See Section 6.1.2.2;

Chapter, 6). Not unexpectedly, professors were most happy with promotion, and lecturers and assistant lecturers, perhaps because of being at the bottom of the academic ladder, coupled with the rigorous promotion criteria in IUIU and MUK (See Section 4.3.2.1; Chapter, 4) felt least content. Consequently, the conclusion to which I'm driven posits that rank, as one might expect, and as found elsewhere, (Enders and Teichler, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1997) has a very significant influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction with promotion.

(c) Rank and Supervision Satisfaction

Given that senior dons in IUIU and MUK, perhaps as elsewhere, tend to be more independent in determining their work tasks than their junior counterparts, it was unsurprising that supervision satisfaction among Ugandan academics rose proportionately with rank. A principal observation, thus, is that as Ugandan dons climb the academic ladder, they experience a high sense of autonomy, and subsequently, their satisfaction with supervision tends to increase.

(d) The Impact of Rank on Co-worker Behaviour

Responding dons of all ranks felt satisfied with co-worker behaviour. While senior dons more than their junior counterparts, felt happier with their co-workers, there was lack of consistent evidence to suggest that rank has a predictive influence on co-worker behaviour. Accordingly, the general picture that emerges from study findings is germane to the notion that academia has a fundamentally egalitarian and collegial ethos (Toren, 1990).

(e) Rank and Working Environment

The influence of academic rank on working environment evidenced more contrasts than similarities. A fundamental observation that emerges, thus, is that senior dons,

perhaps, because of their rank tend to be well-facilitated (Enders and Teichler, 1997), and consequently, derived more satisfaction from working environment than their junior counterparts. What would seem immediately conclusive is that the more senior Ugandan dons are, the more they tend to signal satisfaction with their working environment.

7.4. Conclusions regarding Tenure and Job Satisfaction of Ugandan Academics

What follows are key highlights emerging from the findings and discussions relative to the impact of tenure on academic satisfaction presented in Chapter 6 of this study.

7.4.1 The Effect of Tenure on Traditional Obligations of Ugandan Academics

(a) Teaching, Research and Governance

As with age, gender, and rank, Ugandan dons of all tenure were dissatisfied with *extrinsic* factors of teaching. Strikingly, more contrasts than similarities were observed between new entrants and long-serving respondents, thereby suggesting a significant tenure impact on teaching satisfaction. Congruent with Fagbamiye (1981) findings in Nigeria, it is concluded, at least from the sample of this study, that as tenure increased, Ugandan academics tend to express more satisfaction with *intrinsic* elements of teaching, but become more and more dissatisfied with *extrinsic* factors of their instructional obligations. It is hoped that this scenario will form a policy agenda for this study.

In contrast to teaching, there was no overriding evidence to suggest that differences in tenure consistently predicted research satisfaction among Ugandan academics. What emerged as conspicuous, however, is that new entrants, unlike long-serving dons, perhaps being new and unsure about their positions were less likely to attribute their satisfaction to research.

Unlike new entrants, long-serving respondents were less irked by the treatment they received, as with the secretarial support provided. There was no consistent evidence, however, to suggest that tenure has a predictive effect on governance satisfaction. As found in the literature, (See Section 6.3.1.3; Chapter, 6) therefore, it would seem safe to conclude that whereas Ugandan dons of all tenure, at least from the sample of this study, felt happy with departmental administration, they attributed their dissatisfaction to institutional governance. This scenario is reflective of internal management problems at IUIU and MUK, which echoes a policy agenda for this study.

7.4.1.1 The Impact of Tenure on Other Job Aspects of Ugandan Academics

(a) Tenure and Remuneration

While long-serving respondents were less disillusioned with position on their pay scale, new entrants showed least discontent with salary. No consistent evidence, however, was forthcoming to suggest that differences in academic tenure predicted remuneration satisfaction. Accordingly, two principal observations emerge from study findings: Among Ugandan academics, at least from the sample of this study, satisfaction with position on pay scale tends to increase with tenure. As found among Nigerian academics Oshagbemi (1981) satisfaction with salary in IUIU and MUK tends to decrease with tenure.

(b) Tenure and Promotion Satisfaction

In contrast to remuneration, there was compelling evidence to support the notion that academic tenure has a significant effect on promotion satisfaction. Interestingly, the findings suggest that Ugandan academics satisfaction with promotion prospects and criteria tended to increase with rank. Consequently, if as this research has established that the older Ugandan dons are, the more satisfaction they attribute to promotion (See Section 5.1.2.2; Chapter, 5), and given that promotion happens only at certain points

in an academic career (Sanyal, 1995), it is conclusive that an increase in tenure of Ugandan academics tends to have a corresponding increase in promotion satisfaction.

(c) Tenure and Academic Supervision

As with promotion, there was strong evidence to suggest that tenure has a significant influence on Ugandan academics satisfaction with supervision (See Section 6.3.2.3; Chapter, 6). If as this study has shown that an increase in rank tends to have a corresponding increase in supervision satisfaction (See Section 7.3.1.1(c); Chapter, 7), and given that academic work is largely independent and autonomous (Moses, 1986; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Serow, 2000), it would seem plausible to conclude that as tenure increases, Ugandan dons gain skills in, and become more knowledgeable about, curriculum and instruction matters thereby deserving less and less guidance and supervision.

(d) The Impact of Tenure on Co-worker Behaviour Satisfaction

As with supervision, differences in academic tenure had a significant influence on co-worker satisfaction (See Section 6.2.2.5; Chapter, 6). While long serving respondents felt happier with collegial meetings, as with personal interest shown by staff, new entrants were more likely to attribute their satisfaction to collegial commitment and professional interaction at work. A principal observation that emerges from the findings, therefore, is that Uganda dons, at least from the sample of this study, have very good interpersonal relations with their colleagues at work which, corroborates with other studies (Manger and Eikeland, 1990; Oshagbemi, 1997; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997).

(e) Tenure and Working Environment Satisfaction

Unsurprisingly, considering the constraining environment in which Ugandan academics operate (See Section 2.6.2; Chapter, 2), respondents of all tenure attributed their dissatisfaction to the available physical facilities. As with co-worker behaviour, however, there was some evidence to suggest that differences in academic tenure influenced significantly differences in working environment satisfaction. What emerged as immediately conspicuous is that while long-serving dons were more likely to attribute their satisfaction to their working environment, new entrants were less likely to be dissatisfied with the available physical facilities.

7.5. Implications for Job Satisfaction of Ugandan Academics

This study has identified factors that contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of Ugandan academics. Some differences that beset job satisfaction of IUIU and MUK academics have been highlighted. Additionally, the impact of age, gender, rank, as with tenure on job satisfaction of Uganda dons relative to eight job aspects used in this study has been established. The findings, as one would expect, have practical implications for university management and governing bodies, as with academics, and policy makers. Additionally, it is anticipated that the results of this research will stimulate debate on the academic profession in Uganda.

(i) Implications for University Administrators and Managers in Uganda

Since study findings have revealed that Ugandan academics are dissatisfied with the leadership provided by their institutional administrators, efforts should be made to address this anomaly. A delicate question is whether the power is to be concentrated at the top of the entire institution, in the vice-chancellor or rectors' office. From the perspective of the individual academic, this concentration of power is often interpreted as bureaucratisation. Indeed, at MUK the office of the university secretary

was deemed as having marginalized academics from the decision making process of their institution (Sanyal, 1995). Besides, worldwide the trend in university governance over the past two decades has involved a general shifting of authority from the faculty to the administration (Gumport, 1997). Increasing attention, thus, should be focussed on moving from bureaucratisation to collegial decision-making.

If as this research has found, that academics feel alienated from top administrators at their institutions, then those at the helm of university leadership and management in Uganda should build senior management teams around themselves or form advisory groups with a predominance of academics. Consequently, with increased communication and collegiality, university leaders will be viewed as collegial coordinators, thereby fostering mutual trust and respect between academics and university administrators.

(ii) Implications for Education Policy Makers in Uganda

Designers of higher education policies in Uganda must assess afresh the role, service and relationship of universities and society. Increasingly, for Ugandan universities to be able to serve the best interests of the nation, essential interests of the very universities must be defended so that they could remain of utmost value to the society they serve. The challenge as Ajayi et al., (1996) maintained is for higher education policy in Africa to move beyond the search for relevance and identity to the creation of virile academic communities. The immediate priority is the need to re-examine Ugandan universities system of incentives and rewards. Indeed, attracting and retaining competent staff has now become the biggest current problem in African universities (Amonoo-Neizer, 1998).

A key concern, therefore, is for policy makers and political leaders to identify factors that enhance academic satisfaction and eliminate stimuli that create dissatisfaction. In

particular, the danger of government appointees to positions in Ugandan universities should concern policy makers. For instance, the head of state appoints 2/3 of the 38 council members at MUK, and 15 out of 19 members at the university of Botswana (Saint, 1992). This scenario creates an atmosphere of mistrust and tension between academics who want to analyse reality objectively, and administrators who want to defend the status quo. Equally, how universities attract, select, retain, improve and motivate academic staff demands increasing attention at national level.

(iii) Implications for Ugandan Academics

In the context of ongoing reflections and debates on the situation and perspectives of the academic profession worldwide, it is obviously of interest for academics themselves to debate their plight. Indeed, *deprofessionalisation*, *bureaucratisation* and *marginalisation* are frequently used terms to analyse the negative consequences of these ongoing changes in the external conditions of the academic profession (Enders, 1999). Accordingly, the practical aspects of this study can help Ugandan dons to be aware of factors that contribute to their job satisfaction, and the worrying issues of their time. This understanding may enable Uganda dons to address their plight authoritatively basing on evidence-informed data. Besides, this awareness may in the long run promote meaningful and career-long professional development.

7.6. Recommendations

This study has identified factors that contribute to job satisfaction of Ugandan academics and demonstrated stimuli that create their job dissatisfaction. In a sober search for a conclusion that can provide a comprehensive perspective, a number of recommendations become self-evident.

(i) Recommendations regarding Teaching

To enhance teaching satisfaction among Ugandan academics, the following factors merit attention:

- Since study findings have shown that dons attributed their dissatisfaction with teaching to *extrinsic* factors like instructional facilities and large classes, IUIU and MUK leadership should address these issues seriously. A key question is for the top leadership of Ugandan universities to ensure that academics are not requested to do more with fewer resources. Accordingly, this study recommends that for effective instruction in Ugandan universities, university administrators and managers should address most urgently the delicate issue of continuing expansion and diminishing instructional resources. The challenge is for institutions of higher learning in Uganda to achieve as Boyer et al., (1994) put it both *access* and *excellence*.
- Considering that Ugandan dons largely attributed their teaching satisfaction to *intrinsic* facets, the onus is on university administrators to know that the excellence of the academic cannot be limited to his speciality alone. Rather, Uganda dons must be prepared to adopt the market driven philosophy to move beyond the traditional notion of curriculum defined by discipline to curriculum defined by market. The question that must be asked is whether present day official conceptions of the job of a Ugandan academic are sufficiently elastic to empower him not only to *transmit*, but also to *create* knowledge through research to which we now turn.

(ii) Recommendations regarding Research

Based on study findings, Ugandan academics dissatisfaction with research came largely from *extrinsic* factors like library facilities, as with grants and research funds.

Seemingly, in IUIU and MUK there is a growing recognition of the importance of research among university executives and professors, but serious efforts to institutionalise it as a cherished academic function are lacking. Moreover, the absence of incentive has been called to good and efficient research in most developing countries Thulstrup in Saint (1992). A major concern, therefore, is for university administrators to address what makes mostly women, junior and young academics turn their attention away from research. The most commonly mentioned factor was an inhibiting research environment beset with inadequacy ranging from facilities to funding. If Ugandan academics are to ably confront orthodoxy and dogma, and apply their knowledge to the ills that afflict society, then it is my recommendation that IUIU and MUK should liaise with government and the private sector to put in place institutionalised leadership capacity to popularise, promote and fund research.

(iii) Recommendations regarding Governance

Ugandan academics dissatisfaction with current governance and administrative arrangements was pervasive, and certainly a cause for concern. Indeed, university governance is one of the most confusing, most tension-ridden issues in higher education (Boyer, et al., 1994). As the findings revealed, Ugandan dons were unhappy with the more hierarchical, more rigid governance structure in their institutions, which is reflective of an internal management problem in IUIU and MUK. Indeed, inept managerial and administrative staff also have some adverse effects on the university's effect as an instrument of national development (Mosha, 1986). The challenge is for Ugandan universities to develop managerial technocrats who as contended by Ahmat (1980) have a strong foundation in the quantitative aspects of decision-making techniques. Accordingly, this study recommends that university administrators should undergo some form of professional or specialised management training. This

recommendation is made cognisant of the fact that the criteria used in choosing say the vice chancellor or rector in Ugandan universities is largely based on excellent scholarship. Yet, available evidence suggests that scholarly productivity does not reflect managerial capability (Pelczar, 1977), and excellent researchers may not necessarily be good managers (Oshagbemi, 1996).

(iv) Recommendations regarding Remuneration

Overwhelmingly, remuneration was a source of dissatisfaction for Ugandan academics. A key concern is that academic salaries in Uganda do not permit a professionally rewarding life. The frightening issue particularly at IUIU is for academics to be paid half salary and the other half to be paid several months later. This scenario certainly contributes to insecurity, fear, and low morale and job commitment. The immediate goal, therefore, is for university managers and policy makers to move toward reward systems that as Saint (1992) opined remove the obligation of academic staff to seek other types of jobs for reasons of economic survival, and that allow them to dedicate themselves to their core obligations. The vision, it is recommended is for IUIU and MUK to seek positive financial incentives that will not stifle initiative, but spur academics to greater heights, and look for novel measures to maintain staff morale.

(v) Recommendations regarding Promotion

A major factor of Ugandan academics dissatisfaction with promotion centred on the undervaluing of teaching in promotion criteria. Overwhelmingly, dons were *intrinsically* satisfied with teaching, but irked with its being undervalued in promotion yet the institutions they serve are largely teaching-intensive. Although promotion in Ugandan universities, is often linked to scholarly productivity, this criterion for

advancement has become increasingly less relevant particularly in SSA universities where, as (Ajayi et al., 1996) observed there are increasing teaching loads, outdated libraries and low salaries that make research and publication nearly impossible. What would seem potentially instructive, therefore, is a strong recommendation for the top leadership in IUIU and MUK to create a system that will rationalise promotion policies and appropriately reward the *scholarship* of teaching without compromising the *scholarship* of knowledge creation. To this end the individual academic should be guaranteed a right to obtain professional development, and an obligation for the institution to offer it, and also an obligation for the individual don to take part in it.

(vi) Recommendations regarding Supervision

The satisfaction from the head of unit's supervision while satisfactory, raised one major concern. In particular, Ugandan academics attributed their dissatisfaction with supervision mainly to lack of feedback from their supervisors. The challenge is for IUIU and MUK administrators to develop systems that would facilitate prompt flow of relevant information to recipients unhindered. What is recommended, thus, is the development of performance systems that move beyond appraisal as an annual event to pedagogical training for academics, peer evaluation and continuous assessment of lecturers by students.

(vii) Recommendations regarding Co-worker Behaviour

One major source of Ugandan academics satisfaction was colleagues' behaviour. This finding of collegiality and harmonious interpersonal relationships is very useful, as academics perform several functions jointly. Given that low-resource organisations are prone to conflicts (Kraus, 1980), and universities are characterised as organised anarchies (Cohen and March, 1974), far from being congenial places (Serow, 2000), it

is my recommendation that IUIU and MUK administrators must seize this opportunity to translate the existing harmony among their dons into campus solidarity. This is crucial considering that an academic institution, is not just a place to work, but avenue that provides a social environment.

(viii) Recommendations regarding Working Environment

Staff dissatisfaction with the physical facilities was pervasive. Based on study findings, therefore, present working conditions of academics in IUIU and MUK depict a gloomy picture of poor physical facilities, due to a number of years of low budget provision for maintenance and capital investment. Indeed, in most African universities conditions are no longer favourable to attract competent scholars (Ocitti, 1993; Braimoh, 1999). Accordingly, it is recommended that Ugandan universities should form integrated institutional bodies duly empowered to allocate funds for, and superintend the procurement of, research and instructional equipment. Sufficiently comparable, increasing attention should be directed to space management for the equitable allocation of facilities, and prudent academic staff management in the setting of teaching loads, class size, administrative responsibilities, as with career development.

7.7. Strength and Limitations of the Study

A major strength of this investigation is that it is the first of its kind to investigate specifically sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of Ugandan academics. Additionally, the combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods of enquiry strengthened the investigation, as data from the former were not only used to inform the latter, but as Crossley and Vulliamy (1997) observed *deepen* the findings. Furthermore, the full range of how personal demographic variables such as age,

gender, rank as with tenure impact on job satisfaction of Ugandan academics was explored.

Overwhelmingly, limitations of an exploratory study are dictated by the questions asked and the availability of suitable data for analysis. Due to time and financial constraints, this survey collected data from only 182 academics in two universities in Uganda. Unquestionably, this is a small sample considering the number of academics in the twelve universities in Uganda. Arguably, positivists might claim that a small sample reduces the reliability of the conclusions. Such fears are counteracted by the contention that issue of representativeness and generalisability should not be contentious if rich data that are detailed enough to provide findings that can be descriptively and analytically presented are obtainable, notwithstanding the size of the sample (Seidman, 1992; Bogden and Biklen, 1992). A number of limitations, nonetheless, beset the practical applications of the knowledge generated in this study.

- ❖ Considering that the sample size may limit the conclusions and generalisations that can be drawn from the findings (Kothari, 1992), the conclusions of this study cannot be generalised to all academics across Uganda. The results, thus, are generally restricted to two universities from which the sample was drawn.
- ❖ The findings of this study and the conclusions drawn therefrom, are within the limits of the items that comprise the Job Satisfaction Instrument used in this study.
- ❖ The study was accurate only to the extent that reported data reflected honest and accurate statements by the respondents.
- ❖ One methodological limitation was that some additional statistical analyses and further investigation that might have thrown greater light on the findings of the study could not be undertaken due to time constraints and space considerations.

7.8. Research Agenda

The findings of this study contribute to the very limited literature on job satisfaction in higher education in Uganda. This research also contributes to the literature on demographic variables such as age, gender, rank, as with tenure in job satisfaction. Some suggestions for further analysis of the current data and for additional investigations have been made in earlier chapters. Nonetheless, if university administrators, managers, higher education planners and policy makers in Uganda are to obtain a substantial bank of data to inform decisions regarding job satisfaction among university academics, a number of areas merit investigation. In terms of research agenda, therefore, fruitful avenues of future investigation are:

- ❖ Replication of this study with samples drawn from all universities in Uganda. It is hoped that a larger sample might produce additional insights not elicited in this study
- ❖ This study has explored the influence of demographic variables notably age, gender, rank and tenure on job satisfaction. One of the gaps in this study, however, is that it did not explore the relationships between these variables on Ugandan academics job satisfaction which, certainly deserve the attention of future research.
- ❖ A further study might use a case study approach to specifically examine why the various factors contribute to academic job satisfaction and others enhance the stimuli for dissatisfaction.
- ❖ Future researchers could utilise a longitudinal survey design to investigate variations in the level of satisfaction over time.

- ❖ An investigation specifically designed to address why women, untenured, young and junior Ugandan academics are less likely to signal satisfaction with their job would seem worthwhile
- ❖ Studies should be conducted to determine the commonalities and the contrasts of “organisational cultures” between public and private universities in Uganda. Researchers then could begin to examine the influence of culture on academic job satisfaction

7.9 Reflections: Prospects for the Future

The current investigation established that while Ugandan academics are relatively satisfied with co-worker behaviour, supervision and *intrinsic* facets of teaching, their potential stimuli of dissatisfaction were remuneration, governance, promotion and physical facilities. Although *intrinsic* factors of teaching and research were likely sources of satisfaction, and *extrinsic* facets prevalent in predicting Ugandan academics dissatisfaction, the findings did not wholly support Herzberg’s contention that these are mutually exclusive. It was concluded, therefore, that any given factor could either be a source of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, which reflects situational variables in the working environment (Quarstein et al., (1992) cited in Oshagbemi (1997).

Finally, in the era of *deprofessionalisation*, *bureaucratisation* and *marginalisation* of academics world wide (Enders, 1999), the onus is on university administrators and policy makers in Uganda to enhance sources of job satisfaction, and put in place safety nets to mitigate the undesirable effects of job dissatisfaction. Failure to address this scenario, then the writing is on the wall.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

JOB SATISFACTION OF UNIVERSITY ACADEMICS: PERSPECTIVES FROM UGANDA

I am in the second phase of my Doctoral programme at the University of Bristol in England and, for my thesis, I am conducting an enquiry into job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among academics in universities in Uganda. For the empirical part of this study, I am conducting a questionnaire survey and interviews to collect information on the extent to which academics in universities in Uganda are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs.

In essence, the study seeks to identify and discuss factors, considerations or aspects of university teachers' jobs, which contribute most to their satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Colleagues, the purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain your feeling or attitude on various aspects of your job. It is designed to allow you to express your personal opinion and feelings about various facets of your job that might/do contribute to your satisfaction or dissatisfaction as an academic.

For the study to achieve its objectives, your kind assistance and support, frank, honest and thoughtful responses are important. Questionnaire completion is anonymous and I can assure you of complete confidentiality.

I hope you will find the questionnaire fairly easy to complete. The first section is the background information about you and the university where you teach. The second section concerns your response as an academic on the various facets of your job. The last section requires you to simply list five factors or considerations of your job which contribute most to your job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Your comments for improvements or further suggestions/follow up will be appreciated. Please see my contact information at the end.

Thank you very much.

SECTION 1

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

ABOUT YOU AND YOUR UNIVERSITY

Write or tick (✓) appropriately

1- Name of the university where you teach -----

2- Department-----

3- Faculty/School-----

4- Are you: Male Female

5- What is your age? Less than 35 35-44 45-54

55+

6- What academic rank do you hold? Professor Associate Professor

Senior Lecturer Lecturer Other

Please state-----

7- How many years as an academic in university service have you had?

0-5 years 6-10 11-20 21-30

31+

8- What is your marital status? Married Single

Divorced Widowed Other

SECTION II

How satisfied are you with...

This set of items deals with various aspects of your job as an academic. Please indicate the degree of satisfaction you derive from each aspect by circling the appropriate numeral which suits your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction where:

1= Extremely Dissatisfied

2= Dissatisfied

3= Indifferent/Neutral (neither Dissatisfied nor Satisfied)

4= Satisfied

5= Extremely Satisfied

TEACHING

How satisfied are you with....

1 The interest shown by students in the course(s) you teach	1 2 3 4 5
2 The degree of autonomy in content of teaching and course development	1 2 3 4 5
3 Your "teacher-student" relationship	1 2 3 4 5
4 The size of the classes you teach	1 2 3 4 5
5 Procedures for course evaluation	1 2 3 4 5
6 Recognition of teaching skills in your university	1 2 3 4 5
7 Your teaching load	1 2 3 4 5
8 Marking answer scripts	1 2 3 4 5
9 The course(s) you teach in relation to your professional training	1 2 3 4 5
10 Instructional materials available for teaching	1 2 3 4 5
11 The time allocated for a lecture	1 2 3 4 5
12 Collaborative teaching with fellow academics	1 2 3 4 5
13 Student feedback on the course(s) you teach	1 2 3 4 5
14 The departmental strategy on teaching	1 2 3 4 5
15 Library facilities for teaching	1 2 3 4 5
16 The quality of tutorials you conduct /conducted	1 2 3 4 5
17 Your supervision of students projects	1 2 3 4 5
18 The quality of student intake in your department/faculty	1 2 3 4 5

7 Clarity of institutional mission

1 2 3 4 5

RESEARCH

How satisfied are you with....

1 2 3 4 5

1 Opportunities to write and publish	1 2 3 4 5
2 The quality of university intellectual life	1 2 3 4 5
3 The amount of academic freedom you have to research and publish	1 2 3 4 5
4 Pressure to publish provided for you	1 2 3 4 5
5 Time spent in obtaining research grants	1 2 3 4 5
6 Research time available	1 2 3 4 5
7 Recognition of research in your university	1 2 3 4 5
8 Library facilities for research	1 2 3 4 5
9 The passion for research in your university	1 2 3 4 5
10 Your opportunities to set up research seminars	1 2 3 4 5
11 Adequacy of research funds which give you a certain amount of financial autonomy	1 2 3 4 5
12 The availability of sabbatical programmes	1 2 3 4 5
13 The time available for research and personal development in your specialist area	1 2 3 4 5
14 The time available for independent thought	1 2 3 4 5
15 The opportunities available to become famous through published research work	1 2 3 4 5
16 Opportunities for consultancy work	1 2 3 4 5

OPPORTUNITIES FOR FRIENDSHIP

How satisfied are you with....

1 Appreciation in **ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT**

1 2 3 4 5

How satisfied are you with....

1 2 3 4 5

1 The relationship between academics and university administrators	1 2 3 4 5
2 The degree of fair treatment you receive from university administrators and managers	1 2 3 4 5
3 The number of meetings to attend	1 2 3 4 5
4 The level of communication with university authorities	1 2 3 4 5
5 Time spent on administration duties	1 2 3 4 5
6 The attention paid to your opinions with regard to administrative	

6	Technical competence of your colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
7	Clarity of institutional mission	1	2	3	4	5
8	Policy formulation and implementation procedures in your university	1	2	3	4	5
9	Clarity concerning your role in the department	1	2	3	4	5
10	Your co-ordination of responsibilities between teaching, research and administration	1	2	3	4	5
11	Secretarial support provided for you	1	2	3	4	5
12	Faculty involvement in administrative affairs of the university	1	2	3	4	5

REMUNERATION

How satisfied are you with....

1	Your salary as a means of supplying your basic needs	1	2	3	4	5
2	Your fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5
3	The levels of compensation in your university	1	2	3	4	5
4	Your present pay, considering your skill and effort	1	2	3	4	5
5	Your position on pay scale	1	2	3	4	5
6	Your retirement benefits	1	2	3	4	5
7	Material resources connected with your work	1	2	3	4	5
8	Opportunities to retire with full benefits	1	2	3	4	5

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

How satisfied are you with....

1	Appreciation and recognition of achievements in your university	1	2	3	4	5
2	Your chances for getting ahead in the university	1	2	3	4	5
3	The amount of personal growth and development you get in doing your job	1	2	3	4	5
4	Promotion prospects	1	2	3	4	5
5	Opportunities for professional growth and development	1	2	3	4	5
6	The weight placed on number of publications in considering promotion	1	2	3	4	5
7	Devotion to teaching in promotion criteria	1	2	3	4	5
8	Emphasis on quality of publications in promotion criteria	1	2	3	4	5

9 Teaching skills in considering promotion	1 2 3 4 5
10 Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria	1 2 3 4 5

SUPERVISION/SUPERVISOR BEHAVIOUR

How satisfied are you with....

1 The level of success of your supervisor in getting people to work	1 2 3 4 5
2 The technical competence of your supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
3 The amount of responsibility you are given to handle	1 2 3 4 5
4 Your opportunities to do challenging work	1 2 3 4 5
5 The freedom you have to try new ideas and programmes	1 2 3 4 5
6 The overall quality of supervision you receive in your work	1 2 3 4 5
7 Your supervisor's concern for the welfare of subordinates	1 2 3 4 5
8 The concern of your supervisor for task accomplishment	1 2 3 4 5
9 Your work time autonomy	1 2 3 4 5
10 The degree of autonomy you have from your supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
11 The amount of close supervision	1 2 3 4 5
12 The degree of support and guidance you receive from your supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
13 Feedback from your supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
14 Your overall freedom on the job	1 2 3 4 5

CO-WORKERS BEHAVIOUR

How satisfied are you with....

1 The sense of community in your university	1 2 3 4 5
2 The degree of competence of co-workers	1 2 3 4 5
3 The level of congeniality by colleagues at work	1 2 3 4 5
4 The degree of faculty morale	1 2 3 4 5
5 Collegial relations in your faculty	1 2 3 4 5
6 The "social support" from colleagues at work	1 2 3 4 5
7 The level of commitment by colleagues at work	1 2 3 4 5
8 The value of meetings with colleagues at work	1 2 3 4 5
9 The respect you earn from fellow employees	1 2 3 4 5
10 The level of professional interaction with colleagues at work	1 2 3 4 5
11 Opportunities to get to know others	1 2 3 4 5
12 The amount of confidence and trust in persons you work with	1 2 3 4 5

- 13 The level of personal interest the people you work with have in you 1 2 3 4 5
- 14 Your relationship with others e.g. technical and support staff etc..) 1 2 3 4 5

Please write your response in the spaces provided

1- List five (5) factors, considerations or aspects of your job which

contribute to your satisfaction

PHYSICAL CONDITIONS/WORKING ENVIRONMENT

How satisfied are you with....

- 1 The obtaining social environment 1 2 3 4 5
- 2 The beauty of the campus you work in 1 2 3 4 5
- 3 Your access to computer networks and library facilities 1 2 3 4 5
- 4 The space available for you to work during non-teaching time 1 2 3 4 5
- 5 The geographical location of the university 1 2 3 4 5
- 6 Facilities for relaxation 1 2 3 4 5
- 7 The freedom of your life style 1 2 3 4 5
- 8 The distance between the university and your place of abode 1 2 3 4 5
- 9 The clerical and technical assistance offered 1 2 3 4 5
- 10 The environment in which you work
(e.g. air condition, noise, ventilation, decoration etc..) 1 2 3 4 5
- 11 The overall research facilities available 1 2 3 4 5
- 12 The feeling of security 1 2 3 4 5
- 13 The degree of enjoyment from the day-to-day activities of your job 1 2 3 4 5
- 14 The intellectual stimulation of your university 1 2 3 4 5
- 15 Being associated with your university 1 2 3 4 5

JOB IN GENERAL (JIG)

How satisfied would you say you are with....

- 1 Academic work as an occupation 1 2 3 4 5
- 2 Your career prospects in this job 1 2 3 4 5
- 3 Your status as a don 1 2 3 4 5
- 4 The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your present job 1 2 3 4 5

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Thank you very much for your valuable time and thoughts in completing this questionnaire.

SECTION III

Please write your response in the spaces provided

1- List five (5) factors, considerations or aspects of your job which contribute most to your satisfaction

- (i)-----
- (ii)-----
- (iii)-----
- (iv)-----
- (v)-----

2- List five (5) factors, considerations or aspects of your job which contribute most to your dissatisfaction

- (i)-----
- (ii)-----
- (iii)-----
- (iv)-----
- (v)-----

COMMENTS

3- Please write below any other comments/views you have concerning Ugandan academics Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Please use the back of this page if necessary

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Thank you very much for your valuable time and thoughts in completing this questionnaire.

Appendix 2

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Title of Informant :

University :

Teaching

- 1- How many years of university teaching experience do you have ?
 - Are you happy with academic work as a career ? (*Why?*) (*Does it stimulate you?*)
 - Do you find the job satisfying enough ?
 - What gives you most satisfaction ? (*Why?*)
 - Do you ever feel like getting out of university teaching ? (*Why do you think so?*)
 - Does your work give you a feeling of accomplishment ? (*Why are you inclined to this view?*)
- 2- How long have you been teaching in this university ?
- 3- Describe your status as a don ? (*Does it earn you respect in family and society?*)
(*Does this satisfy you?*)
- 4- Are you satisfied with the present class size ? (*How do you manage to cope with it?*)
- 5- In your opinion, do you think the number of students you teach is commensurate with the instructional resources at your disposal ? (*Why do you think so?*) (*What do you think should be done to improve the situation?*)
- Tell me about your teaching load : -Is it a source of strain to you ? (*Why?*) Suggest what should be done to improve the situation.
- 6- Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to enter academic work, how likely is it that you would do so ?
- 7- If you could leave your academic job for another job that made comparable demands on your ability and offered a comparable salary, would you do so ? (*Why do you think so?*) (*Any particular reasons?*)
- 8- Considering your ability and skill, are you satisfied with your present work ? (*Are your academic needs being fulfilled?*) (*Why?*) (*Does this affect your attitude to work?*)
- 9- Describe your degree of autonomy in teaching and course development ? (*Are you satisfied about it ?*) (*Why ?*)
- Is the time allocated for teaching sufficient for you to complete the course(s) ? (*Does*

this affect your teaching and attitude to work?) (Are you satisfied about it?) (Why?) (What should be done to bring about that satisfaction?)

-Are you satisfied with the content of what you teach ? (Do you think the scope of the content is reasonable?) (Why do you think so?)

10- Describe the general behaviour of the students you teach ? *(Are you satisfied with it?) (Why is this the case?) (Does it affect your interest in work?) (What should be done to meet your satisfaction?)*

11- At this university, how would you evaluate:-

-the technology for teaching

-the computer facilities

-the research equipment and instruments

-the library holdings

12- Regarding your own preferences, do your interests lie primarily in teaching or research ?

-Please indicate the degree to which your affiliation with your academic discipline is important to you ?(professional loyalty) *Why do you think so ?*

Research

11- Do you have the freedom to focus your research on any topic of special interest to you ?

-Do you have any political or ideological restrictions on publishing ? (Does this situation satisfy you?) (Does it affect your interest in publishing?) (How do you think your needs can be best satisfied?)

-In your opinion, is academic freedom strongly protected in this country ?

12- Describe the emphasis put on research and teaching in your university ?*(Why do you think so?) (Does this satisfy you?) (How does it affect your attitude to teaching and research?) (Suggest how this can further be improved?)*

13- Do you frequently feel under pressure to publish ? *(How does this affect your passion for research?) (Does this pressure to publish reduce the quality of your teaching?) (Are you satisfied with this situation?) (What do you think should be done to satisfy you?)*

14- Can you describe research funds and facilities in your university ? *(Are you satisfied with the status quo?) (How does this affect your interest in research ?)*

-How has this affected your time for research and personal development in specialist area?

15- Describe your satisfaction with the following in your university?

- Travel funds for academics
- Departmental research facilities
- Overall needs for research in your university (*Are your needs being fulfilled?*) (*Why?*) (*Are you satisfied about it?*) (*Why?*)
- research grants available
- the laboratories
- Based on your experience at this university, how would you assess the intellectual atmosphere?
- As an academic in a low-resource/skill country, do you have a professional obligation to apply your knowledge to problems that afflict society? e.g. illiteracy, poverty, corruption etc.

Administration and Management

- 16- Can you describe the leadership provided by senior administrators in your university? (*Why do you think so?*) (*Are you happy with the leadership provided?*)
- 17- In your opinion, do you think administration of your university supports academic freedom? (*Why?*) (*Suggest how this can further be improved?*)
- 18- What are your other responsibilities in the university besides teaching? (*Are you able to cope with them?*) (*Are you satisfied about this?*) (*Why?*) *Generally what do you think about the amount of responsibilities that you are given?*
- 19- In carrying out your duties, do you face constraints like:
- (a) resources
 - (b) time
 - (c) co-operation from colleagues
 - (d) support from central administration
- 20- Can you describe the extent of your faculty involvement in the decision-making framework of your university ?
- (*Are you happy with the level of involvement?*) (*Why?*)
 - (*In what ways do you think the faculty can be more involved?*) (*Why?*)
- 21- In your opinion, do you think there is enough consultation in your university from top to down ?
- (*Does it satisfy you?*) (*Suggest how this can be further improved?*)
- 22- Generally how do you describe the following in your university?
- (a) retirement arrangement
 - (b) sabbatical leaves
 - (c) faculty office
 - (d) fringe benefits
 - (e) secretarial support
 - (f) computer facilities
- (*Are you satisfied with the above?*) (*Why?*)
 - (*In your opinion, what do you think can be done to further improve the situation to*

your satisfaction?

-(Why is this the case?) (Which ones are your priority areas that can best meet your satisfaction?) (Why do you think so?)

23- How does the top administration of your university give support and encouragement ? (in the form of verbal encouragement, showing concern, or giving recognition like certificates, medals etc..) *(Does the existing arrangement satisfy you?) (Suggest how this can be further improved?)*

24-Do you feel that your opinions are valued by those in charge of university administration ? *(Why do you think so?) (What should be done to satisfy you?) (Why?)*

Present Pay/Remuneration

25- To what degree are you satisfied with the salary that you are getting ?

-(Are you happy about it?) (Why?)

-(In what ways do you think the situation can be improved?) (Why do you favour this view?)

26- With the present pay, are you happy to stay at this university ?

-From an economic point standpoint, is it necessary for you to engage in paid work elsewhere ?

27-Considering your skill and effort, do you think your present pay is satisfactory and comparable to people of similar qualifications in Uganda ?

-(Why do you take this position?) (How does this affect your attitude to and interest in work?) (Why is this the case?)

28- What fringe benefits are made available to you ?

-(Are you satisfied?) (Why?)

-(Suggest ways how this can be further improved to your satisfaction?)

29- Can you describe your pay scale ?

-(Are you satisfied with it?)

-(What makes you think so?)

30- To what degree are you satisfied with your position on the pay scale ?

-(Why is the case?)

-(Are your needs being fulfilled?) (Please explain)

31- Can you try to describe your own morale at university at the moment ?

32- Can you see yourself still being here in five years time ?

33- Are you looking for another job ?

-(How desperate are you to leave?)

-(Why are you so desperate to leave?)

34- What is your opinion about annual increments in your salary ?

-(Does the increment satisfy you?)

-(Does it motivate you to work hard?) (Why do you think so?)

Promotion

35- Can you describe your promotion prospects in this university ?

-(Are you satisfied with the status quo?)

-(Does it bother you?) (Why do you think so?)

36- In your opinion, what counts most in the promotion criteria in your university :-

research or teaching ?

-(Why do you think so?)

-(Are you satisfied with the above promotion procedure?)

-(What do you think should be done to satisfy you?)

37- Do you think enough weight is placed on devotion to teaching ? *(Why?)*

38- Can you describe opportunities for professional development in your current job as an academic ?

-(Are your professional needs met to your satisfaction?)

-(Why do you think so?)

-(Suggest ways of how the situation can be improved?)

39- Are you satisfied with the chances of getting ahead in your university ?

-(What do you think should be done to meet your needs?)

-(Why do you advance such a view?)

40- Can you say that due recognition is given to you for doing a good job in this university ?

-(What form does this recognition take?)

-(Does this satisfy you?)

-(In your opinion what exactly should be done to see to it that your needs are satisfied?)

41- Generally describe your opportunity for advancement in your university ?

(Are you satisfied?) (Why?)

Supervision/ Supervisor Behaviour

- 42- Does your immediate supervisor ever ask his/her opinion about anything and take notice of it ? (*Does this satisfy you in any way?*) (*Why?*)
- 43- Do you need any feedback from your supervisor ? (*Why do you think so?*)
-(*Does the arrangement and form of feedback satisfy you ?*)
- 44- In your opinion, do you consider the supervision by your immediate boss satisfactory ?
-(*What kind of supervision would you prefer ?*) (*Why?*)
- 45- Describe the competence of your supervisor ?
-(*Why do you think so?*)
-(*Suggest possible ways of how this can further be improved?*)
-(*Why do you take this view?*)
- 46- How do you rate the level of freedom you have to try new ideas and programmes?
-(*Are you satisfied?*)
-(*Why do you think so?*)
- (*Suggest how this can be further improved?*)
- 47- Can you describe how the following affect your time for research and personal development in specialist areas ?
- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (a) travel funds for academics | (c) departmental research strategies |
| (b) the laboratories | (d) research grants available |
| (e) excessive work | |
- (*Are you satisfied?*)
- (*Why do you think so?*)
- 48- In your opinion, do you consider the kind of direction you receive on your job satisfactory ?
-(*Why do you think so?*)
-(*Suggest how this can further be improved?*)
-(*What do you think should be done to satisfy you?*)
- 49- Can you describe the leadership style of your immediate supervisor?
-(*Is s/he people-oriented?*) (*Why is this the case?*)
-(*Is s/he task-oriented?*) (*Why do you consider this an accurate description?*)
-(*Is s/he transactional?*) i.e. stick a balance between the two {concern for people and concern for tasks} (*Why do you favour this view?*)
-(*What leadership style(s) do you consider satisfactory?*)

50- Do you consider your supervisor as a kind of person who gives you challenging work assignments?

-(Does this bother you?) (Why?)

-(What sort of work do you consider satisfactory?)

Co-workers Behaviour

51- Is socialising very important to you?

-(Why?)

-(Are you satisfied with the current level of socialisation in your department/faculty?)

-(What should be done to your satisfaction?)

52- Do you consider your co-workers helpful in getting the job done?

-(Does the help they offer satisfy you?) (Why?)

-(What kind of help do you consider satisfactory?)

-(Suggest how this can be further improved to your satisfaction?)

53- Can you describe the kind of respect given by fellow employees ?

-(Does it satisfy you?) (Why?)

54- Do you consider the people you work with as friendly? *(Why?)*

-(What type of friendship do you consider satisfactory?)

-(Why do you think so?)

55- Describe the form of support you receive from colleagues with teaching and research ?

-(Are you satisfied?)

-(On a scale of one to ten--where ten is high what mark would you give your collaboration with colleagues at work?)

-(Does this satisfy you?)

-(Why do you think so?)

-(Suggest how this can be further improved?)

56- What kind of support do you get from colleagues with research?

-(In your opinion, do you consider the level of collaborative research satisfactory?)

-(Are you happy with how collaborative research is conducted in your university?)

-(Why do you think so?)

57- Do people you work with take a personal interest in you? *(Why?)*

Physical Conditions/Working Environment

58-Do you enjoy it here?

59- What pleases you most?

-(What could happen to you in a day that would really give you a lift?)

-(Why is this the case?)

60- Have you ever been really fed up and lost interest so that your work is affected?

-(How do such situations affect your satisfaction?) (Why do you think so?)

61-On a scale of one to ten--where ten is high, what mark would you give your morale? *(Does this bother you?) (Why?)*

62- Do you feel that you have sufficient opportunities for rest and preparation during the working day?

-(Does this satisfy you?) (Why do you think so?)

63-Can you describe the general environment where you are working?

-(In your opinion, what should be done to see to it that you're satisfied?) (Why?)

64- Generally how do you describe the geographical location of your university?

-(Does it meet your social and familiar needs?)

-(Are you satisfied with the location?)

-(Why do you think so?)

65-Would you say the distance between your place of abode and the university is conducive? *(Does it bother you?) (Why?)*

-(Has the distance in anyway affected your performance of duties?)

-(Suggest what can be done to improve the situation?)

66- Is there anything else you want to say about this topic, that I haven't asked you?

General

67- Considering all things, and thinking now about the academic post you presently hold, how satisfied would you say you are with your present job ?

68- In general, how would you say that being a don measures up to the sort of work you wanted ?

69- How able are you to meet your work life goals in your present job ?

70- How satisfied are you with your overall quality of your present job ? *(Why do you think so ?)*

Thank you very much

Appendix 3

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE INSTRUMENT

Reliability (Overall)

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 140.0

Number of Items = 111

Alpha = .9455

Reliability for Teaching

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-TE1	Interest shown by students in the courses you teach
2-TE2	Degree of autonomy in content taught
3-TE3	Teacher-student relationship
4-TE4	The size of the classes you teach
5-TE5	Procedures for course evaluation
6-TE6	Recognition of teaching skills
7-TE7	Teaching load
8-TE8	Marking answer scripts
9-TE9	Courses taught in relation to your professional training
10-TE10	instructional materials available for teaching
11-TE11	Time allocated for a lecture
12-TE12	Collaborative teaching with fellow academics
13-TE13	Student feedback on the courses you teach
14-TE14	The departmental strategy on teaching
15-TE15	Library facilities for teaching
16-TE16	The quality of tutorials
17-TE17	Your supervision of student projects
18-TE18	The quality of student intake

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 167.0

Number of Items = 18

Alpha = .7384

Reliability for Research

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-R1	Opportunities to write & publish
2-R2	The quality of Univ. intellectual life
3-R3	The amount of acad. freedom to research & publish
4-R4	Pressure to publish
5-R5	Time spent in obtaining research grants
6-R6	Research time available
7-R7	Recognition of research
8-R8	Library facilities for research
9-R9	The passion for research in your university
10-R10	Your opportunities for research seminars
11-R11	Adequacy of research funds
12-R12	The availability of sabbatical programmes
13-R13	Time available for research & personal development
14-R14	The time available for independent thought
15-R15	The opportunities to become famous through published research work
16-R16	Opportunities for consultancy

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 169.0

Number of Items = 16

Alpha = .8665

Reliability for Governance

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-A1	The relationship between academics & Univ. administrators
2-A2	The degree of fair treatment
3-A3	The number of meetings to attend
4-A4	The level of communication university authorities
5-A5	The time spent on administrative duties
6-A6	Your influence in administrative matters of the department
7-A7	Clarity of institutional mission
8-A8	Policy formulation & implementation procedures in university
9-A9	Clarity concerning your role in the department
10-A10	Your co-ordination of responsibility between teaching, research, and administration
11-A11	Secretarial support provided
12-A12	Faculty involvement in administrative affairs of the university

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 172.0

Number of Items = 12

Alpha = .8312

Reliability for Remuneration

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-REM1	Salary as a means of supplying basic needs
2-REM2	Your fringe benefits
3-REM3	The level of compensation in your university
4-REM4	Present pay, considering skill & effort
5-REM5	Position on pay scale
6-REM6	Your retirement benefits
7-REM7	Material resources connecte4d with your work
8-REM8	Oppor to retire with full benefits

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 175.0 Number of Items = 8

Alpha = .7840

Reliability for Opportunities for Promotion

***** Method 1 (space saver) was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-O1	Appreciation & recognition of achievement
2- O2	Chances of getting ahead at Univ.
3-O3	The Amount of personal growth & development you get
4-O4	Promotion prospects
5-O5	Oppor for professional growth & development
6-O6	The weight placed on number of publication in promotion criteria
7-O7	Devotion to teaching in promotion procedures
8-O8	Emphasis on quality of publications in p
9- O9	Teaching skills in considering promotion
10-O10	Longevity of tenure in promotion criteria

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 164.0 Number of Items = 10

Alpha = .8422

Reliability for Supervision

***** Method 1 (space saver) was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-S1	The level of success of your supervisor in getting people to work
2-S2	The technical competence of your supervisor
3-S3	The amount of responsibility you are given to handle
4-S4	Your opportunities to do challenging work
5-S5	The freedom to try new ideas & programmes
6-S6	The overall quality of supervision you receive in your work
7-S7	Your supervisor's concern for welfare of subordinates
8-S8	The concern of supv for task accomplishment
9-S9	Your work time autonomy
10-S10	The degree of autonomy you have from supervisor
11-S11	The amount of close supervision
12-S12	The degree of support & guidance you receive from supervisor
13-S13	Feedback from supervisor
14-S14	Your overall freedom on job

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 174.0

Number of Items = 14

Alpha = .8809

Reliability for Co-workers

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-C1	The sense of community in your university
2-C2	The degree of competence of co-workers
3-C3	The level of congeniality by colleagues at work
4-C4	The degree of faculty morale
5-C5	Collegial relations in your faculty
6-C6	The social support from colleagues at work
7-C7	The level of commitment by colleagues at work
8-C8	The value of meetings with colleagues at work
9-C9	The respect you earn from fellow employees
10-C10	The level of professional interaction with colleagues at work
11-C11	Opportunities to get to know others
12-C12	The amount of confidence & trust in persons you work with
13-C13	The level of personal interest the people you work with have in you
14-C14	Your relationship with co-workers as a whole

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 169.0

Number of Items = 14

Alpha = .8912

Reliability for Working Environment

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-P1	The obtaining social environment
2-P2	The beauty of the campus you work in
3-P3	Your access to computer & library facilities
4-P4	The space available for you to work during non-teaching time
5-P5	The geographic location of your university
6-P6	Facilities for relaxation
7-P7	The freedom of your life style
8-P8	The distance between the university & your place of abode
9-P9	Clerical & technical assistance
10-P10	Working environment
11-P11	Overall research facilities
12-P12	Feeling of security
13-P13	Degree of enjoyment
14-P14	Intellectual stimulation
15-P15	Being associated with Univ.

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 172.0

Number of Items = 15

Alpha = .8561

Reliability for Job in General (JIG)

***** Space saver was used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1-G1	Academic work as an occupation
2-G2	Your career prospects in this job
3-G3	Your status as a don
4-G4	The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment

Reliability Coefficients

Number of Cases = 182.0

Number of Items = 4

Alpha = .7368

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR EACH FACTOR BY JOB ASPECT

Correlation Matrix for the Job Aspect of Teaching

	TE1	TE2	TE3	TE4	TE5
TE1	1.0000				
TE2	.3165	1.0000			
TE3	.1784	.1084	1.0000		
TE4	.0754	-.0582	.0565	1.0000	
TE5	.0271	.1252	.3655	.1540	1.0000
TE6	.0918	.0885	.2759	.0804	.3693
TE7	-.1086	.0135	.0123	.3572	.0766
TE8	.0054	-.0449	.1595	.5005	.1417
TE9	.1571	.2519	.0473	-.0140	.0028
TE10	-.0097	.0863	.1348	.0668	.1574
TE11	.2057	.1236	-.1349	.1007	.1129
TE12	-.0340	.0766	-.1912	.2133	.1986
TE13	.0197	.0735	.4072	.1541	.4517
TE14	-.0544	-.0302	.3015	.0863	.2738
TE15	-.0506	-.0747	-.0042	-.0764	.1385
TE16	-.0132	.0146	.1052	.2835	.2540
TE17	.2972	.1122	-.1459	.1678	-.0620
TE18	.1161	.0300	-.0579	.3527	.1021

	TE6	TE7	TE8	TE9	TE10
TE6	1.0000				
TE7	.1332	1.0000			
TE8	.1440	.4531	1.0000		
TE9	-.1716	.1994	.0291	1.0000	
TE10	.4533	-.0346	.1276	-.0689	1.0000
TE11	-.1794	.1373	.0619	.1499	-.2290
TE12	.3004	.1548	.1075	-.0493	.2272
TE13	.4097	-.0379	.2649	-.1628	.2893
TE14	.4245	.1077	.2309	-.0060	.3439
TE15	.2163	-.0397	-.0183	-.1450	.4464
TE16	.2119	.1496	.4135	-.0985	.1456
TE17	.0080	-.1110	.0834	.0467	.1206
TE18	.3166	.1956	.4397	-.1553	.1745

	TE11	TE12	TE13	TE14	TE15
TE11	1.0000				
TE12	.1488	1.0000			
TE13	.0031	.1592	1.0000		
TE14	-.0954	.3317	.4247	1.0000	
TE15	-.0042	.0106	.1830	.2755	1.0000
TE16	.1191	.2190	.4102	.3172	.2620
TE17	.1413	.1729	.0816	-.1243	.1728
TE18	.0428	.2603	.1994	.2513	.1751

	TE16	TE17	TE18
TE16	1.0000		
TE17	.1440	1.0000	
TE18	.3351	.1672	1.0000

N of Cases = 167.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	55.9521	64.4917	8.0307	18

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for the Job Aspect of Teaching

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
TE1	51.8443	62.6021	.1366	.3171	.7388
TE2	51.8263	62.3130	.1329	.2179	.7396
TE3	52.0898	59.6485	.2184	.4416	.7358
TE4	53.1138	55.3304	.3842	.3746	.7204
TE5	53.0838	56.3062	.4112	.3618	.7179
TE6	53.6168	56.6715	.4653	.4880	.7145
TE7	53.0060	58.0301	.2579	.3996	.7336
TE8	52.9940	53.9819	.4854	.5161	.7092
TE9	51.7066	64.0278	-.0116	.2523	.7487
TE10	53.8383	58.4978	.3396	.4430	.7251
TE11	52.2156	62.5436	.0875	.2677	.7436
TE12	52.8204	57.2928	.3336	.4181	.7254
TE13	53.0778	55.8072	.4914	.4764	.7113
TE14	53.1257	55.4841	.4535	.4645	.7136
TE15	53.8503	60.9955	.2046	.4169	.7354
TE16	53.2455	54.5960	.4912	.3676	.7094
TE17	52.5269	61.4797	.1498	.3120	.7398
TE18	53.2036	55.7776	.4414	.3879	.7149

Reliability Coefficients 18 items

Alpha = .7384 Standardized item alpha = .7195

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Research

	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5
R1	1.0000				
R2	.4889	1.0000			
R3	.2463	.1892	1.0000		
R4	.4234	.5683	.2527	1.0000	
R5	.3946	.3471	.2745	.4484	1.0000
R6	.2042	-.0145	.3965	-.0143	.2883
R7	.4313	.4065	.2595	.5025	.2434
R8	.3013	.3503	.2303	.3612	.4185
R9	.3723	.3544	.2285	.3070	.2595
R10	.2394	.2472	.1546	.3587	.3275
R11	.3173	.2113	.2028	.2750	.5181
R12	.3132	.3166	.1048	.4410	.3408
R13	.2214	.0942	.4683	.1218	.1324
R14	.1618	.0838	.4382	.0974	.1162
R15	.5365	.4531	.3299	.4863	.3551
R16	.4467	.4114	.3178	.4209	.3486

	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10
R6	1.0000				
R7	.0675	1.0000			
R8	.1588	.2948	1.0000		
R9	.2826	.2855	.3359	1.0000	
R10	.0680	.3179	.3852	.3023	1.0000
R11	.1633	.1910	.4480	.3275	.4098
R12	-.0128	.3191	.3694	.3410	.3506
R13	.6382	.1541	.0645	.4134	.0226
R14	.5754	.1151	.1063	.2657	.0157
R15	.1786	.5478	.3260	.3361	.2135
R16	.1942	.4495	.3151	.2846	.2203

	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15
R11	1.0000				
R12	.3481	1.0000			
R13	.2560	.0433	1.0000		
R14	.1772	-.0225	.7353	1.0000	
R15	.3169	.3048	.3675	.3016	1.0000
R16	.3691	.3099	.3540	.3212	.6539

R16

R16 1.0000

N of Cases = 169.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
Scale	38.2840	98.9189	9.9458	16

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for the Job Aspect of Research

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
R1	36.1243	86.1690	.5800	.4317	.8551
R2	35.7870	87.7401	.5007	.4553	.8588
R3	34.9586	85.8495	.4798	.3263	.8604
R4	35.7988	86.5545	.5638	.5306	.8559
R5	36.5089	90.1919	.5324	.4949	.8586
R6	35.7574	88.6610	.3736	.5648	.8657
R7	35.4379	85.2714	.5191	.4261	.8581
R8	36.4615	90.4286	.4870	.3848	.8599
R9	35.9408	88.1631	.5347	.3872	.8575
R10	35.9349	90.7398	.3850	.3172	.8637
R11	36.6391	90.6130	.4948	.4653	.8598
R12	36.1657	90.5557	.4126	.3302	.8625

R13	35.6686	85.8181	.4940	.7111	.8595
R14	35.3195	87.9568	.4255	.5838	.8627
R15	35.9231	83.8929	.6670	.5861	.8506
R16	35.8343	84.8176	.6279	.5036	.8526

Reliability Coefficients 16 items

Alpha = .8665 Standardized item alpha = .8710

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Governance

	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5
A1	1.0000				
A2	.5843	1.0000			
A3	.3752	.3653	1.0000		
A4	.6366	.4888	.4103	1.0000	
A5	.4396	.1439	.3255	.3479	1.0000
A6	.3087	.2960	.3442	.3914	.1542
A7	.3938	.2702	.2266	.3700	.3470
A8	.4459	.3476	.3359	.4115	.1061
A9	.2511	.2462	.3519	.1464	.1661
A10	.4538	.2589	.3480	.4187	.3928
A11	.1318	.2388	-.0609	.2007	-.0023
A12	.3311	.2120	.2851	.4473	.3438

	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10
A6	1.0000				
A7	.2233	1.0000			
A8	.4185	.4229	1.0000		
A9	.4607	.3104	.3203	1.0000	
A10	.3345	.4802	.2997	.2932	1.0000
A11	.0013	.0651	.1893	-.3248	.2370
A12	.3136	.4041	.3774	.2810	.3914

	A11	A12
A11	1.0000	
A12	.1317	1.0000

N of Cases = 172.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean 31.9709	Variance 55.8880	Std Dev 7.4758	N of Variables 12
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RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Governance

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
A1	29.7965	46.1630	.6667	.6075	.8053
A2	29.3895	47.6778	.5243	.4689	.8159
A3	29.1860	47.2985	.4971	.3480	.8179
A4	29.5872	45.6941	.6575	.5476	.8051
A5	29.1919	49.5595	.4105	.3565	.8243
A6	29.2151	46.1113	.4908	.3724	.8191
A7	29.0465	46.9452	.5279	.3940	.8154
A8	29.5116	47.4326	.5672	.4353	.8129
A9	28.6047	49.0592	.3737	.4712	.8279
A10	29.2849	46.4037	.6010	.4536	.8097
A11	29.5349	52.7882	.1086	.3684	.8498
A12	29.3314	47.0533	.5347	.3487	.8149
Reliability Coefficients		12 items			

Alpha = .8312 Standardized item alpha = .8358

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Remuneration

	REM1	REM2	REM3	REM4	REM5
REM1	1.0000				
REM2	.6186	1.0000			
REM3	.6001	.6749	1.0000		
REM4	.4006	.3533	.3603	1.0000	
REM5	.0863	.2355	.0468	.2728	1.0000
REM6	.1816	.2485	.3738	.3886	.1410
REM7	.3003	.3636	.4256	.2900	.1675
REM8	.2924	.2966	.4727	.3247	.1029
	REM6	REM7	REM8		
REM6	1.0000				
REM7	.3675	1.0000			
REM8	.5670	.3661	1.0000		

N of Cases = 175.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	16.8171	22.1848	4.7101	8

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Remuneration

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
REM1	14.7257	17.1772	.5323	.4810	.7530
REM2	14.8743	16.9036	.6207	.5657	.7395
REM3	14.9714	16.9130	.6469	.6045	.7364
REM4	14.7371	17.4133	.5276	.3092	.7541
REM5	14.0629	18.4960	.2160	.1509	.8187
REM6	14.8514	18.0353	.4911	.4003	.7605
REM7	14.7543	18.0944	.4920	.2618	.7606
REM8	14.7429	17.0427	.5147	.4120	.7558

Reliability Coefficients 8 items

Alpha = .7840 Standardized item alpha = .7996

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Promotion

	O1	O2	O3	O4	O5
O1	1.0000				
O2	.3408	1.0000			
O3	.3129	.4947	1.0000		
O4	.2777	.6016	.6714	1.0000	
O5	.1799	.5172	.4912	.4881	1.0000
O6	.1701	.3341	.4584	.5869	.3058
O7	-.0073	.3041	.1349	.2816	.4565
O8	-.0555	.2173	.3567	.3903	.3119
O9	.1027	.3796	.2356	.4058	.4353
O10	.0876	.3129	.2169	.3484	.4275

	O6	O7	O8	O9	O10
O6	1.0000				
O7	.1597	1.0000			
O8	.6222	.3283	1.0000		
O9	.2492	.7187	.3027	1.0000	
O10	.1611	.6279	.2218	.6315	1.0000

N of Cases = 164.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	28.1829	46.3344	6.8069	10

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Promotion

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
O1	25.7561	42.4309	.2310	.2006	.8531
O2	25.3537	37.3097	.6058	.4673	.8212
O3	25.0854	37.0970	.5814	.5353	.8234
O4	25.1768	36.5759	.7187	.6447	.8112
O5	25.4390	36.9226	.6301	.4525	.8187
O6	24.8841	37.9558	.5233	.5485	.8291
O7	25.6220	38.2488	.5103	.6166	.8303
O8	25.0183	38.9506	.4638	.4822	.8345
O9	25.7561	37.5720	.5985	.6017	.8220
O10	25.5549	38.8252	.5196	.4833	.8293

Reliability Coefficients 10 items

Alpha = .8422 Standardized item alpha = .8414

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Supervision

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5
S1	1.0000				
S2	.3277	1.0000			
S3	.3120	.3301	1.0000		
S4	.2374	.3716	.5169	1.0000	
S5	.1465	.4913	.4383	.7161	1.0000
S6	.4141	.2961	.4483	.3236	.3331
S7	.3412	.5617	.4677	.4850	.5065
S8	.5060	.2182	.2425	.1915	.1513
S9	.3864	.1449	.0170	.2352	.1276
S10	.3575	.2657	.0926	.2518	.1949
S11	.5482	.2158	.0547	.1141	.0539
S12	.5143	.3727	.0327	.1415	.1801
S13	.5472	.2780	.1053	.2617	.2393
S14	.1293	.5655	.3010	.4930	.5427
	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
S6	1.0000				
S7	.4313	1.0000			
S8	.6237	.3935	1.0000		
S9	.1978	.1725	.4284	1.0000	
S10	.2515	.2022	.4442	.7378	1.0000
S11	.3543	.1593	.4449	.3997	.3885

S12	.4017	.3142	.5131	.3718	.3811
S13	.4554	.3631	.5155	.4258	.4147
S14	.2881	.4197	.2446	.3316	.4442

	S11	S12	S13	S14
S11	1.0000			
S12	.6897	1.0000		
S13	.6123	.7630	1.0000	
S14	.1587	.2755	.2574	1.0000

N of Cases = 174.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	44.9310	89.2322	9.4463	14

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Supervision

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
S1	41.9770	75.7220	.5860	.5245	.8711
S2	41.3161	78.6336	.5446	.5399	.8732
S3	41.5287	80.8633	.4085	.4761	.8792
S4	41.4483	77.9366	.5285	.6103	.8739
S5	41.7299	78.1405	.4983	.6148	.8755
S6	41.9770	77.4677	.5980	.5321	.8707
S7	41.8276	75.8083	.5927	.5189	.8707
S8	41.9253	75.7343	.6048	.5754	.8701
S9	41.5460	79.3591	.4775	.6030	.8762
S10	41.3506	79.8012	.5402	.6135	.8737
S11	42.0460	78.4719	.5143	.5642	.8746
S12	42.0172	76.6298	.6160	.7093	.8697
S13	42.0402	74.5244	.6502	.6675	.8677
S14	41.3736	77.9348	.5360	.5376	.8736

Reliability Coefficients 14 items

Alpha = .8809 Standardized item alpha = .8807

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Co-worker Behaviour

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
C1	1.0000				
C2	.2213	1.0000			
C3	.3039	.6240	1.0000		
C4	.2456	.4160	.5604	1.0000	
C5	.2929	.5662	.6320	.6672	1.0000
C6	.2867	.6543	.6432	.5552	.6107
C7	.2145	.5656	.6478	.6574	.6256
C8	.5449	.2369	.3709	.3819	.3103
C9	.4154	.1937	.2861	.1588	.2930
C10	.0558	.5008	.4494	.4060	.4169
C11	.0657	.4239	.4097	.3649	.4456
C12	.3771	.1550	.2859	.1974	.2911
C13	.5896	.2300	.2979	.1792	.2983
C14	.4366	.1495	.1684	.1298	.1761

	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10
C6	1.0000				
C7	.6479	1.0000			
C8	.3388	.4035	1.0000		
C9	.3020	.2521	.5338	1.0000	
C10	.6095	.5003	.1354	.1646	1.0000
C11	.5879	.4726	.0918	.1987	.6649
C12	.2924	.3145	.5081	.4963	.2108
C13	.3736	.2113	.5887	.6050	.1308
C14	.2024	.1601	.4527	.5521	.1326

	C11	C12	C13	C14
C11	1.0000			
C12	.2482	1.0000		
C13	.0577	.5028	1.0000	
C14	.0825	.2980	.5662	1.0000

N of Cases = 169.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	48.2899	80.8142	8.9897	14

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Co-worker Behaviour

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
C1	44.9112	71.1052	.4462	.4400	.8901
C2	45.0828	68.5645	.6088	.5495	.8820
C3	44.9112	69.6052	.7055	.5878	.8786
C4	45.3136	68.1689	.6069	.5973	.8822
C5	44.9527	67.5930	.6963	.6177	.8778
C6	44.9467	65.6341	.7602	.6879	.8743
C7	45.1361	67.0349	.7046	.6353	.8773
C8	44.7278	71.2350	.5590	.5667	.8843
C9	44.3728	73.5209	.4980	.5149	.8869
C10	45.0178	69.6961	.5391	.5493	.8855
C11	44.9349	70.5374	.5075	.5518	.8868
C12	44.5740	72.9722	.4739	.4132	.8877
C13	44.5207	72.5606	.5185	.6311	.8860
C14	44.3669	75.4837	.3876	.4243	.8906

Reliability Coefficients 14 items

Alpha = .8912 Standardized item alpha = .8911

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Working Environment

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5
P1	1.0000				
P2	.6360	1.0000			
P3	.1145	.1988	1.0000		
P4	.3656	.4352	.4061	1.0000	
P5	.2942	.4111	.1399	.2672	1.0000
P6	.2123	.2347	.5945	.4331	.1862
P7	.3787	.3794	.2121	.4467	.3396
P8	.2148	.2755	.1446	.3659	.3978
P9	.3370	.3100	.1449	.4906	.2634
P10	.2263	.2711	.3555	.3429	.1142
P11	.2204	.1976	.6197	.3489	.0838
P12	.1219	.2032	.2930	.1502	.3321
P13	.1760	.1644	.2279	-.0101	.2372
P14	.3618	.3516	.3082	.2533	.2248
P15	.4501	.4994	.1018	.3132	.4241

	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
P6	1.0000				

P7	.3845	1.0000			
P8	.1945	.3024	1.0000		
P9	.2219	.3652	.2996	1.0000	
P10	.4246	.2341	.2199	.3267	1.0000
P11	.4649	.1129	.0747	.1099	.4817
P12	.3570	.3134	.1057	.0702	.3784
P13	.3727	.2154	.0398	-.0597	.2982
P14	.4462	.3261	.1010	.2026	.3716
P15	.2558	.4562	.3169	.3917	.2995

	P11	P12	P13	P14	P15
P11	1.0000				
P12	.3083	1.0000			
P13	.3448	.5090	1.0000		
P14	.3838	.2299	.4360	1.0000	
P15	.0980	.2847	.3547	.3459	1.0000

N of Cases = 172.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	42.8605	92.7056	9.6284	15

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Working Environment

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
P1	39.6453	81.6922	.5082	.4806	.8466
P2	39.5116	80.2279	.5682	.5271	.8433
P3	40.8372	82.7453	.4616	.5325	.8489
P4	40.2442	77.2032	.5640	.5183	.8434
P5	38.9302	82.0770	.4610	.3712	.8490
P6	40.8605	81.9570	.5914	.5203	.8434
P7	39.5000	79.1520	.5570	.4109	.8437
P8	39.2442	83.3318	.3741	.2747	.8539
P9	40.3081	82.5536	.4270	.3889	.8509
P10	40.5930	81.9738	.5287	.4222	.8457
P11	40.9535	83.9627	.4649	.5397	.8490
P12	40.0872	82.3257	.4416	.4117	.8501
P13	40.0116	82.3624	.3842	.4930	.8540
P14	40.1686	80.8194	.5277	.3983	.8454
P15	39.1512	81.4156	.5773	.4789	.8435

Reliability Coefficients 15 items

Alpha = .8561 Standardized item alpha = .8592

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Correlation Matrix for Job in General (JIG)

	G1	G2	G3	G4
G1	1.0000			
G2	.2579	1.0000		
G3	.2791	.4845	1.0000	
G4	.2853	.5079	.6305	1.0000

N of Cases = 182.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
	14.9780	7.6128	2.7591	4

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics for Job in General (JIG)

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Correlated Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
G1	10.9451	5.5992	.3288	.1083	.7767
G2	11.3901	4.4160	.5422	.3110	.6698
G3	11.2527	4.1678	.6196	.4400	.6207
G4	11.3462	4.4486	.6431	.4576	.6130

Reliability Coefficients 4 items

Alpha = .7368 Standardized item alpha = .7334

Appendix 4

LETTERS OF RESEARCH INTENTIONS AND AUTHORISATION

**Islamic University
In Uganda**



مكتب المعلومات
الجامعة الإسلامية
في أوغندا

Our Ref

PFA/AKN/32

Date

24th March 2000

Mr. N.A. Karim Ssesanga
Graduate School of Education
University of Bristol
8-10 Berkeley Square
Bristol - BS8 1JA
England.
E-mail: n.a. ssesanga@bristol.ac.uk

Dear Mr. Ssesanga,

Assalam Alaikum,

Reference is made to your letter dated 8th February 2000 in connection with your request to conduct a survey questionnaire and interviews with the academic staff in this university from April - July 2000 for your research. I am authorised to inform you that the university will participate as requested. It is hoped that this research will have no financial implications on the part of the university.

Let me take this opportunity to wish you a safe journey to IUIU and Allah's blessings in your studies.

Dr. Ahmad K. Sengendo
UNIVERSITY SECRETARY

MAKERERE

P. O. Box 7062 Kampala Uganda
Cables: "MAKUNIKA"



UNIVERSITY

Tel.: 256-41-540436 • Fax: 256-41-541068
E-Mail: VC@uga.healthnet.org

OFFICE OF THE UNIVERSITY SECRETARY

Your Ref.

Our Ref.

26 July 2000

Mr. Karim N.A. Ssesanga
Graduate School of Education
University of Bristol
8-10 Berkerley Square
Bristol - BS 8IJA
ENGLAND

Dear Mr. Ssesanga.

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT YOUR STUDY AT MAKERERE UNIVERSITY

This is to acknowledge receipt of your letter dated July 21, 2000, in which you were requesting for permission to carry out an inquiry in **Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction among academics in Universities in Uganda.**

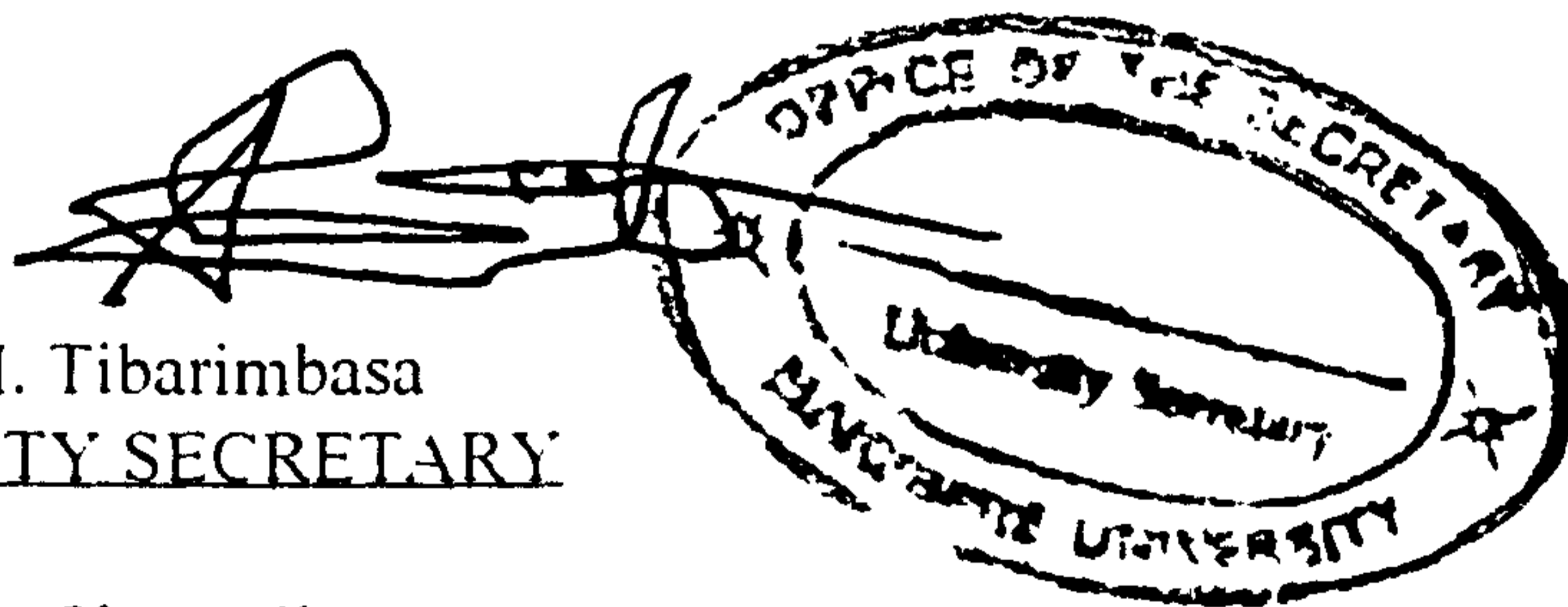
Permission has been granted to you to conduct a survey questionnaire and interviews with the academic staff at Makerere University.

Best wishes.

Yours sincerely.

Avitus K.M. Tibarimbasa
UNIVERSITY SECRETARY

c.c. Vice-Chancellor



N. A. Karim Ssesanga
Graduate School of Education
University of Bristol
8-10 Berkeley Square
Bristol - BS 8 1 JA
ENGLAND.

8th February, 2000.

Fax: +44-0117-9225563

E mail: n.a.ssesanga@bristol.ac.uk

The University Secretary
Islamic University in Uganda
P. O Box 2555
Mbale- Uganda
EAST AFRICA.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I'm in the second phase of my Doctoral programme at the University of Bristol in England and, for my thesis, I'm conducting an inquiry in *Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction among academics in universities in Uganda.*

As the empirical part of this study, I'm hoping to conduct a survey questionnaire and interviews with academic staff in your university as from April to July, 2000. I am hoping you will agree to take part in this process.

I would be most grateful if you would agree to this. I am very aware that this is an extra demand at a very busy time of the year but hope that you will find the topic interesting enough to offer some of your valuable time.

It is hoped that the findings from this study will offer informed choices to university administrators, managers, policy makers and other stakeholders. This claim is in the light of extant literature which suggests that effective management of dons demands information on their job satisfaction particularly the causes, the patterns and the consequences among other considerations. The research results, it is anticipated, will be made available to universities in Uganda and all interested parties.

Thanking you so much for your co-operation.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely,


N. A Karim Ssesanga

c.c. Academic Registrar
Islamic University in Uganda-Mbale.

N. A. Karim Ssesanga
Graduate School of Education
University of Bristol
8-10 Berkeley Square
Bristol - BS 8 1JA
ENGLAND.

8th February, 2000.

Fax: +44-0117-9225563

E mail: n.a.ssesanga@bristol.ac.uk

The University Secretary
Makerere University
P. O Box 7062
Kampala- Uganda
EAST AFRICA.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I'm in the second phase of my Doctoral programme at the University of Bristol in England and, for my thesis, I'm conducting an inquiry in *Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction among academics in universities in Uganda.*

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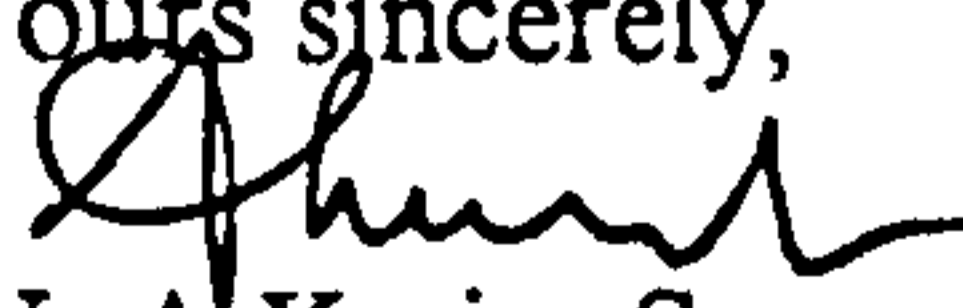
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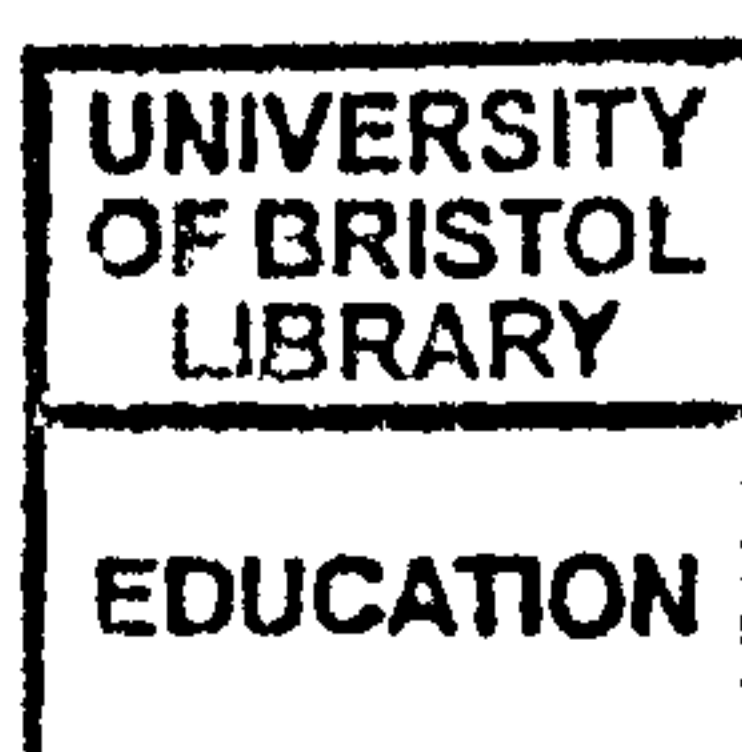
Thanking you so much for your co-operation.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely,


N. A Karim Ssesanga

c.c. Academic Registrar
Makerere University, Kampala.

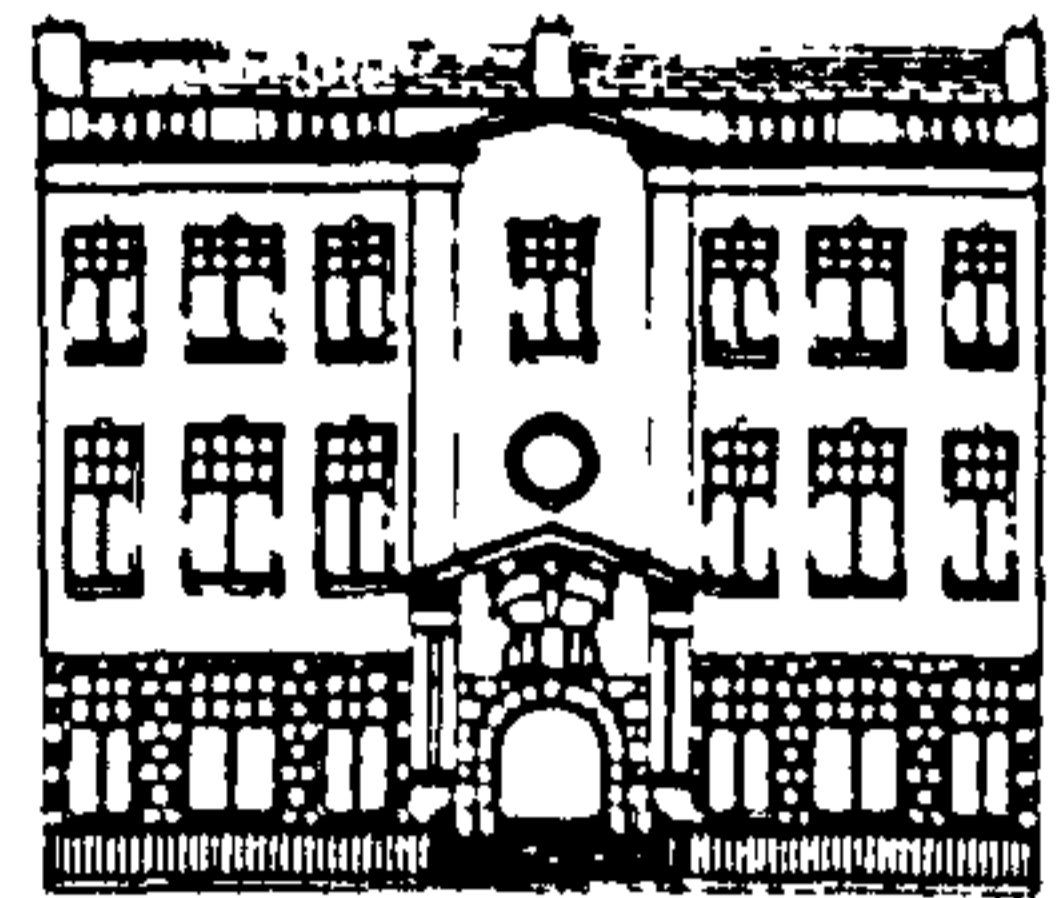




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Graduate School of Education
Doctor of Education Programme



Programme Director: Tim Hill
Tim.Hill@Bristol.ac.uk

Mrs Jacqui Upcott
Administrator

13 April 2000

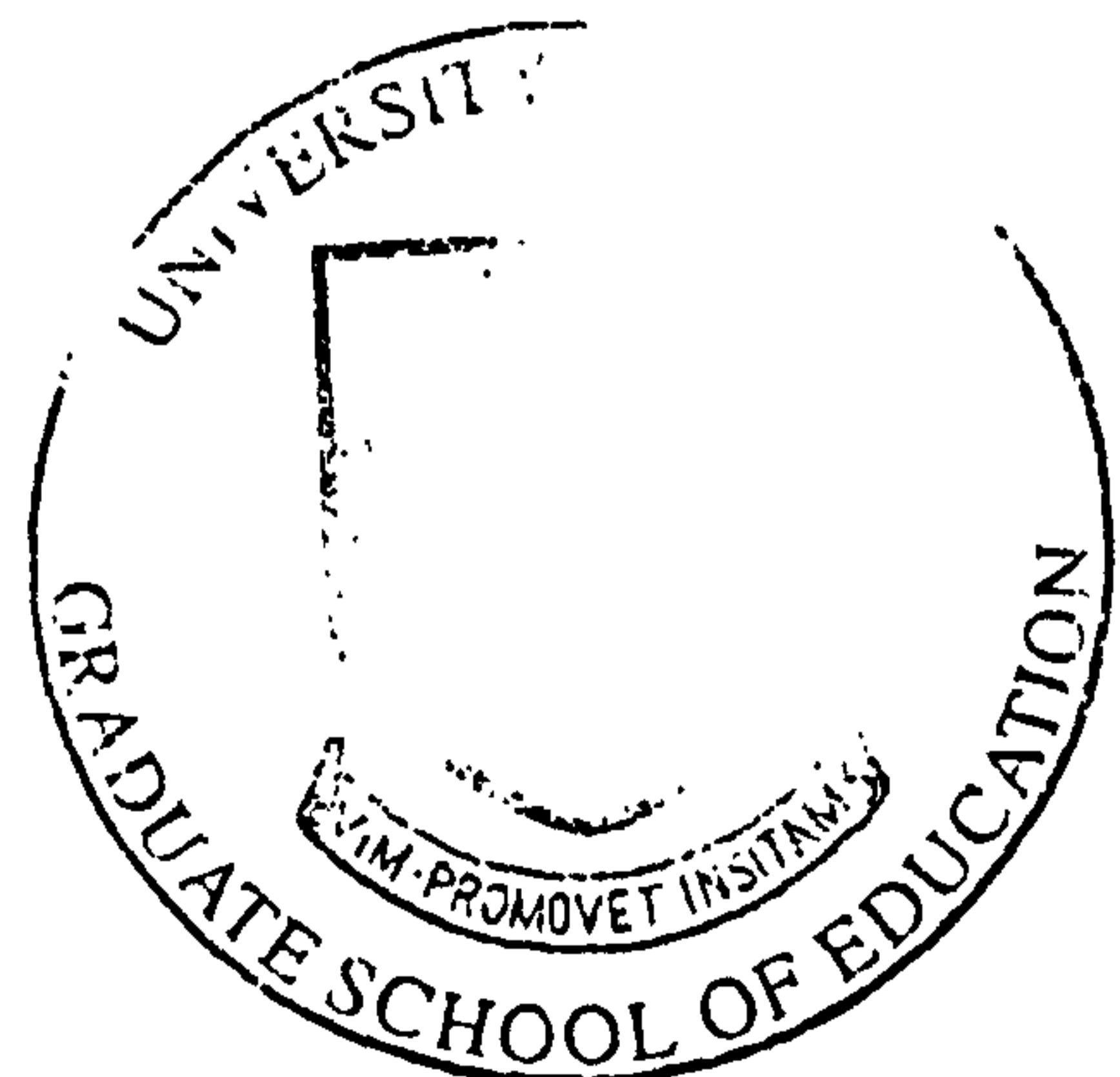
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to confirm that Mr Nasser Abdool Karim SSESANGA is a current student on the Doctor of Education programme at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol. He commenced his studies in October 1998 and the minimum period of full-time study is three years.

He is returning home to Uganda on 23rd April, 2000 in order to collect data for his dissertation and is returning to Bristol on 24th July to complete his studies.

J Upcott

Mrs Jacqui Upcott
EdD Administrator



e-mail Jacqui.Upcott@bristol.ac.uk

<http://www.bris.ac.uk/Depts/Education/edd.htm>