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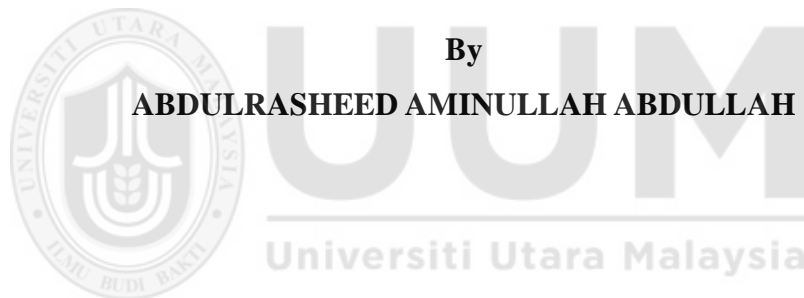
ABDUL RASHEED ABDULLAH AMINULLAH

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
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THE INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON ACADEMICIAN EFFECTIVENESS IN NORTH-WESTERN NIGERIA: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL LABOUR

By

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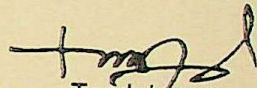|		
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ABSTRACT

Academician effectiveness evaluation should be an effective mechanism for promoting academia growth in higher learning institutions. Thus, the aim of this research is to examine the relationship between motivation, organisational climate (communication climate and social climate) and academician effectiveness. Emotional labour (surface acting and deep acting) was a mediator on the relationship between motivation, organisational climate and academician effectiveness. Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Affective Event Theory (AET) were utilized in constructing the research framework. The respondents were 233 university lecturers and 1665 students from selected thirteen Nigerian public universities spread over north-western Nigeria. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was employed for initial data screening and aggregation of the dyad's relationships, while the PLS-SEM technique was used to examine the relationships among the constructs. A purposive sampling approach was used to meet an adequate representative sample. Research findings indicated that communication climate was positively and significantly related to academician effectiveness and deep acting. Deep acting and social climate were positively and significantly related to academician effectiveness, while motivation was positively and significantly correlated to deep acting. However, communication climate was not significantly related to surface acting. Likewise, motivation was not significantly related to academician effectiveness and surface acting. Also, social climate was not significantly related to deep acting, surface acting and academician effectiveness. The findings revealed that emotional labour mediated the relationship between motivation, organisational climate and academician effectiveness. Conversely, the emotional labour strategy of surface acting had no mediating effect on the relationship in this study. Research on academician effectiveness should focus on new methods and approaches for improving effectiveness among academicians. This study also contributes to the new literature on SET and AET theories.

Keywords: Academician effectiveness, emotional labour, organizational climate, motivation.

ABSTRAK

Penilaian keberkesanan ahli akademik harus menjadi satu mekanisme yang efektif untuk menggalakkan pertumbuhan akademik di institusi pengajian tinggi. Oleh itu, tujuan penyelidikan ini adalah untuk mengkaji hubungan antara motivasi, iklim organisasi (iklim komunikasi dan iklim sosial) dan keberkesanan ahli akademik. Tenaga kerja beremosi (aksi *surface* dan aksi mendalam) adalah pengantara hubungan antara motivasi, iklim organisasi dan keberkesanan ahli akademik. Teori Pertukaran Sosial (SET) dan Teori Peristiwa Afektif (AET) telah diguna pakai dalam membina kerangka penyelidikan. Responden adalah terdiri daripada 233 pensyarah universiti dan 1665 pelajar dari tiga belas universiti awam Nigeria yang terpilih merangkumi barat laut Nigeria. Pakej Statistik untuk Sains Sosial (SPSS) digunakan untuk penyaringan data awal dan pengaggregatan perhubungan dyad, manakala teknik PLS-SEM digunakan untuk mengkaji hubungan antara konstruk. Pendekatan persampelan bertujuan digunakan untuk memenuhi representasi sampel yang mencukupi. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa iklim komunikasi mempunyai hubungan positif dan signifikan dengan keberkesanan ahli akademik dan aksi mendalam. Aksi mendalam dan iklim sosial mempunyai hubungan positif dan signifikan dengan keberkesanan ahli akademik, manakala motivasi mempunyai kolerasi positif dan signifikan dengan aksi mendalam. Walau bagaimanapun, iklim komunikasi tidak mempunyai hubungan signifikan dengan aksi *surface*. Begitu juga, motivasi tidak mempunyai hubungan signifikan dengan keberkesanan ahli akademik dan aksi *surface*. Selain itu, iklim sosial tidak mempunyai hubungan signifikan dengan aksi mendalam, aksi *surface* dan keberkesanan ahli akademik. Hasil penemuan mendedahkan bahawa tenaga kerja beremosi menjadi pengantara hubungan antara motivasi, iklim organisasi dan keberkesanan ahli akademik. Sebaliknya, strategi tenaga kerja beremosi aksi *surface* tidak mempunyai kesan pengantara ke atas hubungan dalam kajian ini. Penyelidikan tentang keberkesanan ahli akademik harus memberi fokus kepada kaedah dan pendekatan baharu untuk meningkatkan keberkesanan dalam kalangan ahli akademik. Kajian ini juga menyumbang kepada literasi baharu berkenaan teori SET dan AET.

Kata Kunci: Keberkesanan ahli akademik, tenaga kerja beremosi, iklim organisasi, motivasi.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABU	Ahmadu Bello University
AET	Affective Event Theory
AE	Academician Effectiveness
ASUU	Academic Staff Union of Institutions
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BUK	Bayero University Kano
Chi	Chi Squared
CMV	Common Method Variance
CR	Composite Reliability
CC	Communication Climate
DA	Deep Acting
D²	Mahalanobis
Df	Degree of Freedom
EL	Emotional Labour
F2	Effect Size
FUBK	Federal University Birnin Kudu
FUD	Federal University Dutse
FUDMA	Federal University Dutsen Ma
FUG	Federal University Gusau
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait
HRM	Human Resources Management
IPMA	Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis
IMF	International Monetary Fund

KASU	Kaduna State University
KBSU	Kebbi State University
LV	Latent variable
MO	Motivation
MSA	Measurement Sample Adequacy
NUC	Nigerian Universities Commission
OC	Organisational Climate
OYA	Othman Yeop Abdullah
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PRISMA	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses Statement
PLS	Partial Least Squares
Q2	Construct Cross validated Redundancy
R²	R-Squared values
SA	Surface Acting
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SC	Social Climate
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
SLU	Sule Lamido University
SLR	Systematic Literature Review
SSU	Sokoto State University
TE	Teacher Effectiveness
UNESCO	United Nation' Education Scientific and Cultural Organization
USA	United States of America

USRD	Universal Students Ratings of Instruction instrument
UYU	Umaru Yar'adua University
VIF	Variance Inflated Factor
WHO	World Health Organization
WOS	Web of Science
WTO	World Tourism Organization
YMSU	Yusuf Maitama Sule University

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter comprises the background of the study, problem statement, research questions and objectives, significance of the study, the scope of the study, operational definition of variables, and organisation.

1.1 Background of the Study

Effective academicians are matchless in assisting students in succeeding (Beteille et al., 2020). They enable simultaneous oriented teaching and learning procedures, enhancing students' comprehension of content via immediate retorts to queries. Rendering scholarship with fun, determining students' cognitive abilities, typifying compassion, modeling collaboration and reverence, and structuring student agility in numerous ways (Ibrahim et al., 2021). Effective academicians conduct their activities with college administration crews and parents to guarantee unswerving defence for scholars. Emphasising the nature of effectiveness in the teaching industry depends on the academic's most significant determinant of school-specific student performance, social, emotional development, and later life (Kibriya & Jones, 2021). Presently, due to its ever-increasing relevance and value to higher educational institutions, academician effectiveness is still an issue that needs to be researched by academics. (Antony et al., 2019a). For decades, scholars have debated what defines academic effectiveness (Jones, Bergin, 2019). Greater knowledge of what defines academic effectiveness has far-reaching implications for academic preparation, recruitment,

1

compensation, in-service professional development, and evaluation (Strunk et al., 2018). Academician effectiveness is teaching that fosters a climate where students may achieve profound learning results, where high-quality student learning is encouraged, and where superficial learning approaches are discouraged (Sims & Fletcher-Wood, 2021).

Notably, academicians' effectiveness research has taken the front stage within the spectrum of scientific inquiry academia (Mosca, 2019). Consequently, those who study and try to advance academician effectiveness must be familiar with the academic targets or the aims those academics create in any given situation (Hughes, 2019). Studying academician effectiveness is very important since the long-term survival of many academic institutions is considered linked to the institutions' ability to satisfy their employees. It helps to ensure that the employee's assumption is met on a long- or short-term basis. As academicians, lecturers significantly impact student learning and accomplishment, and some professors are more effective than others in achieving desired educational results. (Connor & Cavendish, 2020a). Identifying qualities that account for academician effectiveness has been and continues to be crucial with the ultimate goal of enhancing education. As a result, empirical research on various lecturer qualities, such as sociodemographic background variables, motivation, and personality, has sparked much interest in recent decades. (Kim, Jorg, & Klassen, 2019).

Lately, academics have emphasized the significance of connecting academician effectiveness to numerous aspects of academician learning. This type of consideration is getting growing attention as a vital means for ensuring the provision of excellent understanding to all scholars and refining academic effectiveness (Strunk et al., 2018). Sharma and Garg (2019) opined that effective academicians optimise students' academic achievement and happiness with their courses. Kanwal et al. (2018) justified that effective academician transfer knowledge by organising and presenting clearly for the enhancement of student participation. Highly effective academicians can significantly improve the lives of their students. Researchers and policymakers must fully comprehend the aspects that contribute to academician effectiveness. Also, it will lead stakeholders and observers in the educational domain to pay attention to academician effectiveness. Thus, attention will be paid to how academician attempt to build and sustain high-quality relationships with key people in those contexts—students, principals, parents, colleagues, and mentors at school and in teacher education programs.

The motivation for this study is derived from the premise that despite general agreement about the importance of high-quality academics, researchers, practitioners, policy makers, and the public have been unable to reach a consensus about what specific qualities and characteristics make a good academic. Even more concerning is the array of policy statements regarding academician preparation that have been outlined in the face of inconclusive and inconsistent evidence about what academician effectiveness contributes to desired educational outcomes.

Policy makers are left with questions surrounding what constitutes an effective academician and information that could be valuable in guiding policies regarding whom to hire, whom to reward, and how best to distribute academics across schools and classrooms. Answers to these questions have potentially significant implications for the efficiency and equity of public education.

Therefore, the central purpose and motivation of the study are to underscore the important point of promoting the continuing relevance of academician effectiveness and gaining a better understanding of the relationship between the various stakeholders and practitioners in the field. Studying academician effectiveness could improve the eventual aim of learning. It has been and will continue to be crucial to determining the attributes that help improve academician effectiveness (Bardach & Klassen, 2020).

Conversely, when an academician is ineffective, it leads to issues associated with examination malpractices and poor supervision of examination by personnel of the ministry of education. Other adverse outcomes include ineffective invigilation of tests by teachers, undue pressure from parents, defective classroom organization of chairs and tables/seating arrangements, non-provision of the hall to write examinations, parental influence on teachers, compromising of standards by school leadership, student's poor attitude to studies and hinders a university from achieving full efficiency (Denisova-Schmidt, 2018).

Similarly, ineffectiveness on the part of the academic could be responsible for poor academic achievement by the students, thereby leading to a degraded education system in any given country.

Taken together, the quality of teaching is related to their effectiveness (Kim, Jorg, et al., 2019). Therefore, the consequences of a lack of effectiveness among academicians are enormous and constitute challenges that need the attention of experts. As such, when academics are ineffective, they become overstressed with tasks such as researching for the sake of getting their promotions only, going to seminars, attracting students, and engaging in social responsibility (Sadeghi et al., 2019b). Subsequently, Strunk et al. (2018) reported factors that hinder academicians from being effective such as workload, new demands from the ministry, community hostility, despair, rage, anxiousness, and frustration. As a result, lecturers must possess the necessary information, skills, and talents to enable the most efficient knowledge and equip themselves with additional acceptable skills until they are recognised as effective academics. As employers of academic staff, universities are bound to ensure that necessary provisions are put in place to address their staff needs and that an enabling environment is in place. This will ensure that employees achieve an optimal level of fulfilment for guaranteeing effectiveness in their respective jobs (Espinoza et al., 2020b). Also, another source of motivation for undertaking this research is that every year a large number of studies are allocated to educational issues of academicians and students and the strategies for improving academic standards. In the educational system, academicians play a role in educational reform's forefront (Barnes, Sofyan, Barnes, & Finefter-rosenbluh, 2021).

It is noteworthy that how far academicians insist on the requirements of their profession, are faithful to the goals of the educational system, internalize their professional values has affected their effectiveness and needs further interrogation (Sehjal, 2021). This is necessary as academician effectiveness is a matter of central importance to all educational institutions since it affects the process of learning and classroom management. Numerous theorists and researchers identified various individual factors essential for facilitating student achievement in terms of cognitive, affective and psychomotor learning or promoting effective learning (Widodo & Chandrawaty, 2021).

Therefore, academic effectiveness involves a set of teaching behaviors that are especially effective in bringing about desired changes in students' learning. According to Smith and Sheridan (2018), academician effectiveness is the most significant school-related element that influences student accomplishment according to educational studies conducted globally in tertiary institutions of learning. (Sadeghi et al., 2019a). As a result, academics worldwide devote a lot of time and effort to figuring out how various policies aimed at the educational sector affect academician effectiveness in the upcoming years (Edinger & Edinger, 2018). Research on academician effectiveness and their institutions in developed and developing countries has been sparse (Fischer et al., 2018). While, to date, limited research has been done concerning academician effectiveness in universities among institutions of tertiary learning in Nigeria, it is also safe to mention that no established precedence is recorded which can influence or improve the effectiveness of academics in Nigerian tertiary institutions (Counihan, Humble, Gittins, & Dixon, 2021).

6

1.2 The Current Position of Tertiary Education in Nigeria

Higher Education is a critical component of sustainable human and national development (Egielewa, Idogho, Iyalomhe, & Cirella, 2022). It is axiomatic that no nation ever develops technologically and economically without first investing heavily in its higher education. Higher education institutions are sources of new knowledge and innovative thinking; they provide skilled personnel and credible credentials; contribute to innovation and improve the productivity of nations. In Nigeria, there is a growing number of public and private higher education institutions, especially since the inception of democratic governance in 1999, to meet the ever-increasing demand for student admissions into various fields of study.

There are 44 federal government universities, 48 state government universities, and 79 private universities in Nigeria (National University Commission, 2020). The goals of university education, as specified in the Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN, 2019, p. 1) tertiary education policy is: (1) To contribute to national development through relevant high-level manpower training; (2) To develop and teach proper values for the survival of society; (3) To promote scholarship, community service, national unity, and international understanding. In Nigeria's last three decades, Tertiary education policies have focused on improving access to education (British Council, 2022).

The high costs of financing higher education and dwindling national income pose a great challenge for Nigeria's sustainability of high-quality higher education. Nigeria can only remain afloat if we refocus on the tendencies and mechanisms that promote more renewable resources like human capital rather than exhaustible resources. Also, many Nigerian universities do not adequately incorporate into their curriculum the

7

teaching of employability skills (Okolie & Mlanga, 2018). Therefore, many students graduate without developing self-awareness and opportunity awareness that helps match individuals to the right career opportunities.

Unfortunately, improved access to education has failed to translate into increased effectiveness among academics. Studies consistently find that students are poorly taught and the curriculum underdeveloped, leading to low skills and a high level of unemployment (British Council, 2022). Nigeria has not fully harnessed its potential for tertiary education. This results from many variables that challenge quality service delivery in Tertiary Education in Nigeria. An in-depth study of the Human Development Index (HDI) produced by the United Nations Educational and Scientific Cultural Organization in 2018 showed that Nigeria was ranked in 24th position out of 54 countries in Africa and also ranked 157 in the world when it comes to educational development (UNESCO, 2018). Among the challenges confronting tertiary institutions in Nigeria include brain drain. Brain drain is a severe issue in Nigeria. The reasons why some Nigerian academics run overseas have a lot to do with inadequate incentives for research and other conditions of service, which exposes their ineffectiveness. Secondly is the issue of unqualified staff. This is a direct result of an increased graduate from educational institutions who largely lack the requisite skills to be self-reliant or get absorbed into the organized private sector. Another challenge faced by higher educational institutions in Nigeria is the relevance of the curriculum, which is judged in terms of its ability to help students pass the examinations. Next is the question of quality.

With the large proliferation of students in educational institutions, it becomes difficult to control the quality of the education system, especially given Nigeria's low-level income and daunting economic challenges. This is because fewer resources are being deployed for an unprecedented number of students. Another challenge is that of a weak policy implementation structure. Previous governments have formulated numerous impressive policies since post-independence to provide a solid bedrock for sustainable education (McGaw, 2019). However, the weak policy implementation process has been a clog in the wheel of execution (Onwuka, 2021). This is sometimes caused by corruption and a lack of continuity in governance in Nigeria. This, no doubt, affects the implementation despite the visionary policies we have had in the country. In the same vein, the lack of political will by successive governments in Nigeria has exhibited little or no impetus to enhance the growth of the educational sector (Onwuka, 2021). Over the years, political leaders have reduced the level of commitment shown by political leaders toward improving the educational sector in Nigeria (Jacob & 2021).

Globally, the gross domestic expenditure on research and development is extensively utilized as a global pointer to quantify research investment. It is expressed as a proportion of a country's total economic activity or gross domestic product. The global average is a respectable 1.77 percent. African countries, on the other hand, fall behind. It is 0.76 percent in South Africa and 0.4 percent in Egypt. With 0.2 percent, Nigeria lags behind even its African counterparts (Ekechukwu, 2019). The issue is funding remains a fundamental challenge has impeded the quality of tertiary education in Nigeria.

9

For instance, many tertiary institutions are financially weak and unable to build lecture halls and research facilities of global standards. This also extends to inadequacy and late payments of staff salaries, poor laboratories, and lack of research grants- making thorough research almost impossible, among other issues (Ndubisi and Jacob, 2021). Due to these issues, tertiary educational institutions cannot effectively transfer knowledge (Ogunode Niyi Jacob & Adah Samuel, 2020). Additionally, this bane has always culminated in several industrial strike actions by the staff of these institutions (Monogbe & Monogbe, 2019).

This is evident in the monies allocated to the sector in the budget every fiscal year. The maximum national budgetary allocation in Nigeria is 7% which is opposed to the UNESCO recommendation that every developing state allocate 15-20% of its budget to the educational sector (Ogunode Niyi Jacob & Adah Samuel, 2020). Last but not least is the poor quality of academicians in Nigeria, a complex state where other factors are often considered above merits. This complexity also extends to the employment process of academicians in tertiary education. Staff recruitment is often politically influenced and riddled with nepotism (Nwodim, 2021). Due to this, there has been a significant drop in the quality of the staff recruited (Nwodim, 2021). The poor quality of teachers in Tertiary institutions poses a great threat to research, mentorship, effective linkages, and journal publications (Felix Chukwuma Aguboshim, Irene Nkechi Onwuka, Ifeyinwa Nkemdilim Obiokafor, & Nwamaka Peace Oboti, 2021).

This research seeks to exhume and identify the role of academician effectiveness and examine the contribution of academics to the product of education. This enfolds that good academics should possess the knowledge of learners, characteristics learning process, classroom management, and requisite skills to contribute significantly to the outcomes of the educational process, which is the growth of students in the right direction. Keeping this into view, it is worthwhile to investigate the academician effectiveness of university lecturers in the Nigerian domain. Therefore, identifying the characteristics that contribute to academician effectiveness has been and continues to be crucial to improving educational standards in Nigeria. For this reason, this research is absorbing the variables of academician effectiveness, motivation, organizational climate, and emotional labour in an empirical examination in north-western Nigeria because it has encouraged substantial attention from researchers (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Kim, Jorg, et al., 2019; Klassen & Tze, 2014a).

1.3 Problem Statement

Globally, many countries worldwide face issues of achieving effectiveness among their academics in recruiting highly able candidates into high-quality programs (El-Amin, 2022). Countries like Finland, Singapore, Canada, and Australia are encouraging measures ensuring fantastic salaries, palliatives, and funds for training to help academics succeed (Dutta et al., 2017). In the United States of America, Australia, Finland, and Canada, governments are struggling to create new models for the effective transfer of learning from academicians to their students.

11

This is for solving academician effectiveness problems by adopting specialized education values to focus on the erudition and assessment of critical talent, skills, and values (Sofyan, Barnes, & Finefter-Rosenbluh, 2021).

Also, academicians are constantly evaluated on progressive values that link student learning to classroom teaching to improve academic effectiveness (Stobaugh et al., 2020). Specifically, critical assessments are being carried out in Australia and the United States to leverage academicians' competence. Also, program improvement to ameliorate these problems (Brantlinger et al., 2020). They've identified a problem requiring profession-wide capacity building, such as developing ways for widespread sharing of research and best practices, recognising excellent classroom and school procedures, and allowing professional lecturers to improve academician efficacy (Dutta et al., 2017). Following these developments, various obstacles to academician effectiveness have been identified. Nagler et al. (2020) draw attention to the assessment techniques' inadequacy. Also, (Wintrup 2017) says that leaders in various institutions provide little support and that processes for utilising evaluation data are poorly constructed. The daily interaction with students, co-workers, and disjointed demands of teaching in general often leads to crushing pressure and challenges, which may further stress and strain the lecturers that are overburdened with regular teaching loads and other extracurricular schedules (Liu & Hallinger, 2018).Therefore, improving the quality via increasing academician effectiveness has been a primary concern for scholars, educators, and governments worldwide for educational changes for the previous 50 years (Dutta et al., 2017).

The effectiveness of individual classroom lecturers has been attributed to be the most significant factor determining the academic pedigree of the students (Anthony et al., 2019; Iguodala et al., 2020; Manwa et al., 2020; Walbe, 2019).

August, Tayebwa, and Ssempala (2021) reported that most academics are entering the field underprepared for their first years in the classroom. According to Rodriguez, Pham, and Goncalves (2022), it was revealed that 62% of academics felt they did not prepare for the realities of the classroom. Hanif and Gul (2022) argued that any form of awakening upon entering the profession shows that some academics have exhibited ineffectiveness in their job. This reality is harmful to teaching as a whole and to the student's academic achievement in the classroom. Ye and Singh (2017) found that new academics are less effective than their more experienced peers, but their performance improves rapidly during their first years in the classroom. It is important to address this issue because the quality of academics who teach in tertiary learning institutions is the most critical factor in increasing student achievement (Anderson & Ziebell, 2019). Without effective mentorship programs, academics perceive themselves as ineffective in their jobs and leave the field at higher rates than more experienced teachers (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). In the context of Nigeria and in recent years, there has been a clear increase in the academic staff of Nigerian universities' ineffectiveness in performing their jobs (Ofoegbu, Otu, Abang, & Adie, 2022).

Researchers have found that most academics struggle to present successful classes because they frequently employ unedited internet downloads and rarely assemble key points for their lessons in advance, which results in dry, uninteresting lessons (Iyabo, Zhenseh, & Ogunode, 2022; Lawal, 2022; Ofoegbu et al., 2022; N. Ogunode & Aibe, 2022; N. J. Ogunode, 2022). It is embarrassing to mention that there are instances where certain academic, especially in current and technology topics, make severe blunders while lecturing and students must correct them (Fidelugwuowo, 2022). Others are unable to effectively supervise projects using contemporary digital technologies and the internet, in which case supervisees must travel great distances to meet their supervisors as scheduled.

Many students have voiced their displeasure with how their written exams and tests were graded, particularly when they were graded on subjects they had never been taught (James, 2022). The majority of students have given up on their studies during project writing owing to aggravation and overspending while trying to get advice from several lecturers. The majority of academic research is not sufficiently wealthy to address the social concerns of society. Some professors have not been successful in developing their students' character in a way that enables them to live in a tranquil atmosphere and have friendly interactions with the people in their immediate community. The problem is made worse by the lack of social services, such as workshops and seminars for communities that would promote peaceful coexistence (Umukoro & Shaib, 2021).

Academic staff at universities have been found to be overwhelmingly ineffective, as evidenced by the caliber of graduates being produced today for the labor market. Lawal (2022) cited the low quality of academic staff at Nigeria's higher education institutions as a barrier to education that is meaningful and equips students with the necessary knowledge, skills, concepts, values, and attitudes for their future careers. Ogunode and Aibe (2022) stated that, in addition to other contributing variables, low exam performance and examination misconduct are evidence that lecturers have not done a great deal to improve instruction. University academic staff are expected to be skilled and educated educators tasked with maintaining the academic caliber of their institutions.

More importantly, the government anticipates that universities will succeed in achieving their objective of providing high-level relevant manpower training as well as the acquisition of both physical and intellectual skills that would enable the individual to be a self-sufficient and beneficial member of society (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2014). Academic staff is responsible for carrying out this objective because they have close interactions with students through research and teaching. Unfortunately, it has been noted that most academic staff members exhibit weak subject expertise when instructing students, rarely planning classes or seeking out appropriate academic resources. Ofoegbu, Otu, Abang, and Adie (2022) noted that some academics give course outlines to students to find materials and study on their own without any introduction or assistance of any kind.

Others consistently distribute homework to pupils without checking for errors. Students have raised instances where lecturers squander class time to recount personal experiences rather than impart knowledge and make classes more engaging. Due to their laziness, most academics let other students mark and record results on their students' scripts.

Uzoamaka, Chinedu, and Ifeoma (2022) bemoans the fact that these inefficient methods of handling student evaluation have fostered marking malpractices such lobbying, sorting, extortion, and grade alteration, as well as an increase in the number of missing script cases. Akah et al. (2022) also noted that study is written under the supervision of a supervisor, whose responsibility it is to make sure that the proper methodology or approach is used in accordance with the given requirements. Some professors are ineffective in supervising projects, particularly the analytical parts of the research process. In other instances, lost or misplaced student research materials prevent students from finishing their programs on time. If academic staff deliberately paid attention to the acquisition of desirable research abilities and were interested in using computers for research, the ineffectiveness of lecturers in teaching, publication, and community services would undoubtedly be restrained. The administration of universities is concerned that this could result in a failure to meet the institution's objective and prevent programs, faculties, or the whole institution from receiving accreditation. More specifically, the choice of knowledgeable academic staff who are well-versed in research techniques like data collection, report writing, communication, and computer application is essential to the production of high-quality university work.

This is due to the fact that research one of the university's primary goals is intended to be an integral component of education, both as ongoing self-education and as a course of study in schools and colleges Owan et al. (2022). Without conducting in-depth study, it is therefore impossible to discover any academic staff that produces papers for publication.

August, Tayebwa, and Ssempala (2021) reported that most academics are entering the field underprepared for their first years in the classroom. According to Rodriguez, Pham, and Goncalves (2022), it was revealed that 62% of academics felt they did not prepare for the realities of the classroom. Hanif and Gul (2022) argued that any form of awakening upon entering the profession shows that some academics have exhibited ineffectiveness in their job. This reality is harmful to teaching as a whole and to the student's academic achievement in the classroom. Ye and Singh (2017) found that new academics are less effective than their more experienced peers, but their performance improves rapidly during their first years in the classroom. It is important to address this issue because the quality of academics who teach in tertiary learning institutions is the most critical factor in increasing student achievement (Anderson & Ziebell, 2019). Without effective mentorship programs, academics perceive themselves as ineffective in their jobs and leave the field at higher rates than more experienced teachers (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Accordingly, the united nation education scientific and cultural organization statistics (UNESCO) data, nearly 60,000 of Nigeria's top students choose to study abroad, equating to 375 students for each of our 160 universities (UNESCO, 2020).

Sadly, most public university auditoriums and lecture theatre halls in Nigeria are seriously stuffed, while efforts to improve the situation have remained mostly abortive. Based on previous campaigns, lab offices, libraries, quarters, and other university offices are frequently depicted as being in a condition of rot (Amini-Philips, 2019).

Also, the gross underfunding of the educational sector has been linked to the lack of effectiveness among university academics because the funds are not there to employ those who are most qualified and known as effective academics. Instead, the government employs unprepared and ineffective teachers (Umego & Zaggi, 2021). Unfortunately, the education budget in Nigeria has remained mostly unchanged over the past many decades, and the government budget for education remains inadequate. For instance, in 2018, only about 7% of the Nigerian national budget was slotted for education. Since 2009, 7.25 percent of the entire budget, this financing level has remained constant (Ekechukwu, 2019). Because of financing limitations, the vast majority of Nigeria's public institutions are in a disintegrating condition which is taking a toll on the effectiveness of its academicians (Nasiru & William, 2019). This challenge universities have suffered for decades has had disastrous implications.

The education sector has received insufficient funding, which harms employment relationships and continuity, as seen in Table 1.1. The importance of financing in an educational institution cannot be overstated. No educational system can progress beyond its current budget level (Ekechukwu, 2019). The fund is needed in an educational institution to pay remunerations and other benefits to employees and consistently provision of infrastructures.

On the other hand, Nigeria has a history of noncompliance with this requirement.

Table 1. 1
FG Budgetary Allocation to Education in Nigeria as % (2000–2020)

No	Year	Total Budget	Allocation to Education	Education allocation as % of total budget
1	2000	470 billion	2000 N40.9	8.71
2	2001	894 billion	N63.8 billion	7.13
3	2002	1.1 trillion	N73.4 billion	6.90
4	2003	976 billion	N75.7 billion	7.75
5	2004	1.80 trillion	N93.8 billion	5.24
6	2005	1.80 trillion	N147.8 billion	8.21
7	2006	1.88 trillion	N195.7 billion	10.43
8	2007	2.27 trillion	N221.1 billion	9.75
9	2008	2.49 trillion	N250.1 billion	10.04
10	2009	3.049 trillion	N221.19 billion	8.79
11	2010	5.160 trillion	N249.09 billion	7.37
12	2011	4.972 trillion	N306.3 billion	9.32
13	2012	4.877 trillion	N400.15 billion	8.20
14	2013	4.987 trillion	N426.53 billion	8.55
15	2014	4.962 trillion	N493 billion	9.94
16	2015	5.068 trillion	N392.2 billion	7.74
17	2016	6.060 trillion	N396.6 billion	4.0
18	2017	7.290 trillion	N550 billion	7.40
19	2018	8.6 trillion	N605.8 billion	7.04
20	2019	8.92 trillion	N620.5 billion	7.05
21	2020	10.59 trillion	N691.07 billion	6.7

Source. Budget Office of the Federation (2020)

It is noteworthy that academician effectiveness among Nigerian academics is topical and inevitable for constant discussion (Igwe et al., 2019). The academic staff is the pillar upon which universities depend on research distinguishing quality and the discovery and nurturing of young talented graduates (Okoli, 2017). Also, the National Universities Commission has rated the number of full professors in Nigerian universities low. According to the NUC, the decision to rate the quality of the academic staff on the professorial level is because professorship is considered the zenith of academic quality. This indicates that practically all Nigerian universities are experiencing a severe scarcity of quality academic staff with PhDs and full professorships. It was noted that the University of Abuja and Lagos State University had teacher-to-student ratios of 1:122 and 1:114, respectively. Despite a Staff/Student Ratio of 20%, the majority of present staff are old and unable to mentor the young and brilliant; also, they lack the opportunity to upgrade their knowledge in their areas of specialisation (Mustafa, 2020).

The lack of effectiveness of academic staff in Nigeria is also linked to the questionable method of employment by the government (Sethi et al., 2017). Prof. Biodun Ogunyemi, the National President of the Academic Staff Union of Institutions (ASUU), criticised the recruiting process at the country's universities, lamenting that "*many persons who were not qualified to teach had made their way into the system. According to him, certain instructors had no business in the classrooms, but they were able to get in due to political involvement. You discover that certain professors have no business teaching at universities. Still, you also see that politics has done so much harm to humanity that merit is sometimes sacrificed on the altar of mediocrity and political connections*" (Ikediashi & Aigbavboa, 2019).

20

They stressed that despite efforts made over the years, it is hoped that the system's confidence can be restored (Ogunremi, 2019). Due to these issues, there is a need to conduct and examine the role of academician effectiveness in the job outcome of academic staff.

Previous studies like that of Chukwudi (2014) examined how emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy affected pre-service teachers' ability to instruct effectively. Also, the study of Kikegbusi, Gloria, and Eziamaka (2016) intended to determine how academician effectiveness in the state of Enugu was affected by supervision of instruction. The study was limited to one state in the east of Nigeria and concentrated on teacher monitoring.

Similarly, Nimota and Kadir (2019) investigated education quality management and teacher effectiveness in Nigeria. The research further interrogated the relationship between good administration, discipline, optimal curriculum implementation, and teacher effectiveness in public primary schools in Nigeria. This study fell short of addressing the issues of academician effectiveness raised by scholars. Also, Ige (2018) investigated the perceived potential of motivational strategies operating in schools to impact teacher effectiveness in public secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. This study is not different from previous ones. Recently, Stephen Gyang (2021) examined the dynamics of leadership and teacher effectiveness in universities. The uninspired roles played by university leadership for societal development seem to implicate the qualities of teacher effectiveness in teaching, research, and community service.

This study focused on the country's north central part and was limited to academic staff. The gap in addressing student perception of academicians was not addressed.

The reason for choosing academician effectiveness as a variable is because it can help understand why some academics may not be effective in their job and, in particular, among lecturers of public universities in the north-western zone of Nigeria. Barnes (2019) elucidated those students nurtured by effective academics tend to be more productive and versatile.

Also, information about student ratings is usually considered important to a higher education institution's success since it examines the university policies' strengths and weaknesses (Fan, 2022). Methodologically, interrogating students' decisions and perceptions of academician effectiveness have often been less considered (Akah et al., 2022). This is given that these institutions do not carry out a valid and concrete policy of institutional evaluation. Consequently, the university authorities or administrators' lack of knowledge of these exciting concerns might misallocate resources when attempting to improve their academic quality (Ajadi & Kayode, 2022). Students' perceptions of academician effectiveness are essential concerns that help to understand different aspects of the students' role within higher education institutions (Oni & Soji-Oni, 2022). So, research on student and academician populations should greatly interest the Nigerian educational authorities. Therefore, substantial attention must be given to studies that address factors influencing students' perceptions about academician effectiveness and university academic reputation.

The second concern of this study is the utility of the information from the student ratings about these concerns for multiple policy development. They include matters like course refinement, program assessment, faculty evaluation, and institutional evaluation, which allow orienting the decisions by university authorities on the institutional mission and policy that permit differentiate the institution across the higher education system (Sajjad, Siddique, & Tufail, 2022).

Adu, Akinloye, and Adu (2015) investigated school input factors and teacher effectiveness in public secondary schools in some local government areas in Lagos. Likewise, this study is limited to public secondary schools, not tertiary institutions. Pertinent to the survey of academician effectiveness, an important variable addressed by this study is motivation. Motivation is a skill that involves persuading people to work willingly and to behave in a certain way to complete their tasks (Jones, Bergin, 2019). The effectiveness of higher education lecturers is critical to society (Daumiller et al., 2020). This study argued that previous studies haven't adequately considered motivation in developing the initiatives. This argument is built on the premise that the concept of motivation cannot be unrecognized in any organization. Its contribution to human behaviour, performance, and effectiveness in any establishment cannot be underestimated (Babatunde & Victor, 2014). According to Shahee et al. (2013), individuals are not motivated when they do not perceive contingencies between outcomes and their actions; they understand their behaviours as caused by forces out of their control.

Organizational climate is another variable that is being examined in this study. Previous research shows that organizational climate has significant implications (Oder & Eisenschmidt, 2018). One of the most important qualities of every institution is its culture. Motivation, which leads to behaviours like effectiveness, is boosted by the organisational climate. When academicians are devoted to their schools, they are motivated and willing to work. Creating a pleasant working atmosphere promotes efficiency (Purwantoro & Bagyo, 2019). The perceptions of an academic's ability to influence students' academic progress are similarly linked to a positive school climate (Gaias et al., 2019; Novara et al., 2020). And teachers' willingness to remain in the school (Jiang et al., 2019). As a result, improved teacher retention is positive school climate outcomes (Suharyati et al., 2019). Lecturers must keep their devotion to the profession to maintain their enthusiasm for completing professional tasks. This has prompted the authors of this study to investigate organisational climate as a predictor of academician effectiveness.

Recently, a study was conducted in South Africa, and effectiveness was strongly correlated to organisational climate (Aldridge & Fraser, 2018). Therefore, studies investigating the relationship between organisational climate and effectiveness are less in today's literature, particularly in Nigeria. Studies focus more on organisational culture (Ford & Ware, 2018). Therefore, this research focuses on the link between organisational climate and academician effectiveness. To contribute to knowledge in academician effectiveness and organisational climate among public universities from north-western Nigeria.

Due to the reason that academics have agreed that teaching is an emotional endeavour and a sort of emotional labour, emotional labour is incorporated into this study as a mediator. (Bodenheimer & Shuster, 2020; Heffernan & Bosetti, 2020; Leathwood & Read, 2020). Similarly, emotional labour is chosen as a variable in this research because it is connected to increasing individual and institutional development. Emotional labour is selected as a variable to fill the gap in the literature. It argues that when academicians are motivated in a positive climate within the organization may lead to socio-emotional resource generators promoting lecturers' emotional control abilities, which in turn drives effectiveness behaviour (Zhou et al., 2019a). Therefore, employees must conduct emotional labour to manage emotional display as part of their professional responsibilities (Yin, 2015a). However, few studies have looked at the links between lecturers' emotional needs, organisational climate, motivation, academician effectiveness, and even fewer in the Nigerian setting.

Four theoretical gaps have been found within the available literature, allowing the problem statement to be constructed. Nonetheless, this research is one of the first to add to the corpus of knowledge on academician effectiveness, motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour, which were not provided by earlier studies. Firstly, Antony et al. (2019) demonstrated that only a small amount of research had been done on academician effectiveness. As a result, this study contends that much of the research on academician effectiveness has taken place in the United States, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. This demonstrates that academician effectiveness may still be in flux in other contexts, such as Nigeria, where limited research has been undertaken.

Second, academician effectiveness research in higher education has received significantly less attention (Mazandarani & Troudi, 2021a). Even though the terms "teacher" and "lecturer" have been used interchangeably in the literature, a short search of academic databases using "teacher" and "lecturer" effectiveness merely confirms the idea. Teacher effectiveness is more specific to primary, secondary, and high school teaching. Academician effectiveness is more related to tertiary education, which is the focus of this study. Furthermore, this handful of research produced results that needed to be replicated.

Third, much of the extant academic studies focus on the impact of organisational effectiveness, concentrating on profit-making businesses. As a result, this study has added to the body of knowledge by evaluating if similar findings might be evoked in Nigerian academic institutions where the organisation's charitable mission generally motivates the employees. This is a response to the arguments advanced by McConnell et al. (2019), which sought a re-definition of effectiveness in measuring it, examining qualities such as attitude and empathy, which some think plays a larger role in determining academician effectiveness. Finding a mechanism to measure these attributes and including them in the model could help explain some of the unaccounted-for differences and enhance understanding of what it takes to be a successful academic. Fourth and theoretically, this would offer renewed viewpoints to the Social Exchange Theory (SET). Also, the Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996a) and thus considers the integrative context of motivation, organizational climate, emotional labour, on academician effectiveness.

26

Fifth, the present study absorbs emotional labour as a mediator in this model because limited studies have absorbed the construct. Evidence is replete that studies introducing mediating mechanisms are widespread in psychology research (Hayes, 2013).

1.4 Research Questions

1. Does organizational climate have any relationship on academician effectiveness?

2. Does motivation have any relationship on academician effectiveness?

3. Does motivation have any relationship on emotional labour?

4. Does organizational climate have any relationship on emotional labour?

5. Is there any relationship between emotional labour and academician effectiveness?

6. Is there any mediating effect between emotional labour, motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness?

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The principal inquiry for this research would now be what factors are well-thought-out in prompting academician effectiveness. But in a more specific sense,

1. To examine the relationship between organizational climate and academician effectiveness.

2. To examine the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness.

3. To examine the relationship between motivation and emotional labour.

4. To examine the relationship between organizational climate and emotional labour.

5. To examine the relationship between emotional labour and academician effectiveness.

6. To examine the mediating effect between emotional labour, motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness.

1.6 The Significance of the Study

The study of academicians' effectiveness among lecturers is significant simply because of its contribution to guaranteeing academic excellence among students (Jacob et al., 2018). This study has theoretical and practical significance; it tests the existing theory on the influence of motivation and the organisational climate on academician effectiveness.

This study's contribution was to provide an understanding of why students choose to attend public universities and what factors have a strong impact on students' decisions. Consequently, these results will provide direction in improving student enrolment that can be used in educational planning decisions. Consequently, this study will contribute by examining university authorities' previously established concerns for decision-making. The results related to students' perceptions of academician effectiveness should be of great importance to the academic management committee. This committee is responsible for evaluating faculty concerning the execution of their dedication time; to the teaching faculty by providing a feedback system on student's perceptions of their teaching ability; and to the students who seek information about their professor selection and courses.

Consequently, this investigation should be useful for policy-making purposes (planning, rationally establishing priorities in allocating resources among the many disciplines of the university). It should make a significant contribution to Nigerian public universities. This research represents a first step in developing evaluation programs to improve learning and teaching through a student-to-academic feedback system.

1.6.1 Theoretical Significance

The research revealed the association between motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour in how it is connected to lecturing and maintaining efficient management of students in the lecture rooms from different viewpoints. Moreover, this research incorporates theories and contextual knowledge from a few unique disciplines and the work environment and motivation to investigate an underlying issue in the educational sector. The chosen constructs convey the new light and alternative framework for investigating new contributions to academician effectiveness research. Furthermore, the study includes measures of academician effectiveness from both student and lecturer's evaluation perspectives.

This study tested the Social Exchange Theory Mauss & Cunnison (1954), Blau (1964), and Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996a). Firstly, the study examined the role of the SET (Mans 1954; Blau, 1964) in explaining the relationship between lecturer and students. According to Weiss and Stevens (1993), the fundamental tenet of the Social Exchange Theory is that human behavior is driven by the desire to maximize positive experiences and minimize negative experiences through social interactions.

29

These interactions have benefits and drawbacks for all parties. According to this logic, rewards such as money, accolades, a sense of well-being, an increase in self-esteem, and social status are positive incentives for conduct. Still, costs are inhibitors or disincentives to behaviour. Costs could consist of the overall amount of time spent on an activity, emotions of fear and failure, and the inability to engage in other worthwhile pursuits (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). The individual evaluates the costs and benefits of a given action to occur or not, resulting in a good or unfavorable conclusion that will lead to the continuation or closure of the activity, assuming that people want to maximize positive experiences and minimize unpleasant experiences (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). It is generally easy to conclude that people will be motivated by predicted profits, whether short- or long-term, social acceptance, a desire for more autonomy, and affiliation with organizations that share their beliefs, always looking to reduce costs in your actions. To put it another way, internally or externally motivated people may be more effective overall.

Finally, the study emphasised the role of emotional labour in Affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996a). It showed that universities or organisations may be a powerful predictor or antecedent for lecturers or academicians to employ various emotional labour tactics, serving as a proximal cause of affective reactions, attitudes, and behaviours. Methodologically, this research gives progressively exact evaluations of the connections amid factors by utilising an aggregation approach. Aggregation as a dyadic analysis approach is important because it enables us to investigate the impact of one partner's responses on the other, which is very important when studying relationships (Ledermann & Kenny, 2017).

Dyadic analysis refers to statistical methods used to analyze data with a dyadic design when responses from both dyads are collected (Iida, 2015).

The dyadic method of data analysis was used in this research. In general, dyadic analysis is used when a measurement from one individual is somehow connected or paired with another individual in the same dataset. The data collection between the students and their lecturer in the dyadic fashion will help this study avoid common method variance problems (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, et al., 2003). Dyads may be elderly spouses, adult children, and their parents, college roommates, student-lecturers, or best-friend pairs. Dyadic data collection can be time-consuming, labour-intensive, and expensive; however, it yields tremendous rewards when it is done properly. Dyadic data allow researchers to move beyond intrapersonal processes to examine interpersonal processes (Lambert et al., 2015). The dyadic technique is used in this study because the academician's everyday use of emotional labour among students is influenced by their internalised relationship representations about that student (de Ruiter et al., 2021).

1.6.2 Practical Contribution

This research would be significant to the management of universities in helping to boost the effectiveness of their academic staff, which may lead to an increase in their academic effectiveness level. Therefore, investigating academician effectiveness using this study can help take a bold step towards planning and promoting the effectiveness of academics based on documented information.

Furthermore, when it is completed, this research will make appropriate suggestions for policies and strategies that would be adaptable and implementable for academician effectiveness. Consequently, the research can help the Nigerian government sustain the importance and relevance of universities in the country's development. Therefore, this study can effectively contribute to understanding Nigeria's best possible tertiary education success. In furtherance, the current study aims to close the most significant gaps among academic staff at public universities in north-western Nigeria.

The practical importance of this study is to support administrators' understanding of the specific personality characteristics of highly effective academician working in tertiary institutions of learning in north-western Nigeria. Also, that they can be assessed more efficaciously. This research will give policymakers an essential boost to the effectiveness components influencing value-added perceptions of students and their academics. This research will significantly impact the different circumstances of academic results. Enhancing student learning opportunities and outcomes is key to improving academician effectiveness. Giving more young people the chance to attain skill and competency levels long thought to be solely accessible to a select few is one of the ongoing problems that educators and society must face. While many governmental efforts may promise to enhance education, nothing is more fundamentally vital to improving schools than enhancing the instruction in classrooms daily (Darling-Hammond, 1996). It would also provide collaborative faculties or schools between foreign and local institutions, attracting investment to Nigerian universities. In some countries, such as Malaysia, the foreign investment model has resulted in major gains in educational quality.

The outcome of this research will help advance the research activities in tertiary institutions and accelerate the anticipated establishment of the Nigerian National Research and Innovation Foundation as detailed in the Science, Technology, and Innovation Policy of 2011. A well-established research and innovation foundation might be in charge of funding and overseeing research and development across all subject areas. The results of this research can be brought to the attention of the authorities to support and motivate lecturers to work in a collaborative and coordinated pattern for effective student-lecturer relationships. The findings also suggest that the Nigerian ministry of education and the Nigerian university commission review human resource development policies to improve lecturers' psychological resources regarding remuneration, training, and information systems, allowing them to manage any situation effectively.

1.7 The Scope of the Study

Regarding the scope, this study focuses on the underlying causes of academician effectiveness or ineffectiveness among academics from 13 public universities in northwestern Nigeria, namely: Federal University Dutse, Sule Lamido University, Ahmadu Bello University, Kaduna State University, Bayero University, Yusuf Maitama Sule University, Federal University Dustin-Ma, Umar Yar'Adua University, Federal University Birnin Kebbi, Kebbi State University of Science and Technology, Usman Dan Fodio University, Sokoto State University, and Federal University Gusau.

This study focuses on public universities in Nigeria because a common ambiance of dissatisfaction encompasses the entire teaching labour force, and Nigerian university academics are included in the wide-ranging situation of discontent and aggravation.

Recently there has been a spate of industrial conflicts in Nigerian public universities arising from the management's failure to reassess service conditions, in the face of progressively higher costs of living. Public universities are established by law to provide post-secondary education for Nigerian and other nationals. Public universities are established, managed, and funded by the government to provide advanced educational services for the general public. University education in Nigeria is classified among the higher education. The National Policy on Education (FGN, 2004) defines Higher Education as the Post-Secondary education system, which Universities offer, Polytechnics, Monotechnics, Colleges of Education, Correspondence Colleges and such other institutions as may be affiliated to them. The objectives of higher education in Nigeria include the acquisition, development, and inculcation of proper value orientation for the survival of the individual and society. Also, for the development of the intellectual capacities of individuals to understand and appreciate the environment; the acquisition of both physical and intellectual skills which will enable the individuals to develop into useful members of the community; the acquisition of an overview of the local and external environments (FGN, 2004).

The National Policy on Education further stated that higher educational institutions should pursue these goals through teaching, research, dissemination of existing and new information, the pursuit of service to the community, and as a store- house of knowledge (FGN, 2004).

The university system comprises the students, administrative staff, academic staff, and school management as the human resources component of the institutions. The students are the first to be considered a critical factor in the university system because students play an essential role in the overall functioning of the university. They have a significant influence on decisions that affect the school culture.

Presently, Nigerian universities have over 1.9 million students, with 199 universities in the country. The objectives of the universities in the Nigerian policy of Education (2014) include providing professional education with the following aims: the acquisition, development, and inculcation of the proper value orientation for the survival of the individual and societies; the development of the intellectual capacities of individuals to understand and appreciate environment; the acquisition of both physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to develop into useful members of the community; the acquisition of an overview of the local and external environments (FGN, 2014). Those included are academic staff representing lecturers, senior lecturers, associate professors, and full professors but shall exclude lecturers who have not stayed beyond two years in the institution. This is because the only lecturers who have spent two years at the institution have had their appointments confirmed. The reason why the current study opted for student evaluation of academics has long been a part of the "rhythm of academic life."(Cook, Jones, & Al-Twal, 2022). It serves three primary purposes: a tool to assess teaching quality; a mechanism for institutions to show accountability; and a way to gather data for use in promotion and tenure decisions (Noemí, Vanessa, & Diego, 2022).

Each function was given a different amount of weight, which varied from jurisdiction to jurisdiction and institution to institution. Examples include the weighting given to surveys on the effectiveness of instruction, student evaluations of professors, and surveys on classroom management. Now, we could argue that employing various terminology is of little consequence, but these terminological variances can be confusing when analyzing studies in this field. According to Tran and Do (2022), the area of research into student evaluation bias and the use of the student evaluation of their academics as a summative test has received the most attention in higher education.

During the last decades, student evaluation of academics has been given a tremendous amount of attention in educational literatures since they have been viewed by how their decisions and perceptions about educational concerns contribute to and help explain the success or status of educational systems of higher education. In addition, students' perceptions have been considered very important in any investigation because students are directly involved in the educational process (Hajdin and Pazur 2012). Also, they have the most significant exposure to teachers' performance (Kuwaiti 2015) and are most affected by the teaching quality (Rowan et al. 2017). Student ratings related to academic areas (teaching evaluation, professor effectiveness, university image or reputation, university choice process, etc.) have been probably the most systematically studied of all personnel evaluation forms and one of the best in terms of being supported by empirical research.

Many researchers have noted that student evaluation is an important concern in the higher education system. For example, Clark, 1970 comments that "students are important to the character of their institution" (p.253), and besides, "the student body becomes a major force in defining the institution" (ibid); Astin (1985) argues that the student and their perceived academic quality are often seen as an organizational resource and as a measure of institutional quality; McKeachie, 1997 (p. 1224) stated that student would continue to be those most affected by teaching. Therefore, student ratings will continue to be useful. The validity of student evaluation has been systematically evaluated and usually supported in many works of literature during the last years (Feldman, 1989; Marsh, 1987; Marsh & Bailey, 1991; Dey & Hurtado, 1995). These research reviews indicate extraordinary evidence supporting the validity of student evaluation of academics.

It shall also include final-year students of the universities covered because they have spent enough time in the school system to contribute to the research positively. The rationale for focusing on academics at the thirteen universities in north-western Nigeria is that works of literature have revealed that academic staff contributes enormously to the ranking of universities, which impacts the university pedigree (Perkins, 2019). This is notable because academic staff plays critical roles as the producers of quality students and progenitors of human capital development. (Samsudin et al., 2016). Improvements in their motivation antecedents and enhanced organisational climate will really influence their academician effectiveness, which can guarantee an increase in organisational productivity among the academic staff of the universities under study.

Students are the focus since most research on effectiveness among academics in the international literature is from students' perspective, hence the need to get their response.

In the same light, undergraduates and post-graduate students from art, humanities, science, technology, and affected universities were chosen for this research. This set of students will be picked due to their accessibility. They usually have some prior experience with their lecturers after staying in the school for a more extended period (Bello et al., 2009). During class, self-reported surveys were given out personally. Before the survey was delivered, the students were informed of the research's aim and that participation is entirely voluntary.

The variables covered in this study are motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour, and academician effectiveness. The present research investigates the relationship between motivational factors (enhanced salary, fringe benefits, supervision, and promotion) and academician effectiveness of lecturers in public universities in northwestern Nigeria because staff academician effectiveness is essential to determine the fundamental objective of the organization. Also, Samsudin et al. (2016) agreed that academician effectiveness is assumed to be a standard matter in university working life due to problems in education management faces in satisfying their workers (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2017). The factors that predict academician effectiveness were examined in terms of motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour through a PLS-SEM technique.

To select an adequately representative sample, a two-stage random sampling approach was used. The participants of the study were 233 university lecturers and 1665 students. Regarding the data collection exercise, a total of 2685(233/1165) matched student-lecturer paired questionnaires was distributed in proportion to the number of lecturer and students in the respective universities. Based on the peculiar nature of this research, academicians' effectiveness was evaluated from a student perspective, 5 students evaluated 1 academic. Therefore, a total of 3951 teams were derived from 9994 lecturers and 187576 students. The 3951 teams were derived following consultations and meetings with faculty officers, programme coordinators, and heads of departments from the universities involved in the study. The data collection exercise lasted six months, from March 2020 until August 2020. Since the present research focuses on investigating the role of motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour on academician effectiveness for lecturers in public universities in north-western Nigeria, individuals (lecturers and students) are chosen as the unit of analysis in the present study.

1.8 Definition of Key Terms

Below are the operational definitions for each variable used in this study.

Academician effectiveness: Academician Effectiveness is "lecturing that creates an environment in which deep learning outcomes for students are made possible, where high-quality student learning is promoted and where superficial approaches to learning are discouraged" (Ramsden 2003, p.141).

39

Motivation: Motivation is "an art with a purpose to get individuals work willingly and influencing them to behave in a certain manner to accomplish their tasks" (Maduka & Okafor, 2014, p.137).

Organizational Climate- is referred to an employee's perception of a working environment, which comprises characteristics like responsibilities, the structure of organisation, risk management, reward system, support, warranty, conflict, standards, and identity in the organisation. Climate is described as practices in communication such as leadership, rewards, and conflict (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013).

Emotional labour: Emotional labour refers to "the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion to perform the job efficiently and effectively" (Hochschild 1983, p.14).

Surface acting is defined as an employee's modification of their observable expressions to meet display rules. (Hochschild, 1983a).

Deep acting is defined as regulating the inner emotions to match required expression, which can result in resource gains such as personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002a).

Social Climate- School social climate is broadly defined in this study "as the quality and frequency of interactions among and between adults and students" (Emmons, Comer, & Haynes, 1996, p.104).

Communication Climate is defined as the shared perceptions employees have of the psychological climate, relationship quality, and communication in their organizations (Goldhaber, 1993; Smidts et al., 2001).

1.9 Organisation of the Thesis

This research will be written up in five chapters. The background of the thesis, statement of problems, objectives, research questions, scope of the investigation, significance of the study, operational definition of words, and study organisation will all be covered in the first chapter. The second chapter discusses related academician effectiveness notions. In particular, the concepts of motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour, and university reputation and academician effectiveness will be explored. Following that, previous studies that connect the ideas to establish a model that describes the linkages will be discussed. To connect these relationships, Social Exchange Theory Mans (1954), Blau (1964), and Affective Event Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996a) are used as a basis. Hence, an elaboration of these theories is presented. The proposed methods and techniques were presented in Chapter 3, which included research paradigms, research framework, hypothesis generation, study design, data collection processes, sample strategies, and data analysis, among other things.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter begins by describing the concept of effectiveness, followed by a discussion on organisational effectiveness, employee effectiveness, evaluating effectiveness in higher education, and reasons for academician effectiveness. The following section is effective lecturer/academician, from teacher to academician effectiveness. This is followed by academician effectiveness, defining academician effectiveness, and empirical evidence. The next is motivation, empirical evidence on motivation and academician effectiveness, the concept and definition of organisational climate, communication climate and social climate, and empirical evidence on communication climate and academician effectiveness. The next is the concept and meaning of emotional labour, deep acting and surface acting, emotional labour and teaching in higher learning institutions, empirical evidence on emotional labour, and emotional labour as a mediator. The is followed by a conclusion and research issues to be addressed. The chapter finishes with a discussion of the underlying theory, the research framework, and hypothesis development.

2.1 The Concept of Effectiveness

Tomassini and Rodolfo (2021) noticed that effectiveness has confronted various issues in literature because multiple ways to deal with surveying it is established in self-assertive hierarchical models, singular qualities, and inclinations, which have left the best criteria for assessing effectiveness yet to rise.

Tomassini and Rodolfo (2021) states that answers for these theoretical framework issues are the duties of scientists and individuals from society. Judgments concerning hierarchical effectiveness are a critical worry of the individuals from society as they are regularly required to settle on decisions. For example, which school to send their kids to, where to set aside and contribute their cash, which emergency clinic to look for care, which repairman to fix their vehicles, which deliberate association to join, where to discover business and so on. While every one of these judgments is not thorough, they, in any case, form some portion of a judgment equation of organisational effectiveness.

2.2 Organizational Effectiveness

Depending on the theory and approach utilised, organizational effectiveness's meanings, conceptualisation, and operationalisations continue to change (Iwu et al., 2015). Previous ideas have utilised goal attainment frameworks for asset acquisition and internal procedure arrangement methods. Every one of the approaches has weaknesses: for instance. The goal attainment method is based on the notion that organizations have deliberately distinct goals that are well-conveyed and are consistent with one another. The system method expects that establishments with a capacity to protect environmental resources will thrive. Also, the internal process alignments approach accepts that productive and amicable interior strategies will prompt effectiveness (Nienaber & Martins, 2020). Organisational effectiveness can be seen in two parts: efficiency and politics. The term 'effectiveness' is depicted as the connection between energetic outputs and energetic inputs, emphasizing to what degree an input creates an item and how much the framework has assimilated.

In this manner, the accomplishment of efficiency and political effectiveness uncovers the organization's effectiveness. Looking at efficiency and effectiveness, Holbeche (2018) opined that the similitude between efficiency and effectiveness is that limitations and referents are consolidated into both. Their disparities show that effectiveness identifies with input obtaining or output disposal levels while effectiveness is related to modifications about cost or asset units being used.

2.3 Employee Effectiveness

Effectiveness is perceived as doing the right thing at the right time (Pradhan et al., 2017). Thus, employee effectiveness refers to how well an employee accomplishes the job assigned to them at the standard schedule for its completion. An employee's effectiveness is also dependent on the available resources at their disposal. Secondly, employee completion of the assignment must align with the organisation's goals. Therefore, employee effectiveness is a function of resource acquisition and goal accomplishment (Singhal & Kansal, 2018). For instance, if a customer relationship employee in the banking sector is required to be effective when attending to customers and is not provided with a functional, fast internet computer system, such employee may not be effective. This is because; instead of listening to five customers within twenty minutes, it may take the employee an hour. Therefore, all the organisational support that employees require to perform their job must be provided to be effective. Lastly, each assignment must fall within organisational goals; otherwise, employees will not have direction in the workplace.

2.4 The Nigerian Public Universities

The National Policy on Education (2004) defines Higher Education as the Post - Secondary Section of the National education system. It constitutes Universities, Polytechnics, and Colleges of Technology, including courses that the Colleges of Education give, Advanced Teachers Training colleges, Correspondence Colleges, and such institutions as may be allied to them. According to Adeyemi (2001), Higher Education is a system that embraces much of the country's research capacity and reproduces the majority of the skilled professionals that are required in the labor market.

Obanya (1999) disclosed that Higher Education includes all forms of professional institutions drawing from the pool of persons who have completed various forms of secondary school education: Institutions of the military, the police, nurses, agriculture, forestry, veterinary workers, catering services, tourism, secretarial services and other combinations of programs. The aims of higher education in Nigeria include: Higher education, including professional education, has the following aims: the acquisition, development, and inculcation of the proper value orientation for the survival of the individual and societies; development of the intellectual capacities of individuals to understand and appreciate environment; acquisition of both physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to develop into useful members of the community; the acquisition of an overview of the local and external environments (National Policy on Education, 2004). In Nigeria, the constitution allows both public and private ownership of universities.

Public universities are universities owned by the government. Public universities are universities established by law to provide post-secondary school education for the youths. Presently, the Nigerian public universities are ninety-five four five (45) for the state and fifty for the federal government (50) (Source NUC,2020).

2.5 Defining Academician Effectiveness

From what has been gathered above, it may be safe to assume academician effectiveness as the combined impacts of a multifaceted collection of in-classroom instructor behaviours on student learning. It addresses the subject of what makes effective teaching, and it is also worth noting that the types of literature exploring elements of good teaching are quite diverse. For instance, Hativa, Barak, and Simhi (2001) suggested that clarity, interest, organisation, and a healthy classroom climate are identified as four elements of academician effectiveness, while Young, Rush, and Shaw (2009) recommend other important metrics for good teaching value.

Realising the qualities of effective teaching is critical as they were utilised as a benchmark for lecturers to improve their teaching abilities. (Aregbeyen, 2010) pointed out that effective teaching is facilitating students' learning, promoting participation and conversation, caring for and respecting students, and maximising students' academic accomplishment. Academician effectiveness is measured in five areas: analytical approach (research), clarity of instruction, lecturer-group interaction, lecturer-individual student contact, and lecturer excitement. As indicated by Iyamu and Aduwa-Oglebaen (2005), lecturer evaluation refers to a student regularly critiquing a lecturer's performance.

46

It entails a systematic collection and analysis of data on which decisions are made on a lecturer's effectiveness, efficiency, and competency in achieving established professional goals, as well as a reflection of the institution's desire to encourage successful learning. Also, the lecturer's nervousness about students' assessments appears to be mitigated if they are persuaded that assessment results are intended to assist them with evaluating their teaching and pointing out the areas to improve.

Liand (2018) characterised academician effectiveness as the ability, quality, or power to develop or improve the teaching-learning and educational process. Academician effectiveness comprises efficiency in teaching strategies, learning process, student and classroom management, school environment, school discipline, teaching aids, measurement, evaluation, and feedback. O'Riley (2018) sees academician effectiveness as academics who discharge responsibilities of functions, such as managing classroom situations and being proficient in the subject matter. Likewise, these teachers exceed expectations in their other character qualities. Klassen and Tze 2014, as cited in (Seidel & Shavelson, 2007), defined an academician's effectiveness (in the context of teacher effectiveness) as the sum of the consequences of a diverse range of teacher behaviours in the classroom on students' learning.

Researchers interested in the variable of academician effectiveness were introduced from the start of the 20th Century (Naji Meidani et al., 2020). Academic effectiveness is defined as the effects of high-quality instruction on student learning as measured by achievement gains. It also refers to the dynamic and participatory building, supporting, modifying, and converting classroom domains.

Knowledge seekers are encouraged to participate in enhancing knowledge acquisition (Bardach & Klassen, 2020). As the definition of academician effectiveness indicates, it can be a crucial ability that focuses on the outcomes in terms of unique teaching methods that should promote positive outcomes in general. Regardless of common perceptions, useful or effective academicians cannot dependably be recognised only on the strength of lecturing capabilities, qualifications, or years invested in the academics. Also, effective academics should have the ability to develop various techniques and methods for helping students to be the best in their educational efforts and skills (Bruno et al., 2020).

In this way, in agreement with the objectives of this research and the kinds of literature investigated, academic effectiveness, according to this researcher, is the bringing together elements, capabilities, and behaviours of academic, which helps the student achieve the desired educational goal and objectives.

2.5.1 General Overview of Student Ratings

During the last decades, student ratings have been given a tremendous amount of attention in educational literatures since they have been viewed by how their decisions and perceptions about educational concerns contribute to and help explain the success or status of educational systems of higher education. In addition, students' perceptions have been considered very important in any investigation since the students are in the institution almost every day and are acquainted with what is going on.

Student ratings related to educational areas (teaching evaluation, professor effectiveness, university image or reputation, university choice process, etc.) have been probably the most systematically studied of all personnel evaluation forms and one of the best in terms of being supported by empirical research.

Many researchers have noted that student ratings are an important concern in the higher education system. For example, Clark, 1970 comments that "students are important to the character of their institution" (p.253), and besides, "the student body becomes a major force in defining the institution" (ibid); Astin (1985) argues that the student and their perceived academic quality are often seen as an organizational resource and as a measure of institutional quality; McKeachie, 1997 (p. 1224) stated that student would continue to be those most affected by teaching. Therefore, student ratings will continue to be useful. The validity of student ratings has been systematically evaluated and usually supported in many works of literature during the last years (Feldman, 1989; Marsh, 1987; Marsh & Bailey, 1991; Dey & Hurtado, 1995). These reviews of research indicate significant evidence supporting the validity of student ratings. Conversely, student ratings has been received a great deal of attention. Still, they also have been criticized, since many researchers have viewed them as individual attitudes, which may be defined as the importance an individual attaches to a specific attribute of a college or university and the belief that a particular institution possesses that attribute (Trushein, Crouse, & Middaugh, 1990). Consequently, it indicates that these ratings on educational areas differ among students due to their different attitudes/perceptions.

2.5.2 Student Evaluation of Academicians

Universities and colleges have widely utilised SET instruments as summative and formative feedback. King and Behnke (2005) opined that after fifty years of exploring literature and conducting research, the SET remains an important and valuable tool of information for employees and school management. This is especially so when appropriate inquiries are directed to students (Tagomori & Bishop, 1994). Overall, it is fair to say students' perception of teacher evaluation appears to be more statistically reliable and free from prejudice when associated with any other forms of assessment, whether that of colleagues, heads of departments, or deans (Cashin, 1995). Arguments have been advanced that students' feedbacks and evaluations are more valid since they share a better part of the teaching time with their lecturers. Teachers are therefore expected to have a profound and exciting comprehension of how the course's or lecturer's qualities influence them (Tagomori & Bishop, 1994). It is significant to note that feedback from students offers appreciated chances for development.

Behrstock-Sherratt et al. (2014) opined that one of the attributes related to effective lecturers is the capacity for analytical thinking. Consequently, academics are expected to exhibit ideas and evidence from connected arenas, talk about the assessment of students, and resent the origins of thoughts and concepts (Aregbeyen, 2010). Besides, students anticipate that the teachers should be able to communicate openly about their area of specialisation (Hill et al., 2003) and engage in critical discussions regarding the latest research in their respective fields of endeavor (Aregbeyen, 2010).

Academics are very student-focused and have a strong desire to participate in all facets of academia and research (Gornall et al. 2014); the academic's hyper-engagement has been well-researched and documented (Skurak et al. 2018). Academics' activities are influenced by other areas like home and family, work hours, workload, organizational politics and pressures, research, and other scholarly activities. Also, all place demands on the individual, whether inside a university building or outside, at home, at the kitchen table, teaching online, or in a classroom (Shaufeli and Taris 2014; Skurak et al. 2018). Academics' online teaching and student support services during the Covid-19 pandemic can be added to this list of demands, further obscuring the distinction between work and home. Then think about other pressures mainly beyond their control and brought on by the needs of what are now primarily enormous businesses and complicated organizational structures, such as ongoing monitoring, scrutiny, and performance metrics.

While having absorbed and contented workers are ideal (Saks 2006), academics already have a "high workload investor." The flexibility and freedom to work from different places and other times of the day make their work rewarding. Many enter the industry to achieve that level of independence (Gornall, Thomas, and Salisbury 2008). Qualifications including being qualified, driven, engaged in research, positive, and diligent are sought-after characteristics in both freshly hired and seasoned academics and are frequently the "unique selling point" for many colleges (Gornall et al. 2014; Richards 2014; Wright, Gardner, and Moynihan 2003).

However, a culture of growth control and audit is being implemented to guide daily operations and put pressure (and restrictions) on personnel to account for themselves, their activities, and their productivity daily in "units" or "bundles" of time (Gornall et al. 2014). Student satisfaction surveys and teacher evaluations are two common examples of policy interventions, aims, and measures.

With little else to support it, SET is the primary tool utilized for teacher and performance evaluation in academic settings with high instructional workloads (Al-Khawawneh 2013). This implies that performance management and any substantive discussion between management and academics are subject to interpretation, "whims," a lack of understanding of the SET's purpose, and management perceptions of staff (Al-Twal 2019). This could negatively impact staff training, career advancement, motivation, and engagement (Dubosc and Kelo 2012; Al-Twal 2019). Assasfeh et al. (2014, 136) evaluated student perceptions of SET, "students firmly believed the outcomes of evaluation must play a crucial part in a faculty member's contract renewal or promotion." This "consumer" mentality turns academics into front-line service providers. It increases the need for incentive systems that promote academic participation and eliminate personal bias (Gornall et al. 2014), guaranteeing process fairness and transparency (Cook, Jones, and Gibson-Sweet 2020).

2.5.3 Development of SET

The SET has long been a component of the "rhythm of academic life," having been created as an evaluation tool for HE in the 1920s by two US psychologists, Hermann Remmers and Edwin Guthrie, and tested in their respective institutions.

52

It serves three primary purposes: a tool to assess teaching quality, a mechanism for institutions to show accountability, and a way to gather data for use in promotion and tenure decisions (Kember, Leung, and Kwan 2002). Each function was given a different amount of weight, which varied from jurisdiction to jurisdiction and institution to institution. Examples include the weighting given to surveys on the effectiveness of instruction, student evaluations of professors, and surveys on classroom management.

Now, we could argue that employing various terminology is of little consequence, but these terminological variances can be confusing when analyzing studies in this field. According to Berk (2013), the area of research into student evaluation bias and using the SAT as a summative test has received the most attention in higher education. But given that they have the potential to raise the amount of stress academics to suffer in their professional lives, it is important to understand how they see these challenges fully. The US is where student assessments were first developed, and until recently, most research was done there and in Australia and Europe.

This raise concerns that when the same assessment tools and scales are employed in other regions of the world, they may not account for cultural and linguistic differences, which could result in reliability and validity problems (see, for instance, Al-Issa and Silieman 2007). Because prestige, position, and seniority are more highly valued than education, SET may be seen as "unsound" and undesirable by some (Al-Faleh 1987). As a result, challenging these figures heightens perceptions of unfairness and calls into question their veracity.

The work of Assasfeh et al. (2014) should be added to this discussion, as they found that students strongly agreed that they were qualified to assess certain aspects of their instructor's performance. This finding indicates a shift from traditional academic and social values like obedience and respect, reflecting higher education's marketization and the student's customer status. It is significant to highlight that professors consistently acknowledge the value of student input in modern universities and that student evaluation is cherished and recognized as an essential element of the profession (Darwin 2017, 15).

2.6 The Concept and meaning of Academician Effectiveness:

The idea of academician effectiveness has stayed an intricate issue because there is no single principle on which agreement has been achieved, whereby academic effectiveness can be clarified and appraised by scholars (Antony et al., 2019; Cameron, 2006; Donaldson, 2009; Dorina, 2015; Hughes, 2019; Lusthaus, Adrien, Anderson, Carden, & Montalvan, 2002; Osakpa, Okwonkwo, & Ejiogu, 2018; Pike, 1998; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 2006; Scott, 1977; Shin, 2011; Uğur & Hamit Turan, 2019; Zengin, Gülle, & Kaya, 2018). In Nigeria, which is the context of the current study, authors like (Agbo, 2015; Akinsolu, 2010; Akiri, 2013; Akiri & Ugborugbo, 2009; Akomolafe & Adesua, 2015; Alimi et al., 2012; Anani et al., 2016; Anike & Mercy, 2015; Bimbola & Daniel, 2010; Christopher, 2013; Ewetan & Ewetan, 2015; Festus, 2013; Ikpi, Eyong et al., 2014; Iliya & Ifeoma, 2015; Monica & Olatubosun, 2013; Ofoegbu, 2004; Olasunkanmi, 2012; Osakpa et al., 2018; Otache, 2019; Umar et al., 2016) have all contributed to studies in academician effectiveness.

Numerous countries have conducted studies on the qualities of effective academicians. For example, in Australia (Hartney, 2016a), Asia (Do, 2020), the UK (Hartney, 2016b), America (Espinoza et al., 2020a; Nagler et al., 2020a), Nigeria (Abubakar et al., 2019; Bala, 2019; Kayode, 2020; Mkpa, 2019), in South Korea (Burroughs et al., 2019b), in China (Z. Xu & Tu, 2019) and Malaysia (Syarif et al., 2020). A plethora of these studies focused on a single outcome that reflects the most common characteristics of effective academicians: friendliness, helpfulness, humanity, blending with students, revering students, readiness, fairness, knowledge, top-notch delivery, and motivating students.

The literature about academician effectiveness among Nigerian public university lecturers is inadequate (Akosile & Olatokun, 2019). Ad et al. (2015) researched the academician effectiveness of lecturers in a public university in Nigeria. The study represents one of the robust attempts to dissect the latest academician effectiveness among lecturers in public universities in Nigeria. The study only researched the general feelings of lecturers in one tertiary institution. It couldn't specifically relate the study to other antecedents and organisational consequences of academician effectiveness. Therefore, it is pertinent that employees pay attention to those factors that have the propensity to impact the academician effectiveness received. It is also pertinent to point out that many earlier studies concerning academician effectiveness focused on non-teaching organisations (Oviawe, 2016). Teaching in higher learning institutions comes with many challenges, among which are attracting scarce funding and competing demands in terms of blending research and administrative work (Mertler, 2017). All these, undoubtedly, constitute a significant source of pressure for

academics. The nature of the competing demands in academics has been linked with high levels of lack of effectiveness and anxiety Cha et al., (2017).

A few scholars describe academicians' effectiveness from the viewpoint of student achievement. Others center around a high-performing rating from heads of departments or deans. Still, others depend on remarks and comments from top-level school management and critical stakeholders of the academic community. Cruickshank and Haefele (2001) observed that effective academicians, on different occasions, have been called ideal, analytical, dutiful, competent, expert, reflective, satisfying, diversity-responsive, and respected. Effective lecturers bring about a positive atmosphere for learning by putting to test the students' ideas, motivating them, being progressively imaginative in their training, and distinguishing among students based on their capabilities and interest in learning. The best lecturers are not those with the most experience. They are the ones with enthusiasm for their work, high aspirations for the achievement of each student, positive relations, great inspiration, responsibility, and strength. They combine a commanding knowledge of the subjects they teach by providing the needed support to each student and building self-esteem, trust, and respect daily. Zirkel and Gluckman, (1984) suggested that all assessments of academics be done based on lecturer effectiveness. Still, they acknowledged that information regarding academician's effectiveness is not easily found because many evaluations are done based on the competence or performance of lecturers.

2.6.1 Empirical Evidence on Academician Effectiveness

Academician effectiveness research in the context of teacher effectiveness has been thoroughly examined by previous scholars (Campbell et al., 2004; Cheong Cheng & Tung Tsui, 1996; Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Hallinger et al., 2014; Muijs et al., 2005; Ramsden, 1991; Robinson & Campbell, 2010; Rockoff & Speroni, 2010; Stronge et al., 2011).

A study was done among 964 middle-grade students and 93 mathematics teachers in Texas. These investigations showed that students' impression of teacher effectiveness and teachers' view of student intention to learn were significantly related (Kearney & Garfield, 2019). An investigation was done on the association between teacher self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness in a survey that involved 575 teachers and 6,020 students from private schools in India. Findings affirmed a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness (Sehgal, Nambudiri, & Mishra, 2017). A study on the dimensions of student's evaluation of teaching effectiveness in a school. Findings showed that the three variables significantly affect students 'view of learning (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2005). The research focused on lecturing among Nigerian public universities, which intended to create instruments that would be valuable for studying the teaching effectiveness of academics. Results indicated that teaching effectiveness is disregarded in the appraisal process of academics. The research was carried out, which investigated the individual characteristics of lecturers that can lead to their effectiveness. Four variables were recognised as leading to effective lecturing.

57

A two-stage model was created where all four variables were significantly associated with teaching effectiveness (Heffernan, Morrison, Sweeney, & Jarratt, 2010). Another study explored the connection between job satisfaction and teacher effectiveness of teachers in West Bengal among 400 (256 male and 144 female) school teachers. Results uncovered significant relationship between job satisfaction and teacher effectiveness (Halder & Roy, 2018).

An investigation examined the connection between teacher self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness among 575 teachers and 6,020 students in India, and the results revealed a significant relationship between the examined constructs (Sehgal et al., 2017). Equally, the moderating effect of organisational support on the relationship between job satisfaction and teaching effectiveness was tested among 410 lecturers working in Andhra Pradesh. It pursues a graphic research plan that shows the impact of authoritative help. It seeks a probabilistic, multi-organize examining technique for the determination of tests. The result showed a significant moderation effect of organisational support (Mani Kanta & Srivalli, 2018). A Malaysian public medical university survey was conducted to assess teacher performance. An evaluation was carried out using 30 prepared preclinical medical students. The findings were valuable in guiding the medical school's faculty development actions to increase their lecturers' teaching effectiveness during lectures (Ismail et al., 2018). A study examined how school administrators' leadership styles influence teacher effectiveness among 254 executives and teachers from schools in Kalasin. Results revealed a significant positive relationship with teacher effectiveness (Sirisookslip, Ariratana, & Ngang, 2015).

A study was done to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on teaching effectiveness; the result from the statistical analysis shows that self-management and personal leadership were significantly related to teacher effectiveness (Jani, Shahid, Thomas, & Francis, 2014). A study similar lies the earlier one was conducted among 155 teachers working at UiTM, Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia (Kaur, 2017). Results revealed a significant connection between emotional intelligence aptitudes and teacher effectiveness (Som, Hamid, Hassan, Jani, & Azizam, 2014). An examination was directed to analyse 43 studies among 9216 respondents efficiently. The analysis revealed a significant association among the constructs (Klassen & Tze, 2014a). Another investigation examined the impact of workplace spirituality on teaching effectiveness for academicians. Structured Equation Modelling (SEM) was conducted to test the model. Results showed that conditions for the community were significantly associated with teaching effectiveness (Mat et al., 2012).

On the contrary, some insignificant outcomes were found when researching academician effectiveness. The association between EL and teacher effectiveness among nurses in New York was investigated. The investigation uncovered no statistically significant correlation between emotional intelligence and clinical teaching effectiveness (Mosca, 2019). Another examination was done to analyse what is assessed concerning teaching in Nigerian public universities to create instruments that would help clarify the effectiveness, of course, teachers. Results showed that teaching effectiveness is grossly ignored in the lecturer appraisal process (Archibong & Nja, 2011).

Another insignificant finding was revealed in a systematic evaluation of teaching behaviours among 55 lecturers with a proper feedback mechanism that will help to improve their teaching effectiveness. This study suggests that some teaching wasn't effective and needs improvement (Ismail et al., 2018).

In Ondo State, Nigeria, 304 lecturers were investigated. The study looked into the perceived ability of school-based motivational tactics to influence teacher effectiveness. According to the findings, the availability of instructional resources, the development of the school atmosphere, and the assignment of new tasks, among other factors, all impacted teacher effectiveness. Meanwhile, there was no significant difference in teacher perceptions of the effects of motivational tactics on teacher effectiveness between male and female highly experienced and less experienced teachers. (Ige, 2018).

A study among 253 Swiss student teachers comprehended how they assess and pass a competency-based admission test. As measured, the results revealed that cognitive abilities could not predict teachers' effectiveness (Bieri Buschor & Schuler Braunschweig, 2018). Another research was done to examine the perceived quality of professors' teaching effectiveness among 16,802 professors. The results showed that perceived difficulty (from the student's perspective) negatively affects teaching effectiveness (Chiu et al., 2019). A quantitative study was conducted among 560 students in a private higher education institution in Botswana to analyze students' perceptions of teaching effectiveness. Findings revealed that numerous instruments assessing TE predicted TE negatively (Baliyan & Moorad, 2018).

60

2.7 Concept and Definition of Motivation

Scholars regarding the topic of motivation have advanced several definitions. Motivation is reported to have been derived from a word in Latin *movere,* which refers to a move. Motivation is an influence that significantly impacts our activities and discretions. McArthur and Baron (1983) asserted that motivation is a mass of activities that affect and guide our behavior to achieve specific goals. The authors argued that motivation depends on certain intrinsic and extrinsic features combined with positive results in abundantly enthusiastic employees. Motivation also refers to the propelling power that inspires employees to move and complete specific actions (Mafini et al., 2014). One of the most practical definitions of motivation was the one offered by (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005), who see motivation as a psychological process that stimulates and directs employee behavior's persistence.

However, research is scarce that relates motivation principles to faculty members' work (Stupnisky et al., 2018). Too far, there has been far less research on faculty motivation than on many other aspects of higher education and professional communities. For example, on October 16, 2019, a literature searches on Psycinfo revealed 2,698 publications for students + motivation,' 758 publications for 'teacher + motivation,' and 87 publications for 'faculty + motivation.' One may explain the low number of publications by claiming that faculty are a small labour force that isn't studied very much in general; yet, a search for 'faculty + development' got 579 results, indicating that there is a lot of effort and interest in understanding faculty). Aside from that, teachers have a slew of potential demotivators, including rejections, ambiguous goals and rules, and committee work that is frequently viewed as ineffective (Karimi & Hosseini Zade, 2019).

61

Therefore, motivation is seen as those psychological procedures that cause stimulation, course, and tenacity of charitable actions to achieve specific goals (Rahman et al., 2018). Typically, rewards and incentives are among the most favoured employee motivation programs. Moreover, studying the effect of motivation on academician effectiveness is the focus of this study as an essential component of psychological and environmental circumstances for discussing the subject of motivation (Spector, 1985). Therefore, it is fair to say that motivation programs are the crucial components of inducements, repayments, and appreciation that different organisations use to correlate success factors and employee effectiveness.

Many authors believe that motivation is a key and indispensable factor in ensuring the establishment of a competent workforce within the context of academician teaching in higher institutions of learning (Aami et al., 2012; Mafini et al., 2014; Muhammad Arifin, 2015; Parvin & Karbin, 2011; van Scheers, L., & Botha, Scheers, & Botha, 2014). This is because motivation is related to specific issues, situations, and circumstances, that are institutional-based and constitute academic staff working lives. Motivating academician is a critical area of research. This is particularly in nations where academician retention and quality have become significant concerns. People are propelled by numerous interests to seek a teaching profession, including the longing for self-awareness and continued learning, positively affecting others' lives, adding to society, and achieving steady, secure employment. This influences the educational plan. Academician motivation research has conceptualised why lecturers' intrinsic and extrinsic variables assist them in becoming academics (Sinclair, 2008) and altruistic factors (Chong & Low, 2009).

Extrinsic factors include monetary benefits and employment security, whereas intrinsic aspects desire personal improvement. According to Nzuve and Nduta (2014), motivation is the individual's internal process that energises, directs, and sustains behaviour. This means that motivation is task managers assign to staff to amplify productivity in the workplace. Motivated employees put forth more effort to complete a task than those who are not. Intrinsic factors are sometimes described as the need for kids and positive social involvement (Chong & Low, 2009).

Other pieces of literature Kosteas (2011) have shown that adequately motivated academic staff exhibit higher levels of satisfaction and performance. This is because authors like Evans (1997) have emphasised that the best way to inspire lecturers is by providing them a say and sense of belonging, active discussion and partaking in decision-making, and motivation through recognizing the professor's efforts and achievements. Sharing a similar view, Salee et al. (2010) also argued that the best way to stimulate people working in an organisation is sufficient motivation to make workers more satisfied and contented with their jobs. Studies on academician effectiveness have shown mixed results when tested severally in the past. Most studies have demonstrated a significant link between motivation and academician effectiveness. (Adenike, 2011; Kumar, et al., 2013; Seyal & Afzaal, 2013; Shah et al., 2012; Shin, & Jung et al., 2014). Other studies have shown no effect between motivation and academician effectiveness (Imran et al., 2017; Malik & Danish et al., 2010). The following section covers a review of the literature on intrinsic motivation.

63

2.7.1 Motivation

Every person has their peculiar motivation influences, kinds of stuff that can ignite internally generated courage to carry out some duties and actions that can help the individual reach their goal (Parvin & Karbin, 2011b). For example, an employee can reward himself with a self-declared holiday or exult proudly in him to conquer a task. These are referred to as internal motivating factors because they come from within the individuals. This applies to psychological considerations in the workplace. It includes using one capability, the wisdom of task and accomplishment, accepting gratitude, optimistic acknowledgment, and being approached and handled in a very nice and complementary way. The psychosomatic prizes are those that are usually decided by the policies of individual supervisors. Intrinsic motivation is derived from personal desire or attention, which does not include workings on matters to be gratified monetarily. Instead, it is driven by an inner set of satisfaction to be pleased from the inside.

Amabil et al. (1994) defined intrinsic motivation as the feelings derived without distinct external rewards. Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009) believe that people are intrinsically motivated when they desire attention, interest satisfaction, self-expression, or personal fulfillment at work. Ryan and Deci (2000) opined that intrinsic motivation is inherent, rational, and the ability to engage one's interest and use one's capacity, and in so doing, to achieve ideal changes (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). Intrinsically motivating actions increase the subject's concern and satisfaction from making them, especially when you are getting any reward.

An individual can be intrinsically motivated when such an individual doesn't get any reward in return for the services he performs. Intrinsic motivation cases are reported based on competence, indicating that the bearer is naturally gifted or acquired from the environment they grew up. For example, in the opinion of Abdullah and Wan (2013), when a supervisor recognises an employee's fantastic effort and compliments him by giving him a gift like a bunch of flowers, the employee feels rewarded and motivated intrinsically. But if the individual concerned thinks that the gift given to him by the supervisor serves only an illustrative purpose, then intrinsic motivation objectives are defeated. It means that the gift of flowers is suspected to represent an instrument used to control and influence the relationship.

Intrinsic motivation makes employees perform particular actions because it helps fulfill their interests and helps to satisfy their satisfaction (Abdullah & Wan, 2013). Intrinsic motivation is fired by profound interest and participation in the effort, curiosity, delight, or obligation to set a goal for oneself. Intrinsic motivation is often evaluated by the proportions of the intention to succeed and overcome thought-provoking assignments (Crede et al., 2007). Over time, research on intrinsic motivation presupposes that employees strive to be sufficiently informed of the happenings and events within and outside their environments.

Extrinsic motivation deals with concrete recompenses like remuneration, fringe paybacks, upgrades, deal service, and condition of work. Extrinsic motivation factors are often decided at the organization's level and often lie out of the influence of supervisors.

Extrinsic motivation denotes the conduct propelled by outside benefits such as cash, reputation, and commendation. Accordingly, Amabile et al. (1994) see extrinsic motivation as an outside aspiration factor of an individual. These could be in the form of financial gratification or marks. Rewards go a long way to provide some satisfaction to the employees who cannot be obtained while engaging in the job.

This type of motivation generally happens from outside the employee and is different from intrinsic motivation. There is no clear, universally accepted definition of extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is rewarding that is deeply seated in positively assessed works and is usually given to employers in their work environment. These are generally termed to be external reinforcement measures that are highly significant that relate to an employee's work environment, which has an effect and is said to have an impact immensely on work ethics and professional behaviour. Extrinsic motivation does have its origins outside of the individuals. It usually follows that extrinsic motivation rewards do not show in work and are often associated with the organisation where the employee normally works.

Smith and Shields (2013) opined those elements of extrinsic motivation comprise the following, bonuses, upgrades of employment, state symbols and respect, mentions, and other aids like additional leave and official vehicle. Extrinsic motivation is stimulating and reinforcing employee motivation to inspire the employee to work more, faster, or better. It may be in the form of monetary rewards or gifts. Extrinsic motivation is the impact derived from outside sources, and these sources can be anything from friends, employers, or people.

66

It is the use of positive or negative incentives that determines the way the sources influence an individual. It positively changed stimuli could be recognition, respect, or even money though as suggested by Osterloh et al. (2001) that the use of physical money is engaged in transactions and not to deliver utility.

Extrinsic motivation refers to benefits, the extent of a financial benefits package that an employee acquires from the organisation, including base income, monies for performances, social security schemes, housing supports, and health coverage. The availability and assurance of extrinsic-related benefits should, in turn, propel the employee to reciprocate the gesture by exhibiting a high sense of commitment, responsibility, and dedication towards the organisation. This should be equally followed by showing disdain or total lack of interest for any form of alternative employment that attempts to come from outside the organisation. Empirical work in the private sector organisation in the west is generally supportive of such an assertion (Mottaz, 1988).

2.7.2 Empirical Evidence on Motivation and Academician Effectiveness

Academic motivation has been connected to environmental factors like the motivation among lecturers. This study took this approach because research demonstrates that achievement-related motivation is a significant factor of employees' work effectiveness among academics (Baruch et al., 2004; Daan Van Knippenberg, 2000; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013). Educational research has established that a lecturer's work motivation is crucial in affecting academicians' success in schools, in line with organizational study on employee job motivation (Steers et al., 2004).

67

Based on the available information, it is obvious that lecturer work motivation can impact a range of school outcomes (Haiyan et al., 2017). Based on the theoretical discussion and empirical evidence, it is reasonable to predict that teacher work motivation can influence academician efficacy. As a result, this study aims to look into the impact of motivation on academicians' performance among professors in tertiary institutions of learning in north-western Nigeria.

Previous results were found when motivation was tested against academician effectiveness. In a study conducted among 141 academic staff, motivation is positively associated with academician effectiveness. Results revealed a significant connection between motivation and teaching performance (Abdulsalam & Abubakar Mawoli, 2012). Another study examined motivation's influence among 242 academic employees in a Malaysian university. Employee empowerment has a considerable positive impact on employee motivation (Hanaysha & Hussain, 2018).

2.8 Concept and Definition of Organizational Climate

Organisational climate is a familiar concept in management, organisational psychology, and organisational behaviour literature. The history is predated by the works of Tolman (1926), in which he came up with the idea that people try to acclimatise to their environments. Lewis (1936) stated that organisational climate signifies the collective understandings of an individual, and the clarifications are used to form the basis of accepting the surroundings. Argyris (1958) referred to organisational climate as a system's prescribed procedures, employee requirements, ideals, and behaviours.

Smith, Smith, Litwin, and Stringer (1969), concentrated on the organisational climate, specifically, an employee aims for authority, accomplishment, and association. They process organisational climate by evaluating members' perceptions inside the organisation.

Since the 1970s, various works of literature have been reviewed on the organisational climate. Hellriegel and Slocum Jr (1974) see it as profound qualities observed concerning an organisation and the concepts of its systems instead of categorising all the fundamentals of surroundings into one piece, assuming that all the individuals agree. In contrast to Hellriegel and Slocum Jr (1974)'s view, Pool et al. (1985) opined that organisational climate discourses about entire organisations instead of a part of it. Joyce and Slocum (1982) observed the changes within an organisation and described it as a collective description of this environment, most often assessed through the average perception of organisational members.

Bresla et al. (1991) describe climate as a joint creation of the organisation and its members. Moran and Volkwein (1992) pointed out that organisational climate is an independent idea that drives an organization's values, principles, and beliefs. According to them, climate can be seen as an organization's unique characteristics that separate it from other organisations. Also, it could possess the following features (a) symbolizes member's shared perception concerning their business, especially as it relates to independence, belief, funding, appreciation, inventions, and justice; (b) climate is formed by membership collaboration; (c) climate can be a base for understanding situations; (d) climate mirrors the dominant standards and behaviour in

69

an organization; in addition, it serves as a basis of encouragement for modelling behaviours.

Organizational climate assumed a more modern outlook from these early researchers because their approach was based on better practice and usefulness. In line with its realism and value, most organisations have had their environment scanned and studied, for example, in the military (Capps et al., 2001) business (Argyris, 1958; Hoy & Clover, 1986; Schlachter, 1990; Benjamin Schneider, Bartlett, & J., 1968). Industry (Dov Zohar, 1980; Lin, Madu, & Kuei, 1999; Mearns, Flin, Gordon, & Fleming, 1998). Specifically, the organisational climate of higher education was investigated in many different roles such as (Agarwal, 2001; Belwalkar, Vohra, & Pandey, 2018; Castro & Martins, 2010; Chen & Huang, 2007; Lawrence, 2004; Mahal, 2009; Palmer, 1996; Soudek, 1983; Thomas & Pettit, 1995); and (Garavan, 1997).

(Adeniji, 2011) opined that the organisational climate is the collective insight concerning the actual situation of events within the organisation. They argued that organisational climate encompasses similar behaviours, standards, and practices that describe employees that work in a particular organisation or firm. Therefore, researchers have long been attracted to digesting and absorbing what determines an employee's insights and perspective of the work environment and how these insights and perceptions would impact employees' attitudes and conduct at work. Previous scholars have justified that the social environment or atmosphere formed in any organisation does have positive outcomes on the insight and perspective of the employee.

70

This can influence employees' satisfaction in their job and make them serve the organisation to their fullest potential, which can impact the organisation's total output and efficiency (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004).

Organisational climate is a practical description of a work environment; this also includes, more specifically, employees' observations of the prescribed and casual guidelines, practices, and processes to be adopted within the workplace (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Even though several approaches exist among scholars regarding the organisational climate, the following two approaches deserve our attention. The first is the intellectual structure method developed by the shared awareness method. Firstly, organisational climate is perceived as individual perception and cognitive exemplification of what is obtainable in the workplace. This means that organisational climate should be assessed from the individual perspective. Secondly, organisational climate is approached based on the significance of collective perception in an organisation. Clarke (2006) described the organisational climate as the behaviours, emotional state, and common practice.

He stressed that organizational climate represents the embodiments of the in-house events in an organisation vis-à-vis (a) the peculiar experience of each member, (b) how developments within the workplace impact their psyche and behaviours, (c) and the standards and norms that reflect ethical reflection in organisations. Organisational climate is considered reality-based because each employee can observe events in the organisation, even though opinion may differ from employee to employee.

71

Some scholars consider organisational climate distinct from other variables such as satisfaction because of the generalisation of perception and feelings among employees.

The organisational climate is different because it touches on and impacts the behaviour of the employees in an organisation climate. Positive or negative situations in the organisation can potentially influence the psyche of staff; however, this depends on how average employees view their disposition in the workplace. Therefore, employees' perception is shaped by happenings or events in the workplace. (Griffin, R; Moorhead, 2014) opined organisational climate could sometimes be manipulated, which can affect employees' behaviours. Given the definition, organisational climate is understood from observing employees' interactions in the workplace. Therefore, poorly coordinated linkages among employees' groups and cadres can lead to organisational conflicts, fractured communication lines, and a lack of organisational commitment and purpose among employees. Organisational climate is a perception that deals with the academic lecturer's understanding of the school working environment. In the university situation, a conclusion can be reached that organisational climate is a condition that reflects a university's capability to shine among other counterparts (Darabi et al., 2013).

It is pertinent that organisational climate has to be absorbed and sensed by those around whom the organisation revolves, the academic staff (Zehir et al., & Zehir et al., 2014). Therefore, in this study, organizational climate is defined as perceptions shared, behaviours, and feelings of members in an organization on the essential elements that reflect values and norms.

It explains the institution's values and influence and the workers' positive and negative perception of the work environment. It symbolizes important features like organization structure, responsibility, reward, risk management, assurance, funding, values, conflict, and personality. In the current research, organisational climate is operationalised as communication and social climates.

2.8.1 Communication Climate

Communication climate (CC) is defined "as an experienced subjective quality of the internal environment of an organization. The concept embraces a general cluster of inferred predispositions, identifiable through reports of members perceptions of messages and message-related events occurring in the organization" (Larosiliere & Leidner 2012, P.8). In this study, CC can be described as an organization's employees' impression of mutual interactions and communication (Kartono & Kartikawangi, 2018). Despite what is known about communication climate, academics can still expand the current corpus of knowledge. While previous communication climate research has made significant theoretical and practical advances, this line of inquiry aims to explain the communication climate faced by academics. The study of communication climate among academics is essential since it is still a strong determinant of academician effectiveness. Whether or not academics absorb communication climate due to their self-categorization, teachers may support their desire to make a good impression by displaying positive behaviors as effective academics. However, little scholarly attention has been paid to how academics respond to institutional issues related to communication climate.

2.8.2 Social Climate

The term social climate in the academic classroom context describes how lecturers and their students perceive the quality of their experiences in the classroom (Hoy & Miskel, 2013). Classroom climates are influenced by an intricate environmental framework encompassing self-efficacy and the socio-emotional elements that affect it (Makara & Madjar, 2015; Martin, 2016). It inspires student and staff motivation by providing needed assistance (Deci & Ryan, 2016) and enabling a social environment that encourages learning. It progresses learning outcomes (Ainley & Ainley, 2011). The term "social climate" denotes the environment, ethos, norms, social structures, and resources that aim to give students a feeling of purpose in their study (Hartog, 2009; Oren et al., 2002). According to LaRusso et al. (2008), teacher support is linked to the social climate. Patrick, Kaplan, and Ryan (2011) found that academic assistance, emotional support, mutual respect, and task-related engagement are essential factors in students' social climate experiences.

2.9 Empirical Evidence on Organizational Climate and Academician Effectiveness

In consistence with the notion about the role of organizational climate, many past kinds of research have shown a positive association between organizational climate and academician effectiveness in various settings and countries (Adenike, 2011; Fu & Satish, 2014; Hayati, & Caniago et al., 2012; Jyoti, 2013; Kaya et al., 2010; Lund, 2003a; Schyns et al., 2009; Tsai, 2014). For example, a study was conducted among fifty teachers from ten senior secondary schools.

74

Results revealed no significant relationship between teacher effectiveness and organisational climate (Harvinder Kaur, 2018). Babu and Kumari (2013) examined the type of organisational climate for different kinds of schools among 100 academicians from the Koderma District of Jharkhand. Findings showed a significant difference between teacher effectiveness concerning their organisational climate.

Data were obtained from 245 managers/executives in an Indian organisation. Results indicated that organisational climate was related to communication-related factors (Bamel et al., 2013a). In another study conducted on 600 teachers in Jalandhar, India, findings revealed that teachers with high emotional intelligence were shown to be more effective in their classrooms than teachers with poor emotional intelligence, according to the findings. (Kauts & Hans, 2011). A favourable organisational climate would encourage academician effectiveness (Adenike, 2011). These findings support on the previous study conducted empirically on 245 managers/executives, which examined the connection of dimensions of organisational climate with managerial effectiveness in Indian organisations.

These findings imply that organisational climate factors such as organisational process, altruistic behaviour, role clarity and communication, results-rewards orientation, and certain features of interpersonal interactions all improve managerial performance (Bamel et al., 2013b). Kawa (2019) investigated the teaching philosophies of effective and ineffective secondary school teachers in Kashmir valley, India.

According to the study, effective secondary school teachers are more enthusiastic about their jobs than middling secondary school instructors. The findings also showed that effective instructors are more capable in their work, have a good outlook, and cooperate better with students and administrators.

Also, Bhat (2019) explores the relationship between the organizational climate and the teacher's effectiveness among a sample of 450 instructors (305 men and 145 women) working in public and private high schools in the Kulgam area of India. The study's findings showed that high school instructors have an above-average organizational climate, high self-esteem, and average teacher effectiveness. Additionally, it was discovered that high school teachers' organizational atmosphere, efficacy, and self-esteem are all positively and significantly correlated.

(Fenn, 2019) examined the connection between organizational climate and dedication from the viewpoint of the instructors from 691 teachers from six trade colleges at Malaysia's vocational institutes in Sarawak. The statistical study results demonstrated a substantial positive association between collegial leadership, professional teacher behavior, and success press and teachers' organizational climate.

2.10 Concept and Meaning of Emotional labour

Constanti and Gibbs (2004b), and Hagenauer, Hascher, and Volet (2015) suggested that teaching involves cognitive and technical, emotional implementation, and managerial work. Thus, teaching is associated with emotional labour, and one of its essential purposes is communicating a suitable mood (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). Salzberger-Wittenberg et al. (1993) approved those teachers and student could

76

improve their working relationships if they had a better awareness of the emotional factors involved in the teaching process. The idea of emotional labour was first suggested by (Hochschild, 1983) who defines it as how people regulate their emotions while working for a living. Characteristically, emotions are mirrored in noticeable facial expressions and body posture. According to Hochschild (1983), deep acting (DA) and surface acting (SA) are two strategies for emotional regulation that are used in emotional work (SA). To increase mood, DA entails changing one's subjective experience. The cognitive processes used to manage inner conflicts, anxiety, and other negative emotions are precise.

On the contrary, SA focuses on modifying emotional expressions on the outside. This modification procedure does not vary the disposition experienced because individuals often express emotions that vary with their true feelings. Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) and Grandey (2000) explained that SA and DA express natural emotions in another form. This way of conveying expression helps people to feel real and true to themselves. Emotional labour is critical to the success of lecturers' driving inspirations in academics. According to Jennings and Greenberg (2009), caring about students and engaging them are key components of a lecturer's professional daily life. Therefore, this calls for different emotional management tactics lecturers use to manage situations (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, & Fischbach, 2013). It's an individual endeavour to control their emotions following social norms (Karim, 2009). Arlie Russell Hochschild, a sociologist by training, spoke about and researched the concept of emotional labour. He defined it as manipulating emotions to produce imitation and physiological manifestations that are visible to all.

77

In relating to of academia, Hochschild (1983) elucidated that students are compared to customers and working in a university. Teaching students is compared to running a business offering clients goods and services. One of the vocations in which emotional control is extremely important is teaching (Hargreaves, 1998a); (Zhang & Zhu, 2008a).

Many research looked at factors such as professional efficacy, identity, norms, and scripts when performing emotional labour (Sutton, 2004); (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). However, none of the researchers looked into the motivation for undertaking emotional labour as a strategy for academic success. Emotional annoyances, emotionally arousing interactions such as peers/boss/misconduct (Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Huisman, 2006), emotional dissonance, or the difference between what one thinks and feels is thought to be a strong predictor of emotional labour. (Hargreaves, 1998b). Schaufeli et al. (2002) observed that teachers' emotional labours are greater than any other job. Employees that provide customer service are more concerned with emotional expectations and dissonance, which might affect their work engagement. On the other hand, engaged workers have a lot of energy, zeal, excitement and are very invested in their occupations. Emotional labour is typically understood in teaching as to how lecturers suppress, generate, and control their feelings and expression of emotions following the normative ideas or emotional display guidelines believed about the teaching profession.

2.10.1 Deep Acting

Deep acting (DA) is the intentional participation in thoughts and behaviours that enable the experiencing and expressing the desired emotion (Dhanpat, 2016). As a result of deep acting, you will have the opportunity to experience and express desired emotions dictated by emotional rules. DA is a form of "real feelings that have been self-induced" (Hochschild, 1983, p. 35). DA relates to "changing one's feelings regarding an interaction so that emotional expressions naturally fall in line with expectations" (Grandey et al., 2013, p. 207). Rather than just feigning unfelt feelings, people change their underlying feelings to express the mood they want to show or their profession requires (Mann & Cowburn, 2005). To achieve this, (Humphrey 1993b) opined that employees must exert effort to generate memories, images, or thoughts to feel or suppress specific emotions at work. According to this hypothesis, they will be able to feel, think, and act in organizationally desirable emotions. (Schirmer & Adolphs, 2017). Academicians, for example, may use positive memories to counteract irritable sentiments when instructing. They would have re-defined any troubling scenario as a result of this process.

2.10.2 Surface Acting

Surface acting is the deliberate alteration of one's visible expression to match the needed mood (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002b; Hochschild, 1983b). As a result, there is a mismatch between the emotion experienced and the feeling portrayed (Grandey, 2015). It's been stated that surface acting entails hiding or suppressing one's genuine feelings and simulating appropriate emotional expressions.

However, given their differing connections with outcomes such as burnout and ill-health, some writers suggest that differences between these two components may be important (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002b; Lee & van Vlack, 2018a; Lee & Brotheridge, 2011).

2.11 Emotional labour and Academicians in Higher institution of learning

Furthermore, recent research has revealed that academicians distinguish (and use) suppressing or limiting emotions from fake or feigning them (Taxer & Gross, 2018; Zheng et al., 2018). Regarding teachers' emotional management, certain situations may entail suppressing certain sensations that they believe are insufficient. For example, to retain control, academicians may want to hide too much empathy for a student to avoid appearing biased or amused at a lousy student joke. On the other hand, other instances enquire teachers to fake emotions to some level, such as rage to maintain classroom discipline or joy to stimulate student participation (Lee & van Vlack, 2018b) (Taxer & Frenzel, 2015a). Because there are likely interindividual differences in how appropriate and necessary it is for academicians to engage in such hiding or faking behaviours, teachers are asked to report how often they engage in the corresponding emotion-regulating behaviours as part of the assessment of various emotional labour strategies. Nonetheless, it appears that faking and hiding emotions are two separate phenomena with different consequences for academicians' performance and well-being. As a result, this study uses a triadic method to evaluate emotional labour, separating deep acting, hiding feelings, and faking emotions.

2.11.1 Empirical Evidence on Emotional Labour

From previous works of literature, studies have stressed the vitality of emotional labour in helping to promote positive outcomes for academicians (Busoi, Ali, & Gardiner, 2022; Fouquereau et al., 2021; Heba, Samia, Hend, & Zeinb, 2022; Kennedy, Oliver, & Littlejohn, 2022; Mcclure & Mcclure, 2022).

Emotional labour is an important aspect of interpreting lecturers' actions. Lecturing requires cognitive and technical skills and requires emotional application and organization (Constanti & Gibbs, 2004; Hagenauer & Volet, 2014). As a result, lecturing entails a significant amount of emotional labour, and one of its primary responsibilities is communicating the appropriate attitude (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). Salzberger-Wittenberg, Williams, and Osborne (1993) justified that teachers and students will create stronger working relationships if they have a greater awareness of the emotional factors involved in the teaching process. Emotional labour is critical to how teachers can become better motivated when teaching. Therefore, emotional control reflects the ability of a teacher's professional responsibilities (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Teaching by academics is one profession that deals with a wide range of emotions, which is often addressed through emotional labour. Emotions are acknowledged as an important element of teachers' professional lives because it influences the act of learning and student-lecturer behaviour (Frenzel, 2014; Hagenauer & Volet, 2014; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Also, it explains more on teacher well-being, burnout, and professional dropout (Chang, 2009; Keller, Chang, Becker, Goetz, & Frenzel, 2014). When teachers engage with their students, they are expected to observe pertinent rules

81

and emotional standards that govern emotions' experience and presentation, just as they do in other service occupations. Teachers, according to studies, are more likely to reveal happy moods but conceal sad moods to achieve class objectives (Sutton et al., 2009; Zembylas, 2003).

For instance, when presented with an excessively misbehaving student, lecturers should feel and express good emotions, such as a passion for the material being taught, while avoiding, suppressing, or hiding negative emotions, such as worry or despair. Teachers are also required to limit their emotional experiences to moderate intensity, i.e., to refrain from exhibiting overly intense emotions (Yin & Lee, 2012; Winograd, 2003). Another study investigated Australian mental health nurses' workplace resilience and emotional labour among 482 nurses. Results showed a significant connection between resilience, frequency of emotional labour, and clinical supervision (Delgado et al., 2019). Similar research was done to investigate the relationship between students' spirituality and emotional labour among students from the School of Health at a state university located in Southeast Turkey. The results revealed that student spirituality was significantly related to emotional labour (Fouquereau et al., 2019). Equally, this was followed by a study investigating the impact of a leader's emotional labour strategies on a leader's attitudes among 300 teachers of universities from all over Punjab, Pakistan. Results revealed significant relationship between emotional labour and a leader's attitudes. (Ahmad et al., 2019). Regarding emotional labour, a study was conducted to evaluate the impact of workers' awareness of emotional labour among 320 service executives.

The research revealed significant relationship between a worker's awareness and emotional labour (Bhatt, 2019).

2.11.2 Emotional Labour as a Mediator

Extant studies have introduced emotional labour as a mediating variable previously (Busoi et al., 2022; Fouquereau et al., 2021; Heba et al., 2022; Heffernan, Bright, Kim, Longmuir, & Magyar, 2022; Kennedy et al., 2022; Kuruppu, Humphreys, McKibbin, & Hegarty, 2022; Mcclure & Mcclure, 2022; Turtiainen, Anttila, & Väänänen, 2022; Walifa, 2022). Examining the role of emotional labour as a mediator could deepen the understanding of why motivation and organisational climate could influence the effectiveness of academics teaching in higher learning institutions. The study has demonstrated how emotional labour is indispensable to the productivity of teachers' driving inspirations since thinking about and interfacing with students are significant segments of an academic's day-by-day life. Emotional labour is identified with the cooperation between the development within the environment and the individual. It underlines the enthusiastic capacity with which the individual and the environment blend (Walsh et al., 2020; X. Wu & Shie, 2017). From the viewpoint of emotional labour, this investigation contends that organisational climate and motivation will lead to positive social communication and socio-emotional generators to advance the regulation capacity of academics in an institution of learning, which will, at that point, instigate academics into a state of effectiveness.

From the viewpoint of emotional labour, this research contends that motivation and organisational climate will persuade a positive social interface within the organisation. This will lead to socio-emotional resource generators to enhance the emotional regulation capability of academics, which then influences and lead to robust academic behaviour and effectiveness. A study that tested the effect of emotional labour as a mediator sought to extend the body of knowledge and examined how gender groups regulate their emotions. Results revealed that 'deep acting' and surface acting both mediating. (Potipiroon et al., 2019a).

Emotional labour was also tested as a mediator among 150 university academics. The information was gathered mostly from nine Chinese universities in the Fujian province. Results revealed that DA partially mediates the association between university playfulness climate and innovation intention. (Zhou et al., 2019b). At the same time, another investigation was done on testing the mediating effects of surface acting on the relationship between workload job demand and employee wellbeing among 207 emergency medical technicians. Findings revealed that assimilating surface acting mediated the relationship between EI and employee well-being (Nauman et al., 2018). Finally, the research investigated the impact of SA and DA as mediators between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among 279 Chinese hotel employees. Findings revealed that DA partially mediated the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction, but SA did not mediate (Wen et al., 2019).

2.11.3 Conclusion and Research Issues to be addressed

In the first place, academician effectiveness is the most commonly used term for evaluating the art of teaching. This is widely domesticated in primary and secondary teaching. Meanwhile, the focus of research has been experiencing a shift from "teaching" or "lecturing" to "academician effectiveness" in the context of tertiary institutions of learning. In talking about those factors related to academician effectiveness, reviewed literature has indicated the existence of limited studies examining motivation's influence on academician effectiveness. Most previous studies zoomed on other factors like turnover intention, job performance, leadership styles, organisational commitment, and organisational learning when predicting academician effectiveness (Lund, 2003); (Williams & Anderson, 1991); (Rose, Kumar, Pak, & Rose, Kumar, & Pak, 2011); (Srivastava, 2013); (Nadiri, & Tanova, Nadiri, & Tanova, 2010). Studies that have focused exclusively on employees' perception of motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour are laced with limited and inconclusive works of literature.

The studies that exist and concentrate on motivation, organisational climate, emotional labor-related factors, and academician effectiveness were primarily conducted in non-academic settings. The studies mainly focus on telecommunication, shipping, banking, healthcare, textile, and telecommunication industries. Not much has focused on university academic settings, mainly higher learning institutions. Therefore, this research intends to add to the literature and academician effectiveness by investigating the association between motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour among academic staff of north-western universities in Nigeria.

85

In conclusion, most works of literature have shown that many studies on academician effectiveness have concentrated on American, European, and Western countries, respectively. Attempting to conduct comparative research in other parts of the planet is pertinent due to variations in cultural, social governmental and national outlook policies which influence policies and decision-making frameworks, often leading to diverse assumptions. Hence, this research is purposely carried out to focus on academician effectiveness issues among academic staff of public universities in the north-western region of Nigeria.

2.12 Underpinning Theory

As discussed earlier in chapter one, this study has acknowledged being covered by the Social Exchange Theory and Attribution Theory, which will all be discussed extensively.

2.12.1 Social Exchange Theory

Elton Mayo performed a number of tests and trials in the late 1920s to see whether various work environments increased workers' receptivity and productivity. These were known as the Hawthorne studies at the time and generated a lot of interest and debate. The studies typically came to the conclusion that social dynamics were a better predictor of work performance than physical circumstances and financial incentives. They did not, however, investigate the basis for these findings.

According to several academics, the importance of these investigations lay in the various issues they raised rather than the conclusions they came to (Zoller and Muldoon, 2019). They showed how complicated the workplace was and how more research was needed to comprehend the dynamics at work that affect both individual and collective behavior. In an effort to advance this line of research, George Homans, a Mayo student, created Social Exchange Theory (SET). According to Kamdar and Van Dyne's (2007) definition of a social exchange, it is an unbounded exchange in which all parties engaged profit from one another. Within this relationship, behavior is assessed and responded as necessary.

The theory of social exchange (SET) is one of the most widely accepted and used theories in recent research about employee effectiveness. A lot of scholars have used and applied the social exchange theory in explaining the dynamics of employee effectiveness (Birtch, Chiang, & Van Esch, 2016; Charoensukmongkol, 2014; Li, Lu, Hsu, Gray, & Huang, 2015; Loi, Chan, & Lam, 2014; Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne, & Rayton, 2013). Similarly, Almaaitah et al. (2017) pointed out that a potent theorised basis can be located in the social exchange theory to explain employee effectiveness-related discussions. It is so because the driving principles behind the social exchange theory are based on the fact that people make social decisions based on cost-benefit analysis. This assumption follows that employees often try to evaluate every social relationship based on the benefit derived from the relationship. Bla (1964b) and Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke (2010) pointed out that the best way to reciprocate their employers is when they have achieved an expected level of satisfaction in their job, which makes them show more significant cause for commitment and engagement.

Workers are undoubtedly committed, engaged, and effective when they are satisfied with their jobs. This rationale displays a reciprocal relationship based on assistance and support, which are only given to the employees, and the employers unalloyed willingness to give back their best services and performances to the organization.

Cook, Cheshire, Rice, and Nakagawa (2013) discovered that lecturers of higher learning institutions are psychologically motivated and inclined to put their best and all into their job at work, while on the other hand, those who feel distracted unfulfilled do less. Admittedly, academics are often reciprocal in their dispositions and feel obliged to contribute to their respective universities. Accordingly, the tenets of social exchange theory provide theoretical foundations to explain why academic staff chooses to become committed or less committed to their work in their various universities.

According to Blau (1964), when one person receives a benefit, the other party is obligated to reciprocate or return the favour (Gouldner, 1960). This responsibility is intertwined with the idea of psychological contracts. According to Schein (1980), psychological contracts depict the exchange relationship between the individual and the organisation. Because of the fulfilment and reinforcement of the psychological contract, continued receipt and reciprocation create increased duties between the participants in an exchange relationship (Balu, 1964). Employees are expected to perform satisfactorily in exchange for continued employment and accompanying rewards in the context of job security, and this forms the psychological contract between the two parties.

On the other hand, employees would lessen their efforts and dedication if firms could not meet their customary obligations. The organization will most likely withhold extra-role activities because they may be quickly curtailed with minimal personal harm (Parks & Kidder, 1994). Consistent with SET Blau (1964) and the reciprocity norm Gouldner (1960), the underlying principle of SET obligates that motivated employees who feel motivated and supported by favourable organizational climate to reciprocate by expressing greater effectiveness (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As a result, establishments that encourage employee support have a competitive edge over those that do not. This is because, even without formal contracts, social trade fosters feelings of personal responsibility, gratitude, and trust among partners, all of which serve as a foundation for social solidarity and micro-social order.Lecturer motivation and organisational climate have a critical influence on the effective attainment of instructional goals in higher education institutions(Atikah & Qomariah, 2021)

The lecturer's perception of motivation and organizational climate is important to them to internalize the organizational goals. When the lecturer feels supported, it will contribute more to achieving the school's objectives (Khaola & Raselimo, 2020). The more the lecturers perceive organizational support via motivation and a supportive climate, the more they become committed and effective academicians (Holliman et al., 2020). Motivated lecturers are more likely to be dedicated to the teaching profession and the organisation. This is giving their work and maximising the use of time and resources. These were the concerns taken into consideration in the current study. Contributing knowledge, data, and ideas to a deeper understanding is important to motivation and a supportive climate.

Its observance in a school setting would impact the commitment and effectiveness that teachers will manifest. It is habitual and behavioural to mention that when academics are satisfied with the level of support and inducements they get in their workplaces, they feel morally bound to reciprocate the gesture more profoundly committed to their jobs and assignments.

Consequently, if they don't contact the university's support and encouragement, they tend to deploy a withdrawal attitude and become disenchantment with their jobs. According to (Blau, 1964b), the social exchange theory suggests that academic staff that displays positive or negative behaviour against their universities only do so if they are also treated positively or negatively. Therefore, social exchange theory can explain the relationship between motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness.

However, the SET, which is one of the most important methods in understanding issues related to human resources and organisational, the theory did not come without some shortcomings (Cropanzano et al., 2017a). Part of the cardinal features of the theory is that all human dealings are perceived from the viewpoint of reciprocation. It means that relationships are viewed or seen strictly from mutual exchanges, reciprocity, and mutual benefits. Contrary to this earlier perspective, some scholars have dealt with SET as an exclusive form of interaction (Whitaker, 2017). In this vein, Cropanzano and Mitchell (1972) dwelled on hypothetical ambiguities, while Cropanzano et al. (2001) are concerned with recurrent SET misunderstandings.

Critics have contended that the concept of SET relationships is not adequately defined. For example, Cropanzano and Mitchell (1972) described two associations: (1) interdependent exchange series and (2) interpersonal attachments from the series of interdependent exchanges. To resolve this contrast, Cropanzano and Mitchell (1972) propounded a typology of transactions and relationships in social exchange.

Furthermore, the SET critics have contended that the theory overgeneralizes human relationships by tumbling it to short-term, self-interested exchanges. They lamented on human motivation and often maintained relationships that were not mutually beneficial when more rewarding relationships were possible. Therefore, in this study, the social exchange theory can only be considered an underpinning theory in explaining the relationship between motivation, organizational climate, and academician effectiveness only because it cannot accommodate the explanation for a more complex relationship between academician effectiveness and the mediator, which is emotional labour. These relationships are not built on the reward system or reciprocity; they are based on long-term benefits based on attitude, cognition, or institutional recognition.

2.12.2 Affective Event Theory (AET)

AET (Affective Event Theory) is a framework useful for pinpointing the reasons behind people's responses to events at work. It discusses the connection between the emotional experiences people have at work, the emotional responses such emotions evoke, and attitudes and behaviors (Kelly and Barsade, 2001).

In the workplace, where settings are a major source of emotional triggering, AET is now frequently utilized to explain emotional reactions (Weiss and Cropanzano,1996). A shift, a change in circumstances, or a change in what one is presently experiencing are all examples of events (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996: 31). Positive or negative affective events can occur and come from a variety of sources, including the team, the organization, and the outside environment.

According to the affective events theory, people's impressions of and attitudes toward their working conditions are shaped by their emotional reactions to specific work events rather than general judgments about job features (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996b). Relying on (AET), work contexts (organisational climate) impact not only affective states (i.e., anger, anxiety, unhappiness, and tiredness) but also behavioural reactions of service employees, which emphasises organisational events as proximal causes of affective reactions (emotional labor, deep acting, surface acting) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). As a result, this study proposes that motivation and organisational climate are major predictors of lecturers' employment of various emotional labour methods, serving as a proximal cause of affective reactions, attitudes, and behaviours (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996).

The relationship between motivation, organisational climate, academician effectiveness, and emotional labour can be demonstrated by (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The AET, alongside supporting empirical findings, contends that emotions are a dynamic function of a significant event or experience (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Emotional and behavioural consequences, according to AET, are responses to workplace events. An early assessment of a workplace occurrence influences one's emotional response, influencing affective states and behaviours. As a result, motivation and organisational climate can be powerful predictors of employing various emotional labour methods, serving as a proximal source of affective reactions, perceptions, and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Employees' affective experiences about how much their organisations, bosses, and coworkers care about them have influenced their use of various emotional labour tactics.

AET also claims that lecturers' affective reactions influence how they use emotional labour. According to organizational display rules, employees must use strategies to control their emotions at work (Holliman et al., 2020). The major goal of these tactics is to change emotional displays to comply with the organization's rules (Newcomb, 2021). We expect that motivation and organisational climate (social climate and communication climate) will contribute to employee perceptions of increased job effectiveness (or lack thereof) and related affective reactions in this situation. Employees must then control their feelings through surface or deep acting to comply with organisational norms regarding emotional displays. When emotional display requirements conflict with or even contradict an employee's feelings, they must "fake" the required expression by suppressing their real emotions (e.g., anxiety, sadness, exhaustion, rage, hopelessness) and "faking" the appropriate expression (e.g., cheerfulness). This option designates surface acting (Ogunsola et al., 2020). If, on the other hand, service employees' emotions are somewhat tuned in to emotional display regulations, they may be motivated to internalise those standards.

93

They will comprehend the reasons for them and acknowledge and experience the expected emotions (Zheng et al., 2018) this response is fundamentally deep acting (Huang et al., 2015). This study, which is based on AET and SET, aims to add to the body of knowledge in academician effectiveness, particularly among lecturers, by elucidating the role of emotional labour and its impact on motivation and organisational climate.

2.13 Theoretical Framework

The Theoretical framework revealed in figure 2.6 is developed based on Social Exchange Theory and the Affective Event Theory. These theories was postulated byTumin, Mauss, Cunnison, and Evans-Pritchard (1956) and AET Weiss and Cropanzano(1996). The research framework adopted for the current research shows the connection between motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour (Surface acting SA and deep acting DA), and academician effectiveness. For this study, academician effectiveness is the dependent variable, and motivation, organisational climate are the independent variables.

This research also tested the effect of emotional labour as a mediating variable on the relationship between motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness. For the independent variable, motivation and organisational climate are chosen based on the SET theory, and the interaction is crucial in influencing the degree of staff motivation which will, in turn, have an enormous impact on the work environment of employees, which is academician effectiveness. The theory proposes that each employee is triggered or motivated, or propelled to respond to workplace

conditions that can make the employee contribute their best in terms of performance or commitment to duty which will, in turn, enhance employee effectiveness.

University academic teaching staff are expected to willingly and unconditionally give their best in their jobs. If these two conditions are satisfactorily met, there should be a conducive environment. The necessary money and resources must be available for the academic staff's winning effort. This shows that when resources are limited or short, academic staff will be at a severe disadvantage. They will not be able to achieve workplace goals and objectives; as a result, the potential for long-term consequences will result in academic staff showing symptoms of withdrawal from work and reduced motivation and commitment. As part of this study, emotional labour is selected as a mediator based on the AET theory. The choosing of the SET provides a new insight in exploring the enhancement in motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness in organisations. The AET theory explained the role of the mediating variable of emotional labour on the relationship between motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness.

Independent Variables

Mediator

Dependent Variable

Affective Event Theory

Deep Acting

H12
H13
H16

H4

H6

H2

H9

Motivation

H5

Academician

Organizational Climate

H1

Communication

H8

Social Climate

H14
H15
H17

H11

H7

H1

H3

SET Theory

Surface Acting

Emotional Labor
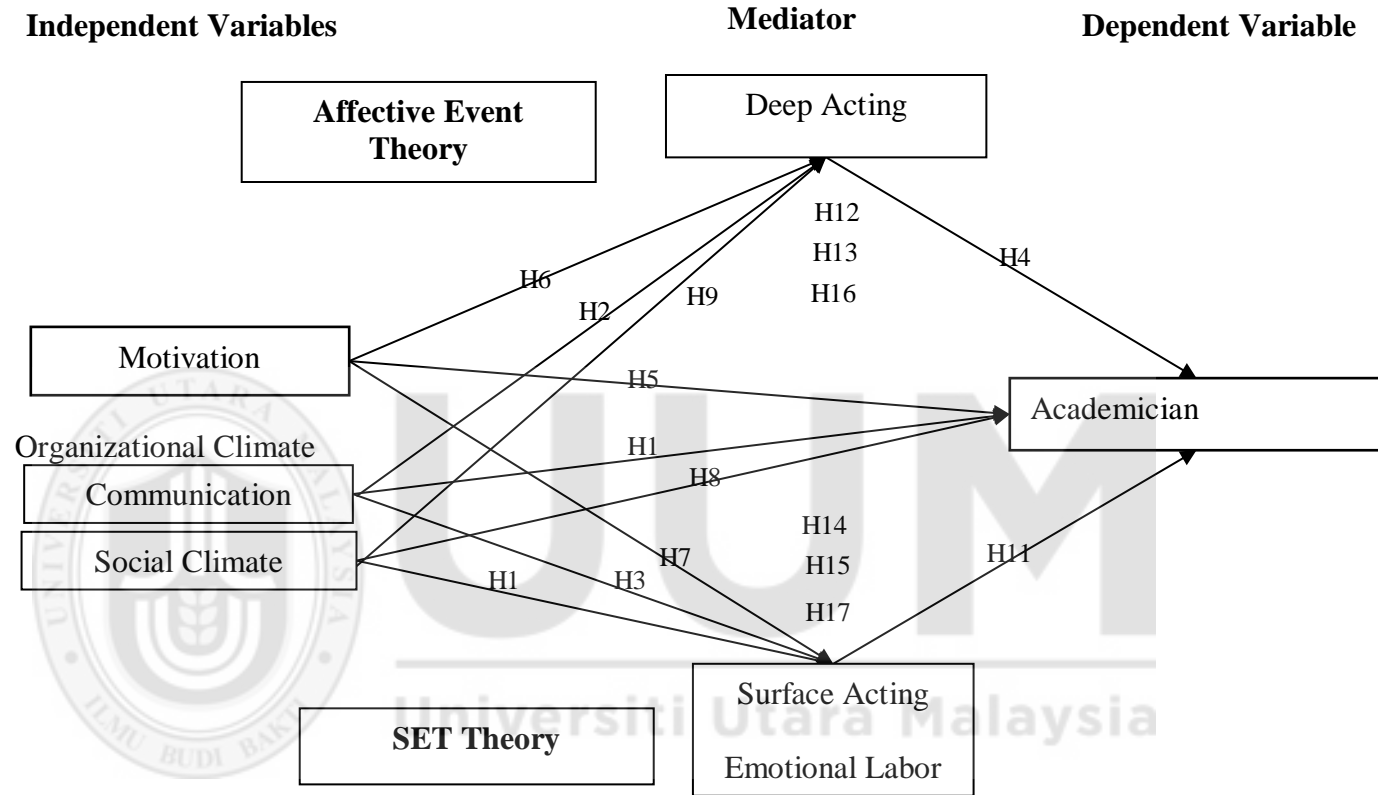
Figure 2. 1

Theoretical Framework

96

2.14 Development of Hypothesis

This study's hypothesis was established based on previous research or types of literature, and it is explained below.

Research on employees' surface and deep acting approaches has yielded mixed results. For instance, Lartey, Amponsah-Tawiah, and Osafo (2019) revealed a negative connection between surface acting and job attitudes. But it reported no significant connection for deep acting. Lee and Van Vlack's (2017) extended research on teachers' emotions, emotional labour techniques, and teachers' efficacy revealed that surface acting relates negatively to teachers' efficacy, whereas deep acting correlates positively. Lam and Chen (2012) revealed that deep acting relates negatively to job satisfaction but positively to burnout, whereas deep acting was positive to job satisfaction but negatively related to burnout. The researchers argued that incessant deep acting could have harmful consequences in the latter situation. Xin, Tong, and Yiwen (2017) showed that surface acting does not always result in burnout because the approach can be immediately abandoned. As a result, it has no bearing on the outcomes or attitudes of employees.

On the other hand, deep acting can lead to burnout due to its length. Perry and Ricciardelli (2021) claimed that when service personnel is burned out, it can harm company activity. Agreeing with this position, Brunett et al. (2014) found that emotional weariness, depersonalization, and a lack of accomplishment can cause individuals to emotionally or cognitively detach themselves from work.

Brunetto et al. (2014) linked these results to the harmful effects of surface and deep acting on employees' emotional states. Nevertheless, in Lee, Guchait, and Madera (2020) research, only deep acting was described as positive with employees' attitude to work and job satisfaction. There was no evidence of a link between surface acting and the study results. According to AET theory, SA and DA can both have a negative valence. Walsh and Bartkowski (2013b) noted that employees' organisational commitment could fluctuate dependent on emotional experiences. For instance, Grandey and Gabriel (2015) submit that both surface and deep acting suppress felt emotions. Researchers (Kidwell et al., 2011; Pillay et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2019) Employees' sense of separation from the organisation is sometimes exacerbated by repressing felt emotions for necessary organisational emotions. Brotheridge and Raymond (2003) explained that employees' sense of belonging, connectedness with colleagues, and corporate goals could be harmed by suppressing emotions. In essence, both strategies are not without their drawbacks. This study proposes the following correlations in light of the preceding and following AET and SET assumptions.

2.14.1 Relationship between Communication Climate and Academician Effectiveness

From the past studies, organisational climate has a positive relationship with academicians (Adenike, 2011; W. Fu & Satish, 2014; Hayati, & Caniago et al., 2012; Jyoti, 2013; Kaya et al., 2010; Lund, 2003a; Schyns et al., 2009; Tsai, 2014). For example, a study was conducted among fifty teachers from ten senior secondary schools. The findings demonstrated no significant link between teacher performance and organisational climate (Harvinder Kaur, 2018).

The results were also revealed in research done by Babu and Kumari (2013) when it studied the type of organisational climate prevailing for different kinds of schools among 100 academicians from Koderma District of Jharkhand. Findings showed a significant difference between teacher effectiveness concerning their organisational climate.

Another study steered to determine the connection between the lecturer's organisational climate and academician effectiveness on 600 teachers in Jalandhar, India. Results showed that organisational climate significantly predictor academician effectiveness (Kauts & Hans, 2011). A favourable organisational climate would encourage academician effectiveness (Adenike, 2011). The findings support the previous study conducted empirically on 245 managers/executives, which examined the relationship of dimensions of organisational climate with managerial effectiveness in Indian organisations. The results suggest that organisational climate dimensions significantly associated with effectiveness (Bamel et al., 2013b).

Lee, Park, and Choi (2011) showed that 662 teachers from 75 Korean elementary schools participated in a multilevel examination of communication climate and views about the effectiveness of the alternative assessment. According to the findings, an open communication climate in the classroom is critical for the successful adoption of alternative assessments. Similarly, Mark (1990) investigated 192 traditional undergraduate students and 167 non-traditional adult learners to see if the connection between teacher communication style and teacher effectiveness changed for traditional undergraduate students and non-traditional adult learners.

According to the stepwise multiple regression analysis results, different communication style characteristics predicted teacher effectiveness in the two groups of pupils. Also, Manaf, Abdullah, and Osman (2015) studied the efficiency of lecturers' instruction on the academic achievement of 300 business faculty undergraduate students among Malaysian public universities. The finding of this study has indicated that classroom communication effectiveness is significantly related to teaching effectiveness as perceived by the respondents. Brinia, Selimi, Dimos, and Kondea (2022) researched the level of satisfaction academics received from communication within their working environment, their sense of the effectiveness of the institution itself, as well as the relationship between these factors. The study was done among 296 teachers aged 25–64. According to the results, the academics showed high levels of satisfaction with the communication related to their feedback. They believed parents and the local community do not participate actively in school life. Aminu (2019) investigated the relationship between communication climate and academician effectiveness among 5322 teachers in Yobe State, Nigeria, senior secondary schools. Findings revealed a significant relationship exists between communication climate and academician effectiveness.

Accordingly, Raman, Ling, and Khalid (2015) identified the relationship between school climate and teachers' commitment among 280 teachers. Results showed that school climate has a relationship with teachers' commitment. Based on the above discussions, and in line with the theoretical assertion of motivation which shows how an excellent organisational climate can influence academician effectiveness, the subsequent hypothesis is advanced:

H1: There is a significant and positive relationship between communication climate and academician effectiveness.

2. 14.2 Relationship between Communication Climate and Deep Acting

Emotion labour has been studied by communication scholars in a range of occupations, including emergency communication call-takers Shuler and Sypher (2000), teachers Hatzinikolakis and Crossman (2010), firefighters Myers et al., (2005), and correctional officers Tracy and Trethewey (2005). Communication climate has been established to have some relationship with deep acting in the past. This is reinforced by the relationship between emotional labour aspects and interactions between individual growth and the environment. From the perspective of emotional labour, this study claims that a playful environment at the university will foster positive social interactions within the organisation, resulting in socio-emotional resource generators that will enhance lecturers' emotional regulation abilities, resulting in innovative and engaging behaviour.

Accordingly, (Zhou et al., 2019a) investigated 150 university lecturers from the perspective of their emotional labour, focusing on the effect of communication on lecturers' innovation intention and job engagement. Results indicated that a playful communication climate positively correlates with deep acting. Similarly, Alsawalqa (2020) examined associations between emotional labour, social intelligence, and narcissism (a form of communication) among physicians in governmental hospitals in Jordan. Findings revealed the significant relationship between narcissism and deep acting.

101

Also, Gülruh (2018) analyzed the relationship between emotional labor, perceived school communication climate, and emotional exhaustion. The sample included 212 primary, middle, and high school teachers in Istanbul. Results indicated that teachers' perceptions of school climate did not significantly affect emotional labor strategies. On the other hand, teachers' surface acting strategies had a positive and significant effect on emotional exhaustion but teachers' deep acting behaviors had no significant effect on emotional exhaustion. Xu, Wang, Ma, and Wang (2020) examined the effects of a three-component fun climate at work (communicating and socializing with co-workers, celebrating at work, and global fun at work) on employee deep acting among 389 employees in China. The results of this study reveal that communicating and global fun at work significantly reduces employees' work-family conflict and strengthens their deep acting.

The following postulation has been developed based on the abovementioned debate and evidence.

H2: communication is significant and positively related to deep acting

2. 14.3 Relationship between Communication Climate and Surface Acting

Employee interactions with external parties such as consumers, clients, and patients have focused on practically all emotional labour studies (Grandey, 2003b; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011b). This focus is understandable, considering that controlling emotional displays in these interactions is frequently required by the job to achieve corporate objectives (Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Grandey, 2000b).

102

On the other hand, employees don't only put on a show while interacting with outsiders. Internal members of the organisation, such as their leaders and peers, are the most typical contacts that most employees have (Grandey et al., 2007). Managing emotional responses is typical during these conversations, even if the profession does not need it. Almost two-thirds of workplace conversations at and away from the frontline have been found to suppress or fake emotional displays. According to Mann and Cowburn (2005), there is exactly as much surface acting between internal and external parties as between internal and external parties (Glasø & Einarsen, 2008). As a result, Hu and Shi (2015) extended the literature by predicting that surface acting was negatively associated with interaction partners' communication satisfaction. Employees' surface acting was influenced by a variety of emotional, relational, and behavioural outcomes. Faking with a peer was always associated with lower communicative satisfaction, whereas suppressing with a peer was not. Turning to proposed outcomes of communication climate and surface acting. Shi Xu, Martinez, and Lv, (2017) examined the link between emotional labor(surface acting) and turnover in organizational contexts in which supervisors' levels of communication are posited to affect the interactive relation between expressing genuine emotions and engaging in surface acting. This study was administered to 144 supervisors in four Chinese hotel companies. The results showed that the interactive effects of genuine emotions and surface acting on turnover intentions were strengthened when supervisors communicated with other colleagues less intimately.

However, there was no effect related to the extent to which they communicated with many colleagues.

H3: Communication climate has a significant negative relationship with Surface acting.

2. 14.4 Relationship Between Deep Acting and Academician Effectiveness

According to this theory, Humphrey (1993b) stated that employees must exert effort to generate memories, images, or thoughts to feel or suppress specific emotions at work. They will be able to feel, think, and act in organizationally desirable emotions as a result of this. (Schirmer & Adolphs, 2017). Teachers, for example, may use positive memories to counteract irritable sentiments when instructing. They would have re-defined any troubling scenario as a result of this process. According to the researchers, constant deep action can have harmful consequences (Ogunsola et al., 2020).

On the other hand, deep acting can lead to burnout due to its length. According to Garland et al. (2014), burnout among service professionals might have a negative impact on organisational activity. Prentice (2014) showed that emotional weariness, depersonalization, and a lack of accomplishment could cause employees to emotionally or cognitively detach themselves from work. These findings were related by Prentice (2014) to the harmful effects of surface and deep acting on employees' emotional states.

According to Lee (2018), only deep acting was found to be beneficial to employees' attitudes toward work and job happiness. It was thought that employees with poor energy resource levels would struggle to control their emotions, especially when deep acting. According to studies, employees are prone to spiral resource loss in most situations because the time limit for deep acting is unknown (Zapf, 2002; Buric, 2019; Walsh et al., 2019). According to Kwak et al. (2018), resource loss often makes people cynical about their jobs since it jeopardises their psychological well-being. This arouses feelings of dissatisfaction and can diminish their effectiveness inclination. Researchers agree that repressing felt emotions for necessary organisational emotions typically contributes to employees' alienation from the organisation (Kidwell et al., 2011; Pillay et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2019). Gaan (2012) investigated the impact of Emotional labour on teaching effectiveness among 140 academics. Result revealed that deep and surface acting are significantly explaining the teaching effectiveness.

On the contrary automatic and variety of display are not predicting the teaching effectiveness significantly. Asif (2018) focuses on examining the emotional labour requirements of academics and specifically on whether and how communities of coping allow academics to manage the emotional labour requirements of their teaching role among 212 academics. Findings revealed that deep acting is significantly and positively related to academician effectiveness. Employees' sense of belonging, connectedness with colleagues, and corporate goals can all be harmed by suppressing emotions, according to Brotheridge and Lee (2003). In light of the preceding and following SET assumptions, this study postulated as follows:

H4: Deep acting has a significant positive relationship with academician effectiveness.

105

2. 14.5 Relationship Between Motivation and Academician Effectiveness

Preceding research a significant association between motivation and academician effectiveness. For instance, motivation is positively associated with academician effectiveness in a study conducted among 141 lecturers in Niger state, Nigeria. Findings showed a significant connection between motivation and teaching performance (Abdulsalam & Abubakar Mawoli, 2012). Similarly, another study examined the relationship between employee empowerment, employee training, and teamwork on employee motivation on 242 academics at public universities in the northern region of Malaysia. The findings indicated that employee empowerment has a significant positive impact on employee motivation (Hanaysha & Hussain, 2018). However, motivation became negatively associated with academician effectiveness in a study involving 100 respondents composed of 48 males and 52 females' academicians. Findings of the study revealed that schools in Bubi District do not give teacher motivation top priority. (Muranda et al., 2015). Equally, Mantzicopoulos, Patrick, Strati, and Watson (2018) investigated the premise that observation measures of instruction motivation are indicators of effective teaching among 145 academics. Findings revealed a significant result between the tested constructs. Similarly, Elizabeth Obiageli, Lasbat, and Abdulrasaq Olatunji (2020) investigated the influence of motivation on teachers' effectiveness in Ilorin West Local Government Area, Kwara State. The respondents comprised 150 teachers who were simple randomly selected from 10 schools in Ilorin West. Findings revealed that teachers' effectiveness is low, and there was no significant influence of motivation on teachers' effectiveness.

The present research borrows from the (SET) Blau (1964) to better understand the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness. The theory suggests that the value of human operation involves the experiences of choices that determine individual actions and behaviour. It posits that individuals have three basic and general needs: autonomy concerning control and agency, competency, the urge to do tasks and activities, and relatedness feeling of being affiliated to others. It argued that perceptions regarding the effectiveness of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in an organisation are also important in determining academician effectiveness. Accordingly, the more an employee becomes motivated, the more likely they will be effective, and vice versa.

Based on these findings, in line with the theoretical assertion of motivation which shows how extrinsic motivation will influence a worker's academic effectiveness and the following hypothesis were proposed;

H5: There is a significant positive relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness.

2. 14.6 Relationship between Motivation and Deep Acting and Surface Acting

From the past studies, motivation has a positive relationship with emotional labour (Truta, 2014); (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005); (Shen et al., 2015). For example, in a study conducted among 243 public service workers from Florida state university, united states. Results showed that public service motivation is negatively associated with surface acting and positively associated with deep acting (Hsieh et al., 2012).

107

Similarly, Adam and Kim (2020) investigated the effect of two emotional labour strategies. A cross-sectional survey was used to investigate public service motivation (PSM) and perceived job performance (DA and SA). According to statistical research, PSM and DA both have a substantial favourable influence on perceived job performance. Also, Li and Wang (2016) examined 317 primary and middle school teachers in a relationship between teachers' public service motivation (PSM) and job satisfaction levels, as well as the mediating impacts of SA (SA) and DA (DA) on that relationship. According to the findings, PSM among Chinese instructors was strongly and positively connected to both DA and SA. Comparable results were also discovered in research that studied the connection between emotional labour and motivation. Results submit that motivation plays a role in the emotional labour process in that persons must be dedicated to displaying rules for these rules to influence behaviour (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005b).

Also, Hur, Shin, and Moon (2022) examined the relationship between motivation, emotional labor, and service performance. Data was collected in three waves from 282 hotel employees and 21 general managers over 15 months. As predicted, autonomous motivation was positively related to deep acting and negatively related to surface acting one year later. Shin and Hur (2020) did research that focused on 435 service employees in China. Findings showed that service employees' perceptions of their organizations' social responsibility activities would encourage them to become prosocially motivated, leading them to engage more in deep acting and less in surface acting, eventually resulting in superior service performance.

108

Lastly, Ertas (2019) uses original survey data from over 400 volunteer managers to examine relationships between turnover intention and work motivation factors, person-organization fit (P-O fit), and emotional labor. Results emphasize a lack of advancement opportunities as the primary driver of turnover, and P-O fit as a main factor for retention. In addition, the ability to regulate emotions resulted in reduced quit intentions.

Based on the above discussions, and in line with the theoretical assertion of motivation which shows how motivation can influence emotional labour, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: There is a significant and positive relationship between motivation and deep acting.

H7: There is a significant and positive relationship between motivation and surface acting.

2. 14.7 Relationship between Social Climate and Academician Effectiveness

Tim et al. (2011) used students' interpersonal impressions of their teachers to explore the stability of classroom social climates during the initial months of the school year, as well as the divergence of individual classes (N = 48) and students (N=1208). Results showed that the relationship between social climate and teacher effectiveness was significant. Also, Garba, Barde, and Gishiwa (2018) studied 359 students, including 18 school administrators and 341 teachers, who evaluated the impact of social school atmosphere on teacher effectiveness.

109

According to the findings of this study, there is a moderate association between social school atmosphere and teacher effectiveness. Similarly, Ebrahimi, Pourshahriar, and Shokri (2015) studied 12 schools to use a social-emotional classroom climate optimization package. The analysis of covariance and multiple analysis of hierarchical linear regression revealed that the social-emotional classroom environment optimization package substantially impacted several aspects of classroom climate between control and experiment classes and teacher factors. Aminullah, Mohd Isa, and Noor (2022) examined factors that predict academician effectiveness in terms of the organization's motivation, and social and communication climates through a PLS-SEM technique. The participants of the study were 233 university lecturers and 1665 students. Results indicated that motivation, social climate, and communication climate were good predictors of academician effectiveness.

Similarly, Bamel, Rangnekar, Stokes, and Rastogi (2013) empirically examined the relationship of dimensions of organizational climate with managerial effectiveness in Indian organizations. A data set of 245 managers/executives was collected from Indian organizations and findings revealed that organizational climate dimensions, i.e., role clarity and communication play a significant role in increasing effectiveness. In the same vein, Mani (2018) sought to find out the significant impact of organizational climate on academic, professional and social dimensions of teacher effectiveness of secondary schools. The sample was among 504 teachers of secondary schools. Result showed that there is there is significant impact of organizational climate on academic, professional and social dimensions of teacher effectiveness of secondary schools.

Therefore, the following proposition is developed:

H8: There is a significant and positive relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness.

2. 14.8 Relationship between Social Climate and Deep Acting

According to AET, the work environment (e.g., organisational support) influences not just one's affective states but also affect-driven behavioural behaviours (e.g., emotion regulation strategies). As a result, we hypothesized that the workplace environment could significantly predict emotional labour. The psychosocial milieu in which teachers work is sometimes called the school climate. The school climate is a multi-faceted construct that incorporates teachers' impressions of collegiality, students' motivation and behaviour, school resources and creativity, and decision-making authority. According to SET, employees will feel obligated to repay the organisation if they believe the organisation values their contributions and well-being and gives timely and suitable help whenever needed.

Similarly, instructors who believe their schools have high-quality climates may dedicate more cognitive, emotional, and behavioural resources to their work to help the school achieve its objectives while also attempting to experience the prescribed emotions. In other words, these teachers have a penchant for deep acting and regulating their inner feelings following the school's presentation guidelines. On the other hand, teachers who perceive an unfavourable school climate may not feel obligated to reimburse the school.

111

These teachers are less likely to participate in school-related activities and put less effort into expressing the expected emotions; in other words, they tend to conduct surface acting without controlling their inner feelings. Yao, Yao, Zong, Li, Guo, et al. (2015) studied the quality of teachers' emotional labor among 703 high school teachers in Mainland China. According to the findings, teachers' assessments of the school social atmosphere had a negative impact on surface acting but a favourable impact on deep acting. Surface acting favored emotional weariness, while deep acting did not influence emotional exhaustion. Hussainy (2020) analyzed the relationship between emotional labor, perceived school climate, and emotional exhaustion. The sample included 212 primary, middle and high school teachers in Istanbul. Results indicated that the school social climate negatively affected Turkish school teachers' emotional exhaustion. In contrast, teachers' perceptions of school social climate did not significantly affect emotional labor strategies. Going forward, Shengtao Xu, Wang, Ma, and Wang (2020b) examined the effects of employee social climate on employee deep acting among a total of 389 employees in China. This study's results reveal that social climate enhances and strengthens their deep acting at work. Hence, the following:

H9: Social Climate is significantly and deeply associated with deep acting.

2. 14.9 Relationship between Social Climate and Surface Acting

Employees with supportive social interactions are less likely to feel work-related stress because they have coping skills to deal with the discomfort associated with surface acting (Wharton, 2016).

112

As a result of these supportive social interactions, salespeople can internalise emotions once they understand how they fit within their culture and display standards. Prior research has also found that when there is support in the organisation and among its members, salespeople are more likely to experience several elements of commitment, such as dedication to the organisation (Fu et al., 2009). If the salesman works in a favourable setting with social support, they are more likely to feel committed to the company because of social alignment. As a result of this internalisation process, salespeople are less likely to feel the discomfort and tension caused by unsuccessful surface acting, which reduces the need for emotional suppression and increases commitment.

While social support should theoretically boost a salesperson's organisational commitment, this stronger relationship with the organisation is more likely to happen due to less emotional suppression. Those who have difficulty internalising the emotions shown during surface acting are less likely to remain committed to the sales position (Schaefer & Pettijohn, 2006), presenting social support as a technique for reducing the negative impact of surface acting on the organisation. Social support can help others internalise their feelings, which can help avoid the harmful effects of suppressing emotions on organisational commitment. Gülruh (2018a) analyzed the relationship between emotional labor, perceived school climate, and emotional exhaustion among 212 primary, middle and high school teachers in Istanbul. Results indicated that Turkish school teachers' school social climate exhaustion was positively affected by surface acting.

Also, Çakar, Özyer, and Azizoğlu (2022) examined the impact of organizational climate on burnout in accommodation establishments for 19 five-star accommodation establishments operating in antalya, Turkey. Findings revealed that organizational climate predicted emotional labour. In light of the previous, and following the principles of SET theory, this research hypothesised the following:

H10: Social climate is negatively associated with surface acting.

2. 14.10 Relationship between Surface Acting and Academician Effectiveness

From past studies, emotional labour has a positive relationship with academician effectiveness (Dhanpat, 2016; Gaan, 2012b; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006b; Kim, 2019; Kinman et al., 2011; Kwok, 2011; Loh & Liew, 2016; Park et al., 2016; Wang, 2011; Yin, 2015c; Yin et al., 2017; Zeng, 2017). For example, Gaan (2012b) investigated the impact of Emotional Labour on teaching effectiveness. Emotional labour was found to have a major impact on teaching effectiveness. A representative poll of 133 university college professors found similar results in Taiwan. The results showed a link between emotional labour strategy surface acting and teaching effectiveness in general; nevertheless, active deep acting and passive deep acting benefit teaching effectiveness. It means that the teachers put in a sufficient amount of emotional effort. A strong sense of professional self-identity is also required to exploit the potential of emotional labour for boosting teaching efficacy (Zheng, 2017a). Othman et al. (2011) justified that emotional intelligence is vital in professional service in supporting people to reach high levels of work performance in five areas: job role, career role, innovator role, team role, and organisation role.

Emotional labour has a minor impact in a service shop but is becoming increasingly significant. Emotional labour does not contribute much to high work effectiveness in mass service, but it does play an important role in promising work effectiveness. As a result, the impact of emotional intelligence and emotional labour on service quality varies depending on the type of service provider.

Gaan (2012a) investigated the effects of emotional labour on teaching effectiveness were studied in 491 academics from Indian higher education institutions. Deep and surface acting were major factors in explaining educational success. Automatic and varied presentation, on the other hand, does not significantly predict teaching effectiveness. Han, Yin, Yang, and Wang (2021) examined the relationships between university teachers' reported use of various emotional labor strategies (surface acting) among a sample of 643 university teachers from 50 public higher education institutions in East China. Findings showed that surface acting impeded teaching effectiveness in instructional strategy and learning assessment. In the same vein, Zheng, Yin, and Wang (2018) explored the relationships between leadership practices, emotional labour and teacher effectiveness among 1026 teachers from 3 provinces in China. The results show that surface acting and expression of natural felt emotion significantly affects teaching effectiveness.

Based on the above discussions, and in line with the theoretical assertion of SET, which shows how emotional labour can influence academician effectiveness, the following hypothesis, therefore, is proposed:

H11: There is a negative relationship between surface acting and academician effectiveness.

2.15 Hypothesising the Mediator relationships of Emotional labour

One of the main objectives of this research is to shed insight into the mediating role of emotional labour. The study focused on this notion because previous studies in the service industry suggest that good face-to-face interactions with consumers necessitate workers managing their emotions, i.e., sensing the required emotions and determining a suitable reaction (Newman et al., 2009). Workers are said to be performing emotional labour in the service industry when they try to adjust or regulate their emotions to meet the organization's standards. When employees adjust or regulate their feelings, it suits organisational requirements congruent with emotional expression rules (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993; Grandey 2000; Hochschild 1983). As a result, employees who keep to emotional organisational requirements look like they follow rules. As previously stated, emotional labour processes entail two emotion management strategies: surface acting (SA) and deep acting (DA) (Grandey 2000; Hochschild 1983).

An employee might, for example, act helpful when dealing with obnoxious customers. As part of studying the role emotional Labour played in transforming tertiary education in which academics are seen as the provider of services, the relationship between emotional labour and lecturer effectiveness and both DA and surface components of emotional labour played mediating roles in the tested relationships (Alemdar & Anılan, 2021).

A study was conducted to reveal the impact of emotional labour in the higher education sector, mainly concentrating on 280 lecturers of private universities. The result exhibited that emotional labour significantly influenced lectures of private universities (Krishnan & Kasinathan, 2017). Studies have identified a positive relationship between motivation and emotional labour (Mitchell, 2016; Nordhall & Knez, 2018; Roh, Moon, Yang, & Jung, 2016; Truta, 2014), and they confirmed motivation as an antecedent of emotional labour alongside organizational demands. The literature further affirms that the motivational bases of teachers' engagement in emotion regulation are pertinent in a study conducted among 118 Romanian teachers. Results showed that emotional labour was mediating among the tested relationships (Truta, 2014a).

Also, Wu, Shie, and Gordon (2017) examined whether the frontline employees' emotional labour can illustrate the relationship between customer orientation (CO) and turnover intention among a sample of 378 frontline employees in the hospitality industry. Findings showed that the three dimensions of emotional labour are all partially mediated with the relationship between CO and turnover intention. de Vries, Verkes, and Bulten (2022) examined a useful framework for studying the relationship between emotionally demanding work and well-being of 131 health-care staff. among staff members working in high secure forensic psychiatric care (n = 131) emotional labour (surface acting) was found to mediate the relationship between emotional demands and emotional exhaustion partly.

117

Tsang, Li, Wang, Wang, and Wu (2022) examined how teaching experience and emotional labor are associated with teacher burnout by surveying 417 teachers in China. Results showed that (emotional labour) surface acting and the expression of naturally felt emotions mediate the relationship between teacher burnout and teaching experiences, respectively. Going forward, Tsang et al., (2022) examined how teaching experience and emotional labor are associated with teacher burnout among 417 teachers in China. The result showed that (emotional labour) surface acting and the expression of naturally felt emotions mediate the relationship between teacher burnout and teaching experiences, respectively.

Sciotto and Pace (2022) investigated the mediating role of surface acting (a strategy of dealing with emotional dissonance) in the relationship between two typical job stressors (workload and mental load) and two outcomes closely related to work-related well-being: employees' general health and the need for recovery. The results of the multi-group analysis of front-office (N = 734) and back-office (N = 436) Italian workers showed that surface acting fully mediates the relationship between workload and general health among back-office workers. Chehab, Ilkhanizadeh, and Bouzari (2021) examined the impact of job standardisation on emotional labour, as well as the effect of emotional labour on emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction of frontline employees in the hospitality sector. The results showed emotional labour mediated the relation between job standardisation and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Gou, Ma, Wang, Wen, and Zhang (2021) elaborated on how workplace ostracism influences turnover intention by exploring the sequential mediation effects of emotional labour and nurse-patient relationship among 379 nurses in a tertiary public hospital in China.

118

Findings revealed that workplace ostracism positively influenced turnover intention through the sequential mediation of surface acting and nurse-patient relationship.

Another study attempted to conform to an integrative emotional labour process model by examining the influence of emotional labour and emotional exhaustion on academician effectiveness. This was among 221 academics in South Korea. Findings suggest that emotional labour predicts academician effectiveness and organisational commitment, while emotional exhaustion only predicts academician effectiveness (Cho et al., 2013b). A cross-sectional and descriptive study examined 283 call center employees in South Korea. Findings revealed that surface-acting components of emotional labour mediated the examined constructs (Park et al., 2019).

In the school environment context, research was conducted to analyse the mediating role of emotional labour on the connection between perceived school climate and emotional exhaustion among 212 middle and high school teachers in Istanbul, Turkey. Results indicated that teachers' SA approaches had a positive and significant effect on emotional exhaustion, but teachers' DA behaviours had no significant impact on emotional exhaustion (Gülruh Gürbüz et al., 2018). In a similar study, emotional labour components of SA and DA were tested as mediators among 703 primary and high school teachers in Mainland China. Results showed that SA positively predicted emotional exhaustion, and DA had no significant effect on emotional exhaustion (Yao, Yao, Zong, Li, Li, et al., 2015a).

The mediation role of emotional labour on the connection between service employee motivation orientation and creativity was examined among 304 frontline employees and 72 supervisors in 51 restaurants. Findings revealed that SA mediated the impact of prevention focus on frontline employee creativity (Geng, Li, Bi, Zheng, & Yang, 2018). Another study was conducted among 220 public service workers in Thailand to examine the emotional labour of different gender groups during service transactions. Findings showed that DA and SA elements of emotional labour produced mixed results (Potipiroon et al., 2019b). However, there is currently a scarcity of empirical research on the role of emotional labour in mediating motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness. This study aims to present the following hypothesis based on this scarcity and previous arguments:

H 12: DA mediates the relationship between communication climate and academician effectiveness.

H 13: DA mediates the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness.

H 14: SA mediates the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness.

H 15: Surface acting mediates the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness.

H 16: DA mediates the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness.

120

H 17: SA mediates the relationship between communication and academician effectiveness.

2.16 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature on academician effectiveness, motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour, and university reputation. Prior researches on the mediating effects of emotional labour were discussed. The study framework and the research hypothesis tested were also considered. Emotional labour was introduced to predict if the relationship between motivation, organizational climate, and academician can be measured directly or through the mediating variable of emotional labour. Chapter 3 describes the method utilised to realize the study's purposes.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focused on the research design of this study. This includes location, time, units of analysis, and sample technique and size to be adopted. Also, is population, the sample size of the respondents, sampling technique, instrument for retrieving data, scales, and sources. Next was the methods and techniques employed for data screening and analysis and the steps involved.

3.1 Research Design

A quantitative research design was utilised to allow for the examination of connections among variables. Creswell and Tashakkori (2008) and Gelo, Braakmann, and Benetka (2009) emphasised that it will also help to accurately assess if one concept is superior to other options while also being able to answer basic questions about the link between measured variables to explain, forecast, and regulate events and situations. This is congruent with Conrad, Serlin, and Harwell (2014). The most appropriate choice is the quantitative research approach since it permits statistical tools to assess the link between different factors. It also conforms to the primary goal of the current research, which investigated the direct relationship between motivation, academician effectiveness, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness. Also, it studied the mediating effect of emotional labour.

This research was anticipated to improve our comprehension of the connection of motivation, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness with emotional labour as the mediator. The findings of this study will provide information on how to improve academic staff effectiveness by leveraging motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour. According to Creswell (2014), the quantitative method is more suited to research to identify factors that influence the outcome or the value of an intervention that may shape an outcome. As a result, considering the nature of the investigation, a quantitative method was chosen appropriately. Second, it enables the researcher to research large samples, which may be distributed across all of the study's respondents. Finally, the research design adequately describes the distribution of survey instruments to respondents.

As Saunders et al. (2009) indicated, retrieving data for a phenomenon of interest in finding patterns and underlying links is referred to as positivist philosophy. Existing theories are used to construct hypotheses for testing, which are then tested and confirmed or disproved, in whole or in part, to improve one's understanding of the theory or phenomenon of interest (Creswell, 2014; Saunders, & Lewis, 2012). Because this study involves testing hypotheses based on existing ideas, it was primarily directed by the positivist philosophy. This current research used the necessary data analysis to discover the underlying correlations among numerous constructs. There are significant correlations between the variables of motivation, organizational climate, and academician effectiveness in prior studies (Abdulsalam & Abubakar Mawoli, 2012; Adenike, 2011; Fu & Satish, 2014; Hanaysha & Hussain, 2018; Hayati, & Caniago et al., 2012).

123

They were evaluated in the current research, precisely on whether the postulations made by SET and the AET theories still hold for the effect of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness with emotional labour as the mediator.

This study uses a deductive reasoning approach (Saunder & Lewis, 2012). It usually entails forming hypotheses, collecting data with instruments, analysing the data, and eventually deciding whether to support or reject the given hypotheses based on the findings. This research focused on evaluating and expanding the applicability of theories, precisely the SET and AET theories, based on the assumptions given (Section 2.15). Second, this research entailed data gathering, analysis, and hypothesis testing. As a result, these study components met the deductive reasoning approach's standards.

The unit of analysis in this study is the individual (the academic staff and students from the proposed thirteen public universities of northern western Nigeria). The distribution of questionnaires was used to obtain primary data. Furthermore, this research was conducted in the organization's natural environment, with minimal researcher influence. Matusov (2007) stated that the unit of analysis is critical in articulating and addressing methodological concerns. The results of statistical analysis, such as sampling, independence, and other associated features of the study, could be influenced by the wrong unit of analysis. Academic staff is chosen based on the study's objectives. Hair and Sarstedt (2014) and Zikmund (1984) agreed that researching in a natural setting aid in creating a situation with high external validity, resulting in more resilient, relevant, and thorough findings.

Also, the current research uses a cross-sectional approach. This helped investigate the link between motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour, and academician effectiveness. As a result, the duration was six months (March, 2020-August, 2020). This approach offers a snapshot of the variables' associations at a specific time (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). As mentioned by García-Peña et al. (2015), The fundamental benefit of a cross-sectional study is that it is generally easier, faster, and less expensive to carry out. Still, it does not give enough data to demonstrate a causal association between the variables (MacCallum & Austin, 2000).

3.3 Population

This study focused on lecturers and students in public universities located in north-western Nigeria. The universities involved in this study are selected mainly because Nigerian public universities are at the forefront of realizing the national economic development blueprint Nigerian Vision 20:2020 and therefore considered as the stronghold of intellectual ideas for the realization of the transition into a developed and dependent nation (Mustafa, 2020).

Relying on data obtained from the Nigerian universities commission, 13 public universities are located in the northwestern part of Nigeria. The north-western universities are chosen because of their low ranking in the NUC's latest ranking for 2020 (Nigerian University Commission, 2020). The only university from the northwestern part of the country that made the first ten was Ahmadu Bello University. Others ranked at the bottom level of the latest ranking. Secondly, they were chosen based on a time constraint and lack of enough financial resources to survey all the universities in Nigeria.

Therefore, limiting the focus of the current study to the north-central part of Nigeria makes it easier for the survey to be completed within the time limit and use the resources available efficiently (see Table 3.1).

Table 3. 1

Distribution of 13 Public Universities and numbers of academic staff in North-Western   Nigeria

Name of Institution	Location	Population (Staff)	Population (Students)
Federal University Dutse	Jigawa	484	5773
Sule Lamido University	Kafin Hausa	202	3159
Ahmadu Bello University	Zaria	3076	52569
Kaduna State University	Kaduna	519	17372
Bayero University	Kano	1772	42772
Yusuf Maitama Sule University	Kano	395	6625
Federal University Dustin-Ma	Katsina	482	5522
Umar Yar'Adua University	Katsina	522	9762
Federal University Birnin Kebbi	Kebbi	372	2006
Kebbi State University of Science and Technology	Aliero	418	5795
Usman Dan Fodio University	Sokoto	1174	24380
Sokoto State University	Sokoto	298	7352
Federal University Gusau	Zamfara	280	4489
Grand Total		**9994**	**187576**

Source: (Nigerian Universities Commission, 2020).

3.4 Sample Size Analysis

Calculated and appropriate sample size is still required to lower the total rate of sample errors. Subsequently, the Krejcie and Morgan (1970b) sample size determination standards were improved for this study for absorbing the level of confidence and precision for ensuring that sampling size error is drastically minimised.

126

Researchers have agreed that the larger a study's sample size, the more powerful its statistical test will be (Borenstein, Cohen, Rothstein, Pollack, & Kane, 1992; Kelley & Maxwell, 2003; Snijders, 2014). For a population of 3951 teams (9994 lecturers and 187576 students), 351 was the minimum sample size used. (*The 3951 teams were derived following consultations and meetings with faculty officers, programme coordinators, and heads of departments from the universities involved in the study. For example, for the Federal University of Dutse, the total population recommended after meeting with faculty officers, programme coordinators, and heads of departments and based on the total population of students and lecturers of 484 and 5773 was 216.*). (See Table 3.2). Furthermore, the sample size of the present study complied with the rule of thumb by Roscoe (1975), who stated that most research sample sizes bigger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate. Secondly, in a multivariate analysis, the sample size should be several times (preferably 10 or more times) as large as the number of variables, and the required sample size should be 60 or more.

Therefore, 351 is adequate based on the rule of thumb. Response rates in Nigeria from previous studies among academicians and students reported response rates of 56.7%, 86.6%, 60.4%, 53.1%, and 66.2% (Akosile & Olatokun, 2019; Kura et al., 2014; Orugun et al., 2019; Yushau & Nannim, 2020; Zaid & Alabi, 2020). This study takes the average of these responses, which is 65%. Therefore, to get a 65 percent response rate, the sample size x 1.53 (100% / 65%).

A total of 537 respondents was calculated and arrived at. This was obtained by multiplying 537 (351x1.53) based on the majority of response rates by previous scholars. Hence, the number of distributed teams was 537 (351 x 1.53). To ensure 537 responses, 2685 matched lecturer-student paired questionnaires were distributed.

3.5 Purposive Sampling Technique

The sampling technique used in this study was purposive sampling. A purposive sample is a non-probability sample chosen based on demographic characteristics and the study's goal. When you need to reach a specified sample rapidly, and proportionality isn't the primary issue, this sort of sampling can be highly effective. Sekaran (2003) claimed that sampling is more efficient because the study's research purpose requires a particular target group of respondents. Responses from specified respondents (lecturers and students) were required for this study.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

Based on the peculiar nature of this research, which evaluated academicians' effectiveness from a student perspective, 5 students evaluated 1 academic. The universities under study acknowledge the complexity of this type of investigation and advise that the best way to achieve the evaluation is to segment the students and lecturers into teams based on each university's internal criteria. Therefore, a total of 3951 teams were derived from 9994 lecturers and 187576 students. The 3951 teams were derived following consultations and meetings with faculty officers, programme coordinators, and heads of departments from the universities involved in the study.

128

For example, for the Federal University of Dutse, the total population recommended after meeting with faculty officers, programme coordinators, and heads of departments and based on the total population of students and lecturers of 484 and 5773 was 216.

To achieve the sample size and number of distributed teams for The Federal University of Dutse, (216/3961x351) = 19. To obtain the distributed team for the university, (19/351x 537) = 29. Afterward, 29 was multiplied by 5 to obtain 145, the final number of distributed questionnaires shared among students and academics in the university under study. For example, 145 paired questionnaires (29/537 x 2685) were distributed to Federal University Dutse, Jigawa State. The summaries of the population, sample size, and questionnaire to be distributed are shown in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3. 2

Distribution of Public Universities and numbers of academic staff in North-Western Nigeria

Name of Institution	Population of Teams (Lecturers and Students)	Sample Size	Number Distributed (Teams)	Questionnaires Distributed (Paired)
Federal University Dutse	216	19	29	145(29X5)
Sule Lamido University	84	7	12	60(12X5)
Ahmadu Bello University	1262	112	172	860(172X5)
Kaduna State University	231	21	31	155(31X5)
Bayero University	704	63	96	480(96X5)
Yusuf Maitama Sule University	143	13	19	95(19X5)
Federal University Dutsin-Ma	54	5	7	35(7X5)
Umar Yar'Adua University	240	21	33	165(33X5)
Federal University Birnin Kebbi	140	12	19	95(19X5)
Kebbi State University of Science and Technology	110	10	15	75(15X5)
Usman Dan Fodio University	540	48	73	365(73X5)
Sokoto State University	91	8	12	60(12X5)
Federal University Gusau	136	12	19	95(19X5)
Grand Total	**3951**	**351**	**537 (351 X 1.53)**	**2685 (537X5)**

Source: (Nigerian Universities Commission, 2020).

130

3.7 Measurements and Instruments

This section discusses the measures and instruments used in this thesis and describes how the constructs employed in the study were operationalized. The dependent variable (DV) was discussed first, followed by the independent variable (IV), and finally, the mediating variable (MV).

3.7.1 Operational Definition and Measurement of Academician Effectiveness

Academician effectiveness was operationalized "as lecturing that creates an environment in which deep learning outcomes for students are made possible, where high-quality student learning is promoted and where superficial approaches to learning are discouraged" (Beran & Violato, 2005). In measuring academician effectiveness, the dyads aggregation method of data collection was employed to attain student ratings of their lecturer, and the Universal Students Ratings of Instruction instrument (USRD was administered (Beran & Violato, 2005). It contains 12 items based on measures used in research (Marsh & Roche, 1993). The Alpha coefficient of the 12 items was .92, indicating that the scale is internally consistent.

In previous studies, the instrument was described as adequate to internal consistency, with Cronbach alphas ranging from .90 to .96 (Demir et al., 2019). The wordings were changed and rephrased for the 12 items used in this study, from shortening words to the full declaration. Furthermore, changes were made to the use of words like supervision, and organisation which were altered to suit the academic context of this study. Considering the seven-point scale, 1 = strongly agree, 7= strongly disagree. (Table 3.3).

131

Table 3. 3
Original and adapted versions of Academician Effectiveness (12) items.

Original Version (Beran & Violato, 2005)	Adapted Version
The overall quality of instruction.	The academician's quality of instruction is very effective overall.
Student's questions and comments were responded to appropriately.	The academicians respond to students' questions and comment appropriately.
The course content was communicated with enthusiasm.	There is enthusiasm in the way the academician communicates the course contents.
Students were treated respectfully.	Students are treated respectfully by academics in my school.
Opportunities for course assistance were available.	Course assistance is readily made available by academics to students.
The course outline or other descriptive information provided enough detail about the course.	Descriptive information, course outline, and other aids to teaching are detailed enough for the course.
The course, as delivered followed the outline and other course descriptive information.	The delivered of course follows the outline and other courses descriptive information.
The course material was presented in a well-organized manner.	The course content follows the outline and other course descriptive information.
The evaluation methods used for determining the course grade were fair.	The presentation of course material was is in a well-organised manner.
Student's work was graded in a reasonable amount of time.	The grading of student's work was done within a reasonable amount of time.
I learnt a lot in this course.	The academician's course added to my knowledge in the area of study.

The support materials used in this course helped me to learn.	The support materials provided by the academician enhanced my learning experience.

Each participant was asked to rate their level of agreement with each academician effectiveness statement on a seven-point scale, with 1 indicating strongly agree and 7 indicating strongly disagree. As a result, respondents expressed their level of agreement with the claims about academician effectiveness. Academician effectiveness items utilised in the study are listed in Table 3.4.

Table 3. 4
Academician Effectiveness items

Variables	Definitions	Items (12)	Authors
Academician Effectiveness	Defined as lecturing that creates an environment in which deep learning outcomes for students are made possible, where high-quality student learning is promoted and where superficial approaches to learning are discouraged.	The academician's quality of instruction is very effective overall. The academicians respond to students' questions and comment appropriately There is enthusiasm in the way the academician communicates the course contents. Students are treated respectfully by academics in my school. Course assistance is readily made available by academics to students. Descriptive information, course outline, and other	(Beran & Violato, 2005)

	aids to teaching are detailed enough for the course.
	The course content follows the outline and other course descriptive information.
Table 3.4 Continued	The presentation of course material was is in a well-organised manner.
	The course academician used a fair grading system to evaluate the course.
	The grading of student's work was done within a reasonable amount of time.
	The academician's course added to my knowledge in the area of study.
	The support materials provided by the academician enhanced my learning experience.

3.7.2 Operational Definition and Measurements of Motivation Measures

In this study, motivation is operationalised as "an art with a purpose to get individuals to work willingly and influence them to behave in a certain manner to accomplish their tasks" (Kovach, 1995). In measuring motivation, an abridged version of the motivation instrument was developed by (Kovach, 1995) and cited by (Curtis et al., 2009), with 12 items each used to measure motivation. The measure has an adequate internal

134

consistency of 0.920. Considering the seven-point scale, 1 = strongly agree, 7= strongly disagree. Respondents, therefore, indicated a level of agreement with the motivation statements. The wordings for the 12 items utilised in this study were altered and rewritten to go from shortening words to a full declaration. Furthermore, changes were made on words like absorbing, project, tackling, self-expression, abilities, and grades/awards, which were changed to highly engaging, assignments, opinion, solving, competence, promotion, and salary to suit the academic context of this study. (Tables 3.5 and 3.6).

Table 3. 5
Original and adapted versions of Motivation (12) items.

Original Version (Kovach, 1995)	Adapted Version
Good working conditions	The working conditions in my institution is conducive.
Job Security.	There is job security in my institution.
Management/Supervisor's loyalty to employee.	In my institution, the management/ supervisor is loyal to their employees.
Gratitude for a job well done	My employer's rewards a good job and expresses gratitude.
Good wages.	The wages in my institution is commensurate with the work done.
Promotion or career development.	In my institution, promotion is given as at when due.
Interesting of work.	I enjoy the work I do in my organization.
A feeling of being involved.	I feel fulfilled working in my institution.
Tactful discipline	My institution allows me to be self-supervising when carrying out my job.
Monetary incentives for a job well done.	My institution gives monetary reward for a job well done.

135

Supervisors help with personal problem.	My supervisors offer a helping hand in solving personal problems.
Public celebration for a job well done.	In my institution, a job well done is publicly acknowledged.

Table 3. 6

Operational Definition and Measurement of Motivation (12) Items

Variables	Operational Definition	Items	Author
Motivation	Is defined motivation as an art with a purpose to get individuals to work willingly and influencing them to behave in a certain manner to accomplish their tasks.	The working conditions in my institution is conducive. There is job security in my institution. In my institution, the management/ supervisor is loyal to their employees. My employer's rewards a good job and expresses gratitude. The wages in my institution is commensurate with the work done. In my institution, promotion is given as at when due. I enjoy the work I do in my organization. I feel fulfilled working in my institution. My institution allows me to be self-supervising	(Kovach, 1995)

137

Table 3.6 Continued

	when carrying out my job.
	My institution gives monetary reward for a job well done.
	My supervisors offer a helping hand in solving personal problems.
	In my institution, a job well done is publicly acknowledged.

3.7.3 Operational Definition and Measurements of Organizational Climate Measures

Organisational climate is operationalised as an employee's perception of a working environment, which comprises characteristics like responsibilities, organization structure, risk management, reward system, support, warranty, conflict, standards, and identity in the organisation (Vartia, 1996a). Organisational climate consists of both communication climate and social climate involving eight items. respectively (Vartia, 1996a). They had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83 and 0.81. Minor modifications were made to the original organisational climate items, such as making amendments and changes where appropriate.

Furthermore, changes will be made to the use of words like organisation, innovation, employees, work unit, and individual to university, department, and staff.

138

The original and adapted varieties of the 8 items are shown in Tables 3.7 and 3.8.

Considering the seven-point scale, 1 = strongly agree, 7= strongly disagree.

Respondents, therefore, indicated a level of agreement with the organisational climate

statements.

Table 3. 7
Original and adapted versions of Organizational climate (8) items.

Original Version (Vartia, 1996b). **Communication Climate**	Adapted Version
Everybody is listened to at my workplace.	In Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution
Problems at work and differences of opinion are discussed openly.	There is competition among work mates in my institution.
Everybody has the courage to express his/her opinion.	Evidence of unhealthy rivalry and grouping can be noticed among the staff in my institution.
Independence is appreciated, and encouraged Personal differences are accepted.	In Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution
Personal differences are accepted.	There is competition among work mates in my institution.

Table 3.7 Continued

Social Climate	
There is envy at my workplace	In Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution
Workmates compete with each other.	There is competition among work mates in my institution.
There are cliques and underestimation of others at my workplace.	Evidence of unhealthy rivalry and grouping can be noticed among the staff in my institution.

140

Table 3. 8

Operational Definition and Measurement of Organizational Climate (8) Items

Variable	Operational Definition	Items	Author
Organizational Climate	Is defined as a is referred to an employee's perception of a working environment, which comprises characteristics like responsibilities, the structure of organization, risk management, reward system, support, warranty, conflict, standards, and identity in the organisation. Climate is described as practices in communication such as leadership, rewards, and conflict.	In my institution, everybody has a say and they are listened to. In my institution, there is a free flow of opinion in solving problems. Independence of opinion and thoughts are encouraged in my institution. Personal views and thoughts are accepted and encouraged in my institution. Differences of opinion is accepted in my institution. Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution	(Vartia, 1996b).
		There is competition among work mates in my institution. Evidence of unhealthy rivalry and grouping can be noticed among the staff in my institution.	

3.7.4 Operational Definition and Measurements of Emotional Labor Measures

Emotional labour refers to "the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion to perform the job efficiently and effectively" (de Castro, Curbow, Agnew, Haythornthwaite, & Fitzgerald, 2006). This study measured emotional labor by surface acting (SA) and deep acting (DA). SA is operationalised as employees modifying their observable expressions to meet display rules (de Castro, Curbow, Agnew, Haythornthwaite, & Fitzgerald, 2006). In measuring emotional labour (surface acting), an abridged version of the emotional labour instrument developed by (de Castro, Curbow, Agnew, Haythornthwaite, & Fitzgerald, 2006) with five items was used to measure emotional labour. The instrument has an adequate internal consistency of 0.61 and.71, respectively. Considering the seven-point scale, 1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree. As a result, respondents indicated how much they agreed with the emotional labour claims. The wordings for the 9 items utilised in this study were altered and rewritten to go from shortening words to a full declaration. Furthermore, changes were made on words like absorbing, project, tackling, self-expression, abilities, and grades/awards, which were changed to highly engaging, assignments, opinion, solving, competence, promotion, and salary to suit the academic context of this study.

The second component of emotional labour is DA. DA is operationalised to regulate the inner emotions to match required expression, resulting in resource gains such as personal accomplishment (de Castro et al., 2006). DA is measured by 4 items developed by (de Castro et al., 2006).

142

Respondents evaluated their level of agreement with the motivation statements using a seven-point scale with 1 = strongly agree and 7 = strongly disagree. The wordings of the 9 items utilised in this study were altered and reworded to go from shorter terms to complete declarations. Furthermore, changes were made on words like absorbing, project, tackling, self-expression, abilities, and grades/awards, which were changed to highly engaging, assignments, opinion, solving, competence, promotion, and salary to suit the academic context of this study. (Tables 3.9 and 3.10).

Table 3. 9
Original and adapted versions of Emotional labour (9) items.

Original **Version** (de Castro et al., 2006)**.**	Adapted Version
Surface Acting	
I act like nothing bothers me, even when a client makes me mad or upset.	I control my emotional feelings when students try to upset me.
I have to act the way people think a person in my job should act.	I am a role model or mentor to students in my institution.
I want my clients to think I'm always able to handle things.	I like to give my students the impression that I am carrying out my work.
At work, I have to seem concerned, even when I don't feel like it.	I force myself to show concern.
I want my clients to think I'm always calm.	I expect my students to think I'm always calm
Deep Acting	
To give advice, I have to make sure I say it in a nice way.	I am always nice and encouraging when giving advice to my students.

143

I make an effort to be interested in my clients' concerns.	I am expected to show interest in my students' area of concern.
I work hard to keep myself in a positive mood at work.	I am expected to keep a positive outlook at work.
To make suggestions, I make sure I say it in a nice way.	I am always nice when giving suggestions.

Table 3. 10

Operational Definition and Measurement of Emotional Labour (9) Items

Variables	Operational Definition	Items	Author
Surface Acting	Surface acting is operationalised as modifying and faking expressions.	I control my emotional feelings when students try to upset me. I am a role model or mentor to students in my institution. I like to give my students the impression that I am carrying out my work. I force myself to show concern. I expect my students to think I'm always calm	(de Castro et al., 2006).
Deep Acting	Deep acting is operationalised as the extent to which an employee modifies	I am always nice and encouraging when giving	(de Castro et al., 2006).

144

	feelings to meet display rules.	advice to my students.
		I am expected to show interest in my students' area of concern.
		I am expected to keep a positive outlook at work.
Table 3.10 Continued		I am always nice when giving suggestions.

3.8 The Design of Survey Instrument

The questionnaires for this research were prepared in English because the respondents involved are academics and presumably read and write in English correctly. This study collected data using self-administered questionnaires from two sources: lecturers and their students. Students were asked to evaluate their lecturer's teaching (Academician Effectiveness). At the same time, the lecturers were asked to answer questions on motivation, organizational climate, and emotional labour constructs. The lecturer's questionnaire (Set A) consisted of six sections (Appendix A). The first section comprises 6 demographic factors such as gender, age, organizational tenure, educational qualification, and current monthly salary. Also, section A comprised 12 items measuring motivation (12 items). Section B consisted of 8 items measuring organizational climate, Section C comprised 9 items that measured emotional labour (9 items), surface acting (5 items), and deep acting (4 items).

Meanwhile, the Students' questionnaire (Appendix B) comprised two sections. The first section, section A, consists of 6 demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, level of education, and department. Section B consisted of 12 items measuring academician effectiveness.

3.9 Pretesting of Instruments

Before conducting the survey, an initial questionnaire was drafted to pre-test by asking experts to read and go through it and see if there was any ambiguity that the researcher might not have noted in the draft. To achieve the study's desired aim, five experts included two senior lecturers, two associate professors, and a full professor from the School of Business Management in five leading Nigerian universities in the northwestern region. Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), Bayero University (BUK), the Nigerian Police Academy, Baze University Abuja, and Federal University, Dutin Ma.katsina Nigeria were engaged. Being experts in management and human resources management, they examined the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wordings, format, clarity, simplicity, and ambiguity of the question items (Dilman, Redline, & Carley-Baxter, 1999); (Yaghmale, 2003).

Table 3. 11
Expert who validated the questionnaire

	Expert	University
1.	Expert 1 (Academician and Measurement Expert)	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria Kaduna State, Nigeria.
2.	Expert 2 (Academician and Measurement Expert)	Bayero University Kano State Nigeria.
3.	Expert 3 (Academician and Measurement Expert)	Federal University, Dutin Ma, Katsina Nigeria
4.	Expert 4 (Academician)	The Nigerian police Academy Wudil, Kano Nigeria.
5.	Expert 5 (Practitioner)	Baze University Abuja, Nigeria.

146

Suggestions for corrections were included and included in the survey instruments in accordance with the criteria mentioned above. The declared participant pre-test procedure was employed to ensure that the survey instrument has been perceived similarly by the researcher and participants. Howard (2018) suggested that a pre-test with a few participants might be appropriate. Typically, 5 to 30 responders are sufficient to carry out a pertest. According to the standards outlined by Perneger, Courvoisier, Hudelson, and Gayet-Ageron (2014) and Howard (2018), questionnaires were pre-tested with (n=5) respondents who shared a background similar to the actual respondents to identify any issues with the instructions or questionnaire design so that they could be fixed before the field study began to ensure that content validity was achieved (Zikmund et al., 2013).

The author revised the questionnaire based on comments received from experts and respondents. Several statements were reworded and recorded, and a 7-point scale was used in place of the original 5-point scale. A little layout adjustment was made to the questionnaire to make it simpler to read and complete (for both face-to-face and online respondents). The expert and potential respondent perspectives were compiled and shown in Table 3.12.

Table 3. 12
The expert's evaluation

Comments/Recommendation	Decision
Expert 1: Academician (Measurement Expert)	
Academician Effectiveness: Consider rephrasing trust items to make it more subtle. See example below; AE1: "Overall, the lecturer's quality of instruction is very effective" was reframed as "*The academician's quality of instruction is very effective overall*".	Adopted the suggestion
AE2: "The lecturer responds to students' questions and comments appropriately" was reframed as "*The academician's respond to students' questions and comments appropriate*".	Adopted the suggestion
AE3: 'The lecturer communicates the course contents with enthusiasm" was reframed as "*There is enthusiasm in the way the academician communicates the course contents*".	Adopted the suggestion
AE4: "The lecturer in my school treat students respectfully" was reframed as "*Students are treated respectfully by the academic in my school*".	Adopted the suggestion
AE5:" The lecturer makes available opportunities for course assistance to students" was reframed as "*Course assistance are readily made available by academician to students*"	Adopted the suggestion
Expert 4	
AE6: "The course outline or other descriptive information provided enough detail about the course" was reframed as "*Descriptive information, course outline and other aids to teaching are detailed enough for the course*"	Adopted the suggestion
AE7: "The course as delivered followed the outline and other course descriptive information"was reframed as "*The course content follows the outline and other course descriptive information*"	Adopted the suggestion
AE8: "The course material was presented in a well-organized manner" was reframed as "*The presentation of course material was is in a well-organised manner*"	Adopted the suggestion
AE9: "The evaluation methods used by the lecturer for determining the course grade were fair" was reframed as "*The course academian used a fair grading system to evaluate the course*'	Adopted the suggestion
AE10: "Students work was graded by the lecturer in a reasonable amount of time" was reframed as "*The grading of student's work was done within a reasonable amount of time*"	Adopted the suggestion
AE11: "The support materials provided by the I learnt a lot from the lecturer's course" was reframed as "*The*	Adopted the suggestion

148

Comments/Recommendation	Decision
academician's course added to my knowledge in the area of study"	
AE12: "The support materials provided by the lecturer in this course helped me to learn" was reframed as *"The support materials provided by the academician enhanced my learning experience"*	Adopted the suggestion
Expert 2: Academician (Measurement Expert)	Adopted the suggestion
Motivation: Consider rephrasing trust items to make it more subtle. See example below.	
MO1. "My organization provides me with good working conditions in my organizations" was reframed as *"The working conditions in my institution is conducive"*.	
MO2: "I enjoy adequate job security in my organization was refrased as *"There is job security in my institution"*.	Adopted the suggestion
MO3: "The management/ supervisor in my organization is loyal to their employees' was refrased as *"In my institution, the management/ supervisor is loyal to their employees"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO4: "My employer's express gratitude if you do a good job" was rephrased as *"My employer's rewards a good job and expresses gratitude"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO5: "In my organization, I receive good wages after I work" was rephrased as *"The wages in my institution is commensurate with the work done"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO6: "My organization promotes me as at when due" was rephrased as *"In my institution, promotion is given as at when due"*	Adopted the suggestion
Expert 4	
MO7: "My work is very interesting in my organization" was rephrased as *"I enjoy the work I do in my organization"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO8: "I have a feeling that I am very involved in all the matters of my organization." Was rephrased as *"I feel fulfilled working in my institution"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO9: "In my organization, I observe tactful disciple when carrying out my job" was rephrased as *"My institution allows me to be self-supervising when carrying out my job"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO10: "My organization offers me monetary inventive for a job well done in" was rephrased as *"My institution gives monetary reward for a job well done"*	Adopted the suggestion
MO11: "Supervisors in my organization help me out of personal problems was rephrased as *"My supervisors offer a helping hand in solving personal problems"*	Adopted the suggestion

Comments/Recommendation	Decision
MO12: "I am praised and celebrated in public whenever I do my job well in the organization" was rephrased as "*In my institution, a job well done is publicly acknowledged*"	Adopted the suggestion
Expert 3: Academician (Measurement Expert)	Adopted the suggestion
Social Climate: Consider rephrasing trust items to make it more subtle. See example below. SC1: "In my organization, everybody is listened to" was reframed as "*In my institution, everybody has a say and they are listened to*".	
SC2: "In my organization, problems and differences of opinion are discussed openly" was rephrased as "*In my institution, there is a free flow of opinion in solving problems*"	Adopted the suggestion
SC3: "In my organization, everybody has the courage to express his/her opinion" was rephrased as "*Independence of opinion and thoughts are encouraged in my institution*"	Adopted the suggestion
SC4: "In my organization, Independence is appreciated and encouraged" was rephrased as "*Personal views and thoughts are accepted and encouraged in my institution*"	Adopted the suggestion
SC5: "In my organization, personal differences are accepted" was rephrased as "*Differences of opinion is accepted in my institution*"	Adopted the suggestion
Expert 3: Academician (Measurement Expert)	Adopted the suggestion
Communication Climate: Consider rephrasing trust items to make it more subtle. See example below CC1: "In my organization, there is envy at my workplace" was rephrased as "*Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution*"	
CC2: "In my organization, workmates compete with each other" was rephrased as "*There is competition among work mates in my institution*"	Adopted the suggestion
CC3: "In my organization, there are cliques and underestimation of others at my workplace" was rephrased as "*Evidence of unhealthy rivalry and grouping can be noticed among the staff in my institution*"	Adopted the suggestion

150

Comments/Recommendation	Decision
Expert 3: Academician (Measurement Expert) Surface Acting: Consider rephrasing trust items to make it more subtle. See example below. SA1: "I act like nothing bothers me, even when a student makes me mad or upset" was reframed as "*I control my emotional feelings when students try to upset me*"	Adopted the suggestion
SA2: "I have to act the way students and the school management expects a person in my job should act" was refrased as "*I am a role model or mentor to students in my institution*"	Adopted the suggestion
SA3: "I want my students to think I'm always able to handle things" was rephrased as "was rephrased as "*I like to give my students the impression that I am carrying out my work*".	Adopted the suggestion
SA4: "At work I have to seem concerned, even when I don't feel like it" was rephrased as "*I force myself to show concern*"	Adopted the suggestion
SA5: "I want my students to think I'm always calm" was rephrased as "*I expect my students to think I'm always calm*"	Adopted the suggestion
Expert 1: Academician (Measurement Expert) Deep Acting: Consider rephrasing trust items to make it more subtle. See example below. DA1: "To give advice, I have to make sure I say it in a nice way" was reframed as "*I am always nice and encouraging when giving advice to my students*"	Adopted the suggestion
DA2: "I make an effort to be interested in my students concerns" was rephrased as "*I am expected to show interest in my students' area of concern*"	Adopted the suggestion
DA3: "I work hard to keep myself in a positive mood at work" was rephrased as "I always keep a positive outlook at work"	Adopted the suggestion
DA4: "To make suggestions, I make sure I say it in a nice way" was rephrasaed as "I am always nice when giving suggestions". **Practitioner** <u>No comment at all</u>	Adopted the suggestion

After conducting the pre-test, the questionnaire consists of 41 items following the

expert comments (refer table 3.13). The respective questionnaire was further used for

the pilot study.

Table 3. 13

Questionnaire after pre-test

Section	Description	Scale Used	Sources
Section 1	Respondent's Information		
Section 2	Academician Effectiveness		
	Consists of 12 items:	7-point Likert scale	Adapted from:
	1. The academician's quality of instruction is very effective overall. (AE1)		(Beran & Violato, 2005).
	2. The academicians respond to students' questions and comment appropriately (AE2).	(1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree")	
	3. There is enthusiasm in the way the academician communicates the course contents (AE3).		
	4. Students are treated respectfully by academics in my school (AE4).		
	5. Course assistance is readily made available by academics to students (AE5).		
	6. Descriptive information, course outline, and other aids to teaching are detailed enough for the course (AE6).		
	7. The course content follows the outline and other course descriptive information (AE7).		
	8. The presentation of course material was is in a well-organised manner (AE8).		
	9. The course academician used a fair grading system to evaluate the course (AE9).		
	10. The grading of student's work was done within a reasonable amount of time (AE10).		
	11. The academician's course added to my knowledge in the area of study (AE11).		

152

	12. The support materials provided by the academician enhanced my learning experience (AE12).		
Section 3	Motivation		
	Consists of 12 items:	7-point Likert scale	Adapted from:
	1. The working conditions in my institution is conducive (MO1).	(1 "strongly disagree" to	(Kovach,
	2. There is job security in my institution (MO2).	7 "strongly agree")	1995).
	3. In my institution, the management/ supervisor is loyal to their employees (MO3).		
	4. My employer's rewards a good job and expresses gratitude (MO4).		
	5. The wages in my institution is commensurate with the work done (MO5).		
	6. In my institution, promotion is given as at when due (MO6).		
	7. I enjoy the work I do in my organization (MO7).		
	8. I feel fulfilled working in my institution (MO8).		
	9. My institution allows me to be self-supervising when carrying out my job (MO9).		
	10. My institution gives monetary reward for a job well done (MO10).		
	11. My supervisors offer a helping hand in solving personal problems (MO11).		
	12. In my institution, a job well done is publicly acknowledged (MO12).		
Section 4	Social Climate		
	Consists of 5 items:	7-point Likert scale	Adapted from:
	1. In my institution, everybody has a say and they are listened to (SC1).	(1 "strongly disagree" to	

153

2. In my institution, there is a free flow of opinion in solving problems (SC2). 3. Independence of opinion and thoughts are encouraged in my institution (SC3). 4. Personal views and thoughts are accepted and encouraged in my institution (SC4). 5. Differences of opinion is accepted in my institution (SC5).	7 "strongly agree")	(Vartia, 1996b).

Section 5	Communication Climate		
	Consists of 3 items: 1. In Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution (CC1). 2. There is competition among work mates in my institution (CC2). 3. Evidence of unhealthy rivalry and grouping can be noticed among the staff in my institution (CC3).	7-point Likert scale (1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree")	Adapted from: (Vartia, 1996b).

Section 6	Surface Acting		
	Consists of 5 items: 1. I control my emotional feelings when students try to upset me (SA1). 2. I am a role model or mentor to students in my institution (SA2). 3. I like to give my students the impression that I am carrying out my work (SA3). 4. I force myself to show concern (SA4). 5. I expect my students to think I'm always calm (SA4).	7-point Likert scale (1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree")	Adapted from: (de Castro et al., 2006).

Section 7	Deep Acting		
	Consists of 4 items: 1. I am always nice and encouraging when giving advice to my students (DA1).	7-point Likert scale (1 "strongly disagree" to	Adapted from:

2. I am expected to show interest in my students' area of concern (DA2).	7 "strongly agree")	(de Castro et al., 2006).
3. I am expected to keep a positive outlook at work (DA3).		
4. I am always nice when giving suggestions (DA4).		

3.10 Pilot Test

In most cases, a pilot study is directed to assess each item in the survey in terms of quantity and general reliability. A pilot study is beneficial because it serves as a signal for detecting possible problems relating to the research's choice of instrument or methodology. This pilot study and respondents' responses were sent to correct vague areas in the survey instrument (Baker, 1994). In this study, a pilot study of 30 questionnaires was conducted before the main research to ascertain grounds for the validity and reliability of the instruments (Dilman et al., 1999). In addition, a reliability analysis was performed to assess the scale's internal consistency in the study. The goal of testing internal consistency is to ensure that all of a scale's items measure the same and are highly connected. (Hair, 2006). Sekaran (2003) suggested that the minimum reliability level of 0.60 is acceptable. The reliability coefficients of the measures were: Academician Effectiveness (0.92), Motivation (0.88), communication climate (0.74), social climate (0.72), deep acting (0.80) and surface acting (0.85). Overall, the Cronbach's Alpha values did not show that any of the items should be deleted, and therefore, all the items are maintained and used for the main study. (Table 3.14).

155

Table 3. 14
Items Reliability Analysis: Cronbach's Alpha.

Constructs	No of items	Cronbach 's Alpha
Academician Effectiveness	12	.92
Motivation	12	.88
Communication Climate	5	.74
Social Climate	3	.72
Deep Acting	4	.80
Surface Acting	5	.85

3.11 Data Collection procedure

Self-administered questionnaires will gather data from ward members consisting of lecturers(academicians) and their students (evaluators). For this study, the matching method will be employed in which five students will evaluate one lecturer. Thus, two sets of questionnaires were utilized. Lecturers filled out the set "A" questionnaire while students filled out the set "B" questionnaire Before the data collection stage was initiated. A letter of authorisation and to whom it may concern for data collection was obtained from the Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business (OYA), requesting their kind cooperation and assistance in data collection (Appendix C). Written permission was sought by the researcher from the management of the 13 public universities in north-western Nigeria. They granted permission to the researcher to obtain necessary information from the lecturers and students after showing the necessary permission letters (Appendix D).

They are namely; Federal University Dutse, Sule Lamido University, Ahmadu Bello University, Kaduna State University, Bayero University, Yusuf Maitama Sule University, Federal University Dutsin-Ma, Umar Yar'Adua University, Federal University Birnin Kebbi, Kebbi State University of Science and Technology, Usman Dan Fodio University, Sokoto State University, and Federal University Gusau. A letter of authorisation and to whom it may concern for data collection was obtained from the Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business (OYA), requesting their kind cooperation and assistance in data collection. The researcher collected the data between March 2020 and August 2020. The respondents were given the highest level of assurance, assuring them that all information submitted was treated with the utmost discretion and respect during the study.

There is a plethora of methods for disseminating questionnaires. It is done via the postal service, social media, and other internet-based social networking platforms. The researcher's decision, financial leverage, time latitude, response rate factor, and other significant elements critical to the study influenced the utilisation of any of these mediums (Frazer, & Lawley, 2001). The researcher adopted two mediums for the data collection procedure in this thesis. Questionnaires were personally administered as well as sent via email. A personally administered questionnaire has a number of benefits, including ensuring a high response rate, reducing interview bias, and allowing for reciprocal human interaction (Dobbs, Oppenheim, & Thompson, 2011).

157

Furthermore, it lays the foundation for researchers to make explanations, removing any lingering doubts; it offers important information to respondents; and, lastly, it allows filling up the questionnaires in the quickest time feasible (Sekaran, & Bougie, 2013).

Following these approvals, the researcher went on to hand-deliver the questionnaires to each university in Nigeria's north-western zone. Due to the researcher's lack of access to lists of lecturers and students, assistance from each university's head of department and dean's office was sought in distributing questionnaires to the target set of respondents. Students could easily match their responses to their lecturer's comments because the questionnaires were printed in two different colours. Each survey instrument was coded with a researcher-assigned identification number to match the lecturer and their student. The questionnaires were provided to potential respondents for 30 minutes each. Respondents were told to complete the questionnaires in the return envelopes and deliver them immediately to the dean or head of the department's office to maintain confidentiality. Respondents were given two weeks to complete the surveys. All of the completed questionnaires were placed in a stamped envelope issued by the researcher to the department head and exams officer. The completed questionnaires were then mailed to the researcher by the Head of Department at each participating department or university.

3.12 Technique of Data Analysis

SPSS 23 was used to conduct descriptive statistics analysis; data were screened, examined, and validated for data entry. Many software and tools exist, such as SPSS, LISREL, AMOS, PLS, ADANCO, SAS, R, etc. However, considering what needs to be measured in this study and consistent with previous studies Huang and Shiau (2017), SPSS and PLS-SEM were employed. Nearly every quantitative study in social science research uses SPSS to test their hypothesis directly or indirectly. Directly by using it as the main tool for testing the hypotheses, or indirectly by using it to input data before transforming it to a usable format for other programs and other preliminary tests such as descriptive statistics.

In this study, SPSS was used for the latter purposes. Structural equation modelling (SEM) has been a quasi-standard in social and management research as a tool for cause-effect analysis between latent variables. It usually assesses unobservable phenomena such as attitudes and perceptions (Hair et al., 2017). It "provides a flexible and powerful means of simultaneously assessing the quality of measurement and examining causal relationships among constructs" (Wang & Wang, 2012), p. I). PLS-SEM -variance-based SEM is a branch of SEM, the other being CB-SEM - covariance-based SEM (Leguina, 2015). After successfully collecting data, the data needs to be refined to deduce meaningful information (Brandt, 2014). To answer the research question and achieve the study's objectives, hypotheses are tested using available, relevant, and current statistical software and tools (Henseler, Dijkstra, et al., 2014). Most researchers argued in favour of the usefulness of PLS-SEM (Henseler, Ringle, et al., 2014a).

159

If properly utilized, PLS-SEM is a "silver bullet" for assessing causal models in various relationships (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011), p.139). PLS-SEM has gradually become a conspicuous methodology in business and management research (Ringle et al., 2020. Several reviews support its increasing application in various fields of study (Hair et al., 2012; Ramayah et al., 2016). One reason for opting for this method in this study is that it has been used widely in social science to analyse quantitative data (Lee et al., 2011). It has higher and better statistical power than most available statistical tools. It has a unique ability to analyse non-normal data and deal with small sample sizes. More importantly, it handles complex models and analyses all variables and relationships (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, et al., 2014), such as treating second or higher-order constructs.

3.12.1 Data Screening

It's important to highlight that data were inspected before primary analysis to ensure data input accuracy, outliers, and distributional features. Researchers might become more comfortable with the data obtained for further study by screening it beforehand. Following data coding and entry, the preliminary data analysis was carried out, such as; documentation of misplaced data, assessment of out layers, conducting normality, and Multicollinearity test (Collins, Joseph & Bielaczyc, 2009).

3.12.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistical tools fulfill several critical roles. To define the characteristics of samples, check for variables' violations in terms of the assumptions that underpin inferential statistics, and address specific research problems. The mean, standard deviation, range, skewness, and kurtosis were used in the data cleaning, data preparation, evaluating outliers, normality tests, and fundamental data transformation. Descriptive analysis was used to acquire the characteristics of the research population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2014). Descriptive analysis was used in this study to learn about sample characteristics and those that are distinctive or peculiar to the research constructs. For example, SPSS version 23 analyzes demographic characteristics such as age, gender, educational level, and work experience.

3.12.3 Aggregating Individual Response

The aggregation method demonstrates that the aggregated data reflects team-level attributes (Lee et al., 2011). Justification for aggregation is very much derived from Schneider's (1975) and Benjaminm et al. (1983), which suggests that similarity within settings is expected. In addition, it is argued that to test whether aggregation is appropriate, one needs to determine whether there is an agreement within settings. The present study employed the techniques of demonstrating the agreement in the teams before aggregating them in team-level variables. The technique was the within-group interrater reliability index developed by (James et al., 1984) and later recognized as an interrater agreement index known as reliability-within-group (rwg) (James et al., 1993; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992).

161

The technique was an advancement from the works of James et al. (1984). In a study by Waldma et al. (2004), they found that the modified technique by (Lindell, Brandt, & Whitney, 1999) is more appropriate as a measure of interrater agreement for multiple items instruments than the earlier technique by James et al. (1984). James et al. (1984) have advanced a rule of thumb such that values above 0.70 indicate satisfactory agreement within the set of respondents. Therefore, the present study used the interrater agreement index (James et al., 1984) and the modified interrater agreement index (Lindell et al., 1999) to demonstrate whether there is an agreement within teams before aggregating into team-level variables. These tests provided support, indicating substantial agreement among team members on members' perception of academician effectiveness, communication climate, social climate, deep acting, surface acting, and motivation to produce an average, aggregated scores for respective teams.

3.12.4 Test of Mediation

If a third intervening variable, known as a mediator, intervenes to affect the direct relationship between two specified constructs, a mediating effect between the two constructs may exist. More precisely, a change in the exogenous construct results in a change in the mediator variable, which, in turn, changes the endogenous construct. Furthermore, Baron and Kenny (1986) opined that a third construct mediates the relationship between the independent and dependent conceptions, a fundamental aspect of indirect relations. The effects of (A) the independent construct on (C) the dependent construct is mediated by (B) a third variable, according to logic.

162

Preacher and Hayes (2008) suggested the following method: B is a construct acting as a mediator if A significantly variates B, A significantly accounts for variability in C, B significantly variates C when controlling for A. A's influence on C minimizes significantly when B is added simultaneously with A as a predictor of C. The PLS-SEM was employed to test the mediation hypotheses (Moqbel et al., 2020). Baron and Kenny (1986) contended that the mediation testing procedure offers more advantages than other strategies, such as the causal steps approach. Second, this approach can be used on tiny samples as well. The bootstrapping approach, which uses 5,000 bootstrap samples, is mostly used to assess mediation hypotheses when multivariate normality testing is not required. Finally, our method uses only one single analysis to test the different mediator models. As a result, the likelihood of making a type I error is lowered.

3.13 Chapter Summary

Finally, the chapter discussed the research approach and methodology used in this study. It explained how the organization's sample was obtained, how respondents were chosen, and how questionnaires, research materials, and survey processes were constructed. In addition, the chapter detailed how numerous analyses were used to achieve the study's goal. The research findings will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. First, the response rate of each participating team is highlighted. Next, the demographic profile of respondents is presented. Next, the data screening and data aggregation are explained. This is followed by testing measures of the study. Finally, the statistical analysis results using descriptive statistics, correlations, regressions, and mediation analysis using PLS-SEM are discussed.

4.1 Response Rate

To recap, a total of 2685 matched student-lecturer paired questionnaires were distributed in proportion to the number of lecturers and students in the respective universities. For example, 145 paired questionnaires (29/537 x 2685) were distributed to Federal University Dutse, Jigawa State. A total of 537 respondents was calculated and arrived at by multiplying 537(351x1.53) based on the majority of response rates by previous scholars. Hence, the number of distributed teams was 537 (351 x 1.53). To ensure 537 responses, 2685 matched lecturer-student paired questionnaires were distributed (see Table 4.1). The research participants comprise academic staff and students from thirteen northern, western Nigeria public universities.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, the sample size for the current study is 537 in which 2685 matched lecturer-student paired questionnaires were distributed among the thirteen public universities of northern, western Nigeria. The questionnaires were distributed to the Head of department and examination officer of each university concerned. They prepared the distribution list for each lecturer and student of each department. Each survey instrument was coded with a researcher-assigned identity number to match the lecturer and student. Respondents were instructed to seal the completed questionnaires in the return envelopes and submit them to the Head of Department or examination officer to maintain confidentiality. The respondents were given two weeks to return their questionnaires. The completed surveys were then mailed to the researcher using the envelope the Head of the Department gave. The questionnaires were distributed and collected for six months, from March 2020 to August 2021. Out of 537 questionnaires distributed to the lecturer, 255 (47.4%) questionnaires were returned for Set A. 1222 of the 2685 questionnaires issued to students (Set B) were returned, producing a response rate of 45.5 percent. However, 51 sets of student questionnaires (Set B) and 22 sets of lecturer questionnaires were deemed unusable due to missing pairs. As a result, only 1165 (43.6%) Set B surveys, and 233 (43.3%) Set A questionnaires were used and analysed in this study.

Table 4. 1
Participating Institutions and response rate

Name of Institution	Population of Teams	Questionnaire Distributed	Questionnaire Returned	Questionnaire Returned
	Lecturer/Students	Lecturer/Students	Lecturer	Student
Federal University Dutse	216	145(29X5)	10	80
Sule Lamido University	84	60(12X5)	10	20
Ahmadu Bello University	1262	860(172X5)	50	250
Kaduna State University	231	155(31X5)	15	100
Bayero University	704	480(96X5)	40	230
Yusuf Maitama Sule University	143	95(19X5)	10	50
Federal University Dustin-Ma	54	35(7X5)	5	20
Umar Yar'Adua University	240	165(33X5)	15	70
Federal University Birnin Kebbi	140	95(19X5)	8	50
Kebbi State University of Tech	110	75(15X5)	10	51
Usman Dan Fodio University	540	365(73X5)	40	150
Sokoto State University	91	60(12X5)	10	50
Federal University Gusau	136	95(19X5)	10	44
Grand Total	**3951**	**2685**	**233**	**1165**

166

4.2 Description of the Sample Study

This segment provides a sample of the current research. The sample is described through two main sub-sections: individual and team level. The first sub-section involves the description of the sample at the individual level, including students and lecturers. At the same time, the second sub-section details the sample at the team level.

4.2.1 Individual Characteristic

This section presented individual characteristics of the demographic profile of lecturers and students.

4.2.1.1 Lecturer's Demographic Profile

Concerning gender composition, Table 4.2 shows that most lecturers involved in this study are male, 163(70.0%), while female is 70(30.0%). Regarding age, most lecturers are 36-45, representing 89(38.2%). This is followed by those aged 25-35, representing 54(23. %). Next are those within 56-65, representing 50(21.5), and those with the least age groups 46-55, 40(17.2%). Concerning educational level, the vast majority of the lecturers have obtained their master's degree 87(37.3%), followed by those with doctorate degrees, representing 71(30.5%). The associate professor cadres represent 52(22.3%), and the first-degree holders are 10(4.3%). Similarly, the lecturers belonged to various institutions like Federal university Daura, Sule Lamido University, Ahmadu Bello University, Kaduna State University, Bayero University Kano, Yusuf Maitama Sule, University, Federal University Dutsan Ma, Umaru Yara dua University, Federal University Birnin Kebbi, Kebbi State University of Science and Technology, Usman Dan Fodio University, Sokoto State University, and Federal

167

University Gusau. The university with the largest of respondent's students is Ahmadu
Bello University, 355(28.6%), and the institution with the lowest is Sule Lamido
University, with 26(2.2%). (Appendix E).

Table 4. 2
Summary of Lecturer's demographic profile (N= 233)

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	163	70.0
	Female	70	30.0
Age	25-35	54	23.2
	36-45	89	38.2
	46-55	40	17.2
	56-65	50	21.5
Marital Status	Singe	15	6.4
	Married	191	82.0
	Divorced/Separated Widowed	27	11.6
Education level	B.Sc.	10	4.3
	M.Sc.	87	37.3
	Ph.D.	71	30.5
	Associate Professor	52	22.3
	Full Professor	13	5.6
Institution	FUD	16	6.9
	SLU	5	2.1
	ABU	66	28.3
	KASU	15	6.4
	BUK	30	12.9
	YMSU	11	4.7

	FUDMA	5	2.1
	UYU	6	2.6
	FUBK	10	4.3
	KBSU	6	2.6
	UDUS	52	22.3
	SSU	5	2.1

Table 4.2 Continued

		6	2.6
Experience	2-3	60	25.8
	4-7	70	30.0
	More than 7 years	103	44.2
Salary	below N100,000	2	.9
	N150,000- N200,000	65	27.9
	N200,000- N350,000	97	41.6
	Above N350,000	69	29.6

4.2.1.2 Student's Demographic Profile

Table 4.3 shows the profile of the students. Of the 1165 students, the majority were male, 798(68.5%), while the remaining were female, 367(31.5%). Regarding age, most respondents range between 20-25 years of age 657(56.4%). They are followed by those aged between 25-35 304(26.1%). Next are those between 18-20, 184(15.8%), and those with 35-45, 20(1.7%).

Concerning the student's education level, 1001 (85.9%) of the respondents are undergraduates, whereas 148(12.7%) are master's students and 16(1.4%) represent doctoral students. Similarly, the students are derived from various institutions like Federal university Daura, Sule Lamido University, Ahmadu Bello University, Kaduna State University, Bayero University Kano, Yusuf Maitama Sule, University, Federal University Dutsan Ma, Umaru Yara dua University, Federal University Birnin Kebbi, Kebbi State University of Science and Technology, Usman Dan Fodio University, Sokoto State University, and Federal University Gusau. The university with the largest of respondent's students is Ahmadu Bello University, 335(28.8%), and the institution with the lowest is Sule Lamido University, with 25(2.1%). Furthermore, the results also revealed that these respondents came from various departments such as Arts, Humanities, Science, and Technology. The largest percentages were 647(55.5%) from arts, and the lowest percentage was 180(15.5%) from arts humanities. The mean age of the respondents was 2.14 years (SD = 46), and their ages ranged between 18 and 45 years. (Appendix F).

Table 4. 3
Summary of student's demographic profile (N= 1165)

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	798	68.5
	Female	367	31.5
Age	18-20	184	15.4
	20-25	657	56.4
	25-35	304	26.1

170

	35-45	20	1.7
Marital Status	Singe	933	80.1
	Married	232	19.9
Education level	Undergraduates	1001	85.9
	Master's Degree	148	12.7
	Doctorate Degree	15	1.4
Institution	FUD	85	7.3
	SLU	25	2.1
	ABU	335	28.8
	KASU	75	6.4
	BUK	155	13.3
	YMSU	45	3.9
	FUDMA	25	2.1
	UYU	30	2.6
	FUBK	50	4.3
	KBSU	30	2.6
	UDUS	260	22.3
	SSU	25	2.1
	FUG	25	2.1
Department	Arts	647	55.5
	Humanities	74	6.4
	Science	264	22.7
	Technology	180	15.5
	Arts	650	55.5

4.3 Data Screening

The steps of data screening include missing data analysis, non-response bias, outliers' detection, univariate and multivariate, normality, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity.

4.3.1 Data Coding

The researcher classified all latent variables' items from the questionnaire with three or four letters for simple identification in PLS and SPSS. Academician effectiveness items were coded as AE1 to AE12, social climate items as SC1 to SC5, communication climate items as CC1 to CC3, motivation items as MO1 to MO12, deep acting items as DA1 TO DA5, and surface acting items as SA1 to SA5. The SPSS software entered and coded all 233 returned and usable questionnaires.

4.3.1 Missing Data Analysis

In the original SPSS dataset, 9553 data points were randomly ignored, accounting for 0.00.3% of the total. Academician effectiveness, for example, had nine missing values, whereas social climate had four, and communication climate had four. On the other hand, Motivation had 9 missing values. Deep acting had 7 missing values, while surface acting had five. Even if researchers have no consensus on what constitutes a sufficient percentage of missing values in a data set for acceptable statistical inference, it is reasonable to state that a missing rate of 5% or less is non-significant (Schafer, 1999); Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Scholars agreed, however, that if the overall proportion of missing data is less than

5%, mean substitution is the quickest technique to replace missing values (Little &

Rubin, 1987: Raymond, 1986: Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As a result, the mean

substitution method was used in this study to substitute missing values (see Appendix

G & H for SPSS outputs). See tables 4.4 and 4.5.

Table 4. 4
Total and Percentage of Missing Values (Academic Staff's Data)

Latent Variables	Number of Missing Values
Social Climate	4
Communication Climate	4
Motivation	18
Deep Acting	7
Surface Acting	5
Total	38 out of 9553 data points
Percentage	0.003%

Note: The total number of missing values for the complete data set is divided by the total number of data and multiplied by 100 to get the percentage of missing values.

Table 4. 5
Total and Percentage of Missing Values (Student's Data)

Latent Variables	Number of Missing Values
Academician Effectiveness	65
Total	65 out of 47765 data points
Percentage	0.001%

Note: The total number of missing values for the complete data set is divided by the total number of data multiplied by 100 to get the percentage of missing values.

173

4.3.2 Non-Response Bias

Field (2009) suggested that a researcher could compare the means of all manifest variables for two data-gathering methodologies using the t-test analysis approach. The second test for data screening examined any differences between early and late response groups. For the Lecturer's questionnaires, out of 233 respondents, 133 were coded as an early response (received within four weeks), while the remaining 100 were coded as a late response (received after the four weeks). For Students' questionnaires, out of 1165 respondents, 119 were coded as early response group, while 95 were coded as late response group. Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 revealed no significant difference between the variables of the two data groups Appendix (I & J). This backed up the statistical computations and showed that non-response bias was not a major issue in this study.

Table 4. 6
Result of Independent Sampled T-Test for Non-Biased Response (Academic Staff)

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance	
					F	Sig
Academician Effectiveness	Early Response	133	6.1259	.59835	.339	.561
	Late Response	100	6.1908	.51292		
Social Climate	Early Response	133	5.9203	.68841	.009	.924
	Late Response	100	6.170	.64088		
Communication Climate	Early Response	133	6.0551	.66183		
	Late Response	100	6.2733	.56134	.507	.477
Motivation	Early Response	133	5.5846	78817		
	Late Response	100	5.7292	.71817	.424	.516
Deep Acting	Early Response	133	3.0737	.58748	787	.376
	Late Response	100	2.9720	.54459		
Surface Acting	Early Response	133	5.8816	.76721	1.630	.203
	Late Response	100	6.0025	.68580		

175

Table 4. 7
Result of Independent Sampled T-Test for Non-Biased Response (Students)

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance	
					F	Sig
Academician Effectiveness	Early Response	579	4.3571	1.08672	.339	.528
	Late Response	586	4.4289	1.11069		
Social Climate	Early Response	579	4.3503	.99306	2.120	.146
	Late Response	586	4.3908	1.02882		
Communication Climate	Early Response	579	3.9960	1.36108		
	Late Response	586	4.0393	1.43019	1.999	.158
Motivation	Early Response	579	4.7491	75254		
	Late Response	586	4.8345	.73575	.046	.830
Deep Acting	Early Response	579	4.6328	1.38368	1.602	.206
	Late Response	586	4.7022	1.41756		
Surface Acting	Early Response	579	5.0730	1.35477	1.227	.268
	Late Response	586	5.2432	1.30445		

4.3.4 Assessment of Outliers

Benige et al. (1980) defined outliers "as observations or subsets of observations which appear to be inconsistent with the remainder of the data" (p.7). When doing regression-based analysis, the presence and confirmation of outliers constitute a severe hazard since they might change the approximations of regression coefficients, resulting in unreliable conclusions (Verardi & Croux, 2008). Because of incorrect data entry, every

observation that looks beyond the SPSS value labels is effectively detected. The frequency tables for all variables were tabulated using minimum and maximum statistics as the first procedure. After doing the first study of frequency statistics, no value was suspected to be beyond the predicted range. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, the data was submitted for further investigation and checks for univariate using standardised values with a cut-off point of 3.29 (p.001) (2007). Using normalised values, no case of a potential outlier was discovered using Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) criterion for detecting outliers in the case of academic staff data.

A Mahalanobis distance (D2) test was also used to look for multivariate outliers. Mahalanobis distance is "the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables" (p. 74). The suggested chi-square thresholds for the 41 observed variables are 55.76, 63.69, and 73.41 (P=0.001). No multivariate outlier was found because the maximum Mahalanobis value is 29, lower than any of the three thresholds of 55.76, 63.69, and 73.41. The suggested chi-square thresholds for students and reporting on the 41 observed variables are 55.76, 63.69, and 73.41 (P=0.001). No multivariate outlier was found because the maximum value of Mahalanobis is 46, which is lower than any of the three thresholds of 55.76, 63.69, and 73.41.

177

4.3.5 Normality

The PLS-SEM is milder in approach to the data's normality assumption (Hair, Sarstedt, Hult, et al., 2014; Henseler, Christian M. Ringle, et al., 2009). Even though PLS-SEM is a non-parametric method that does not require normal data, it is important to analyse whether the data is too far from normal (Hair et al., 2014). Because excessively non-normal data can make evaluating the parameters difficult and exaggerate standard errors from bootstrapping (Hair et al., 2014). The means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis values for each variable are presented in Table 4.8 for the variables studied in the study. All variables are regularly distributed, with mixed values for skewness and kurtosis, both negative and positive. The skewness value is stated to be between -0.369 and 0.622, and the kurtosis value is said to be between -1.071 and 0.328. The findings show that the study's data fall within an acceptable degree of normalcy assumption. If the skewness is less than 3.00 and the kurtosis is less than 10.00, the data does not violate the normalcy condition. (Kline, 1998). Table 4.8 shows the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistic tests. The results were found to be significant for all non-normality factors. (Field, 2009) has demonstrated that a test with a high sample size is extremely sensitive and that even a little deviation from normalcy is enough to skew whatever statistical processes we use on the data.

Table 4. 8
Skewness and Kurtosis values

Construct	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Std Error	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Std Error	Statistics	Std Error
A E	233	3.00	4.00	7.00	6.1538	.03689	.56303	.317	-.791	.159	1.247	.318
SC	233	3.60	3.40	7.00	6.0300	.04448	.67896	.461	-.854	.159	1.284	.318
CC	233	3.33	3.67	7.00	6.1488	.04119	.62880	.395	-.860	.159	1.271	.318
MO	233	4.25	2.75	7.00	5.6466	.04984	.76071	.579	-.818	.159	.766	.318
DA	233	3.20	1.80	5.00	3.0300	.03737	.57050	.325	.683	.159	.621	.318
SA	233	3.25	3.75	7.00	5.9335	.04811	.73430	.539	-.720	.159	.604	.318

4.3.6 Linearity

The normal plot diagram is adopted in this study to assess the linearity objective. Figure 4.1 and figure 4.2 depicts the results of the linearity analysis.
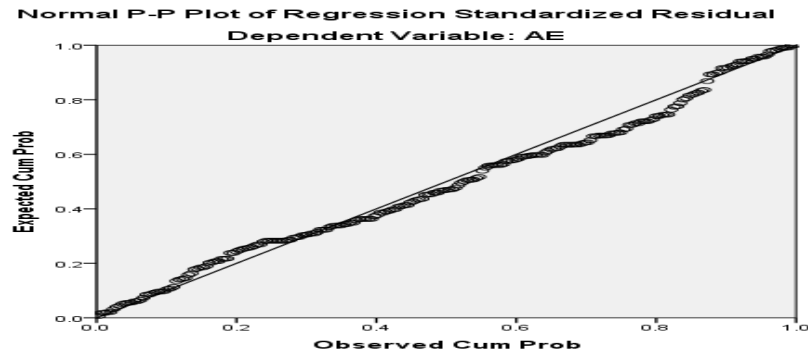
Figure 4. 1
Linearity Plot for AE

It is exceedingly difficult to obtain data ordinarily distributed so nicely in data analysis. Various variables suggest it may be above or below the diagonal lines in some circumstances, although the observed data may not show any significant differences. As a result, the leftover shown is handled as normal. The linearity test in this study was adequate and can be used for further testing.
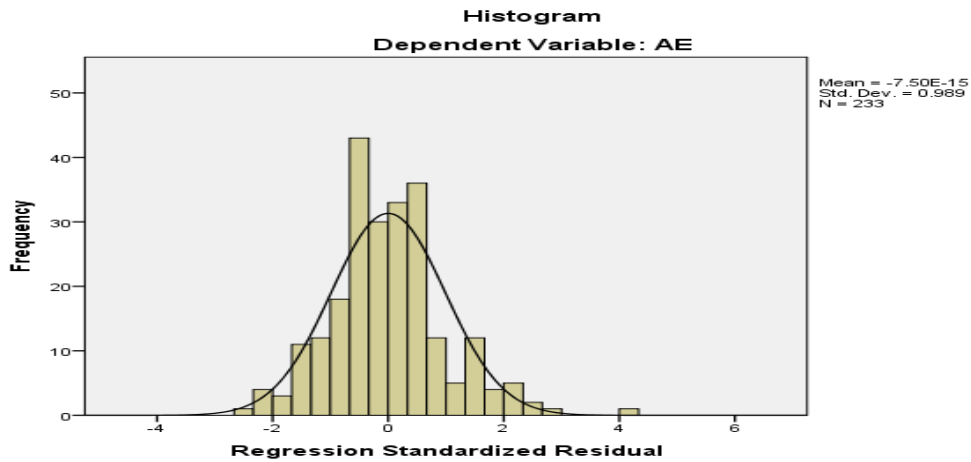
Figure 4. 2

Normality Plot for AE

4.3.7 Homoscedasticity

This is another test that is made concerning assumptions. The use of scatter plots of regression, standardized residuals, and V. regression standardized predicted values is engaged for making verifications on normality. The random plots shown in the diagram reveal that homoscedasticity is correct for this study. The result of the homoscedasticity is shown below in figure 4.3.
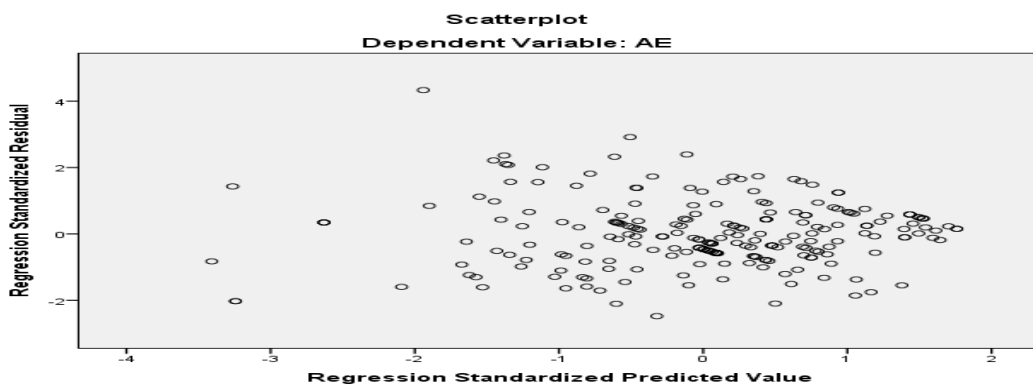
Figure 4. 3

Homoscedasticity Test for AE

4.4 Multicollinearity

When there is a significant correlation between two or more variables in a model, it is called multicollinearity. A high amount of multicollinearity raises the standard errors of the coefficients and poses a risk to the model, which can be troublesome in multivariate analysis. Variance inflation factor (VIF) and collinearity diagnostics of tolerance statistics can be used to diagnose multicollinearity. Myers (1990) suggested that if the VIF is larger than 10 and the tolerance is less than 0.1, there is a major problem. There is no issue of multicollinearity in the current study because all VIF values are less than 10, and the tolerance values are greater than 0. 1. (Table 4.9).

Table 4. 9
Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)

Latent Construct	Collinearity Statistics	
Academician Effectiveness	Tolerance	VIF
Social Climate	.376	2.658
Communication Climate	.358	2.794
Motivation	.312	3.201
Deep Acting	.399	2.509
Surface Acting	.386	2.593

4.5 Common Method Variance Test

According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), Common methods variance denotes "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest" (P.879). Researchers agree the typical technique variance is a cause for concern (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003b; Spector, 2006).

For instance, "common method bias inflates relationships between variables measured by self-reports" was proposed by (Conway & Lance, 2010) P.325). While covering the same topic, Orga and Ryan (1995) did a meta-analysis of 55 research on attitudinal and dispositional determinants of OCB. As a result of common technique variance, their research found a larger likelihood of recording an extremely high correlation when performing self-reported survey studies.

Participants were assured that all questions answered would be treated the same, which was the most important action to ensure that assessment anxiety was reduced. The enhancement of scale items was the second strategy introduced. This is accomplished through assisting in the avoidance of unclear questionnaire questions. Other techniques developed were Harman's single factor test, proposed by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) for assessing CMV, and the abovementioned processes. All variables utilised in this study were subjected to exploratory factor analysis, with the non-rotated solution validated to confirm the number of factors required to account for the variance in the variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The assumption of (Harman 1976) showed that a single factor might emerge or a general factor accounts for the covariance in predictor and criterion variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The items in this study were subjected to principal components factor analysis following Podsakoff and Organ (1986), and the results revealed that 12 distinct factors explained the cumulative factor of 70.6 percent of the variance, with the first (largest) factor explaining 47.21 percent of the total variance, which is less than 50%.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that no one factor explains the covariance in predictor and criterion variables, accounting for more than half of the variation (Podsakoff et al., 2012). As a result, it is suggested that common technique bias is not a major worry and is unlikely to increase the correlations between the variables investigated in this study. (See Appendix K).

4.6 Descriptive Analysis

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables were computed to explore the variability and interdependence of the subscales produced from the factor analyses.

4.6.1 Means and standard deviations of study variables

The mean and standard deviations of the study variables are shown in Table 4.10. All responses to the research variables were graded on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 7 indicating strongly agree. The levels of agreement of the variables were determined using the mean scores of the variables. A mean score of less than 3.00 was regarded as poor, a mean score of 3.00 to less than 4.00 was considered moderate, and a mean score of 4.00 or higher was considered high.

Table 4.10 displays that the overall mean ranged between 3.0 and 6.15. The mean and standard deviation of Academician effectiveness was high (M=6.15 SD= 0.78) (refer to Table 4.10). This submits that the participants perceived academician effectiveness as high. The mean and standard deviation of social climate was (M=6.03 SD= 0.67).

This suggests that the participants' perception of social climate was also high. The respondent's descriptive statistics of communication climate presented that the mean value for communication climate (M=6.14 SD=0.62) was fairly higher than the mean of social climate practices (refer to Table 4.10). The participant's descriptive statistics from Table 4.10 also showed that deep acting has the lowest mean with a moderate value (M=3.0 SD=0.57). Motivation had a relatively high descriptive statistics value (M=5.6 SD=0.76). Additionally, the participants relatively reported a high perception of surface acting (M=5.9 SD=0.73) (refer to Table 4.10).

Table 4. 10
Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
AE	6.1538	.56303
SC	6.0300	.67896
CC	6.1488	.62880
MO	5.6466	.76071
DA	3.0300	.57050
SA	5.9335	.73430

4.6.2 Correlation Analysis

A correlation coefficient of 0.90 and above, according to Hair et al. (2010), suggests multicollinearity between external components. The correlation matrix of all external constructs is shown in Table 4.11.

The correlations between the exogenous constructs were below the specified threshold values, as indicated in Table 4.11. didn't exceed 90, and the correlation of the exogenous constructs in this study ranged from -0.03 to.889, implying that the exogenous constructs were not substantially connected and were independent.

Table 4. 11
Correlation Analysis

Construct	AE	SC	CC	MO	DA	SA
AE						
SC	.884					
CC	.892	.862				
MO	.517	.544	.447			
DA	-.538	-.535	-.503	-.003		
SA	.240	.261	.231	.683	.463	

4.7 Data Aggregation to Team-Level

Studies on rating academians and students often aggregate data from individual to group levels and use the latter in their models (Roy & Covelli, 2021). This study adopted this practice in the current study - i.e., we aggregated students' ratings of their lecturer's effectiveness and individual perceptions of motivation, organisational climate (Social Climate and Communication Climate), and emotional labour to assess academician effectiveness. However, before doing this, the current study used the popular rwg and rWG(J) indices to measure within-group agreement among students in the same team. Biemann, Cole, and Voelpel (2012) suggested that researchers report rWG(J), F ratios, and the inter-member reliability (ICC) value.

186

The study also adopted the recommendations of Biemann et al. (2012) for interpreting rWG(J), namely: "lack of agreement" =0.00 to 0.30; "weak agreement" =0.31 to 0.50; "moderate agreement" =0.51 to 0.70; "strong agreement" =0.71 to 0.90, and; "very strong agreement" =0.91 to 1.00 (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). ICC (1) can be considered as an estimate of size effect (Bliese, 2000) and when it is statistically different from zero, we can use it to justify the use of group-level data (Chen, Bliese, & Mathieu, 2005). LeBreton & Senter (2008) noted (Murphy & Myors, 1999) suggested that a value of 0.01 might be considered a" small" effect, a value of 0.10 a "medium" effect and a value of 0.25 a "large" effect. ICC (2) indicates the reliability of the group-level means (Bliese, 2000). The present research examined within-group agreement (rWG(J)) and inter-member reliability (ICC) for both academician effectiveness and motivation, organisational climate and emotional labour. The rwg correlations were examined using SPSS 23.0, and in the case of estimated within-group agreement (rwg) for a multiple item scale computed using James et al. (1984).

Secondly is the Lindell et al. (1999) revised interrater agreement for multiple items used in a study by Waldman et al. (2004). The within-group agreement (rwg) for a multiple item scale is calculated using the following formula by James et al. (1984).

$$r_{wg\,(j)} = \frac{J\,[1 - Sxj^2 / \sigma EU^{2)}]}{J\,[1 - Sxj^2 / \sigma EU^{2)}] + (Sxj^2 / \sigma Eu^2)}$$

Where;

J is the number items in the scale (J= 1, J)
Sxj^2 is the mean of the observed variance on the J items
σEu^2 is the variance on Xj.

The revised interrater agreement for multiple items is calculated using following formula by Lindell et al. (1999).

$r * wg(j) = 1 - (Sxj\ 2\ /\ \sigma eu\ 2)$

Where Xj is variable of the interest

Sxj 2 is the observed variance on Xj

σeu 2 is the variance on Xj.

The results showed that it was appropriate to aggregate individual student responses to the group level for academician effectiveness. Table 4.12 lists the summary mean of rwg, r*wg, for the variable. As shown in Table 4.12, the mean value of rwg for academician effectiveness, communication climate, social climate, deep acting, surface acting and motivation teams were 0.90, 0.94, 0.89, 0.97, 0.92, 0.86, 0.84, 0.97, 0.89, 0.82 respectively for 233 teams. The values for the academician effectiveness teams were greater than 0.7. The mean of r*wg for academician effectiveness, communication climate, social climate, deep acting, surface acting and motivation teams were 0.68, 0.80, 0.79, 0.84, 0.68, 0.64, 0.62, 0.84, 0.67, and 0.60 respectively for the 233 teams. The values for the academician effectiveness teams were positive. Three teams were found to be revealing negative values from ABU, BUK, and UYUK. Hence, the response for these three teams was not included in the subsequent analyses. In all, the rwg, r*wg, tests supported academician effectiveness in producing averaged, aggregated scores from respective teams.

Thus, the team-level aggregations were made by calculating the team averages.

Table 4. 12

Data Aggregation Analysis

Variables	rwg, (j)	r*wg,(j)
	0.90	0.68
	0.94	0.80
	0.89	0.79
	0.97	0.84
	0.92	0.68
	0.86	0.64
	0.84	0.62
	0.97	0.84
	0.89	0.67
	0.82	0.60
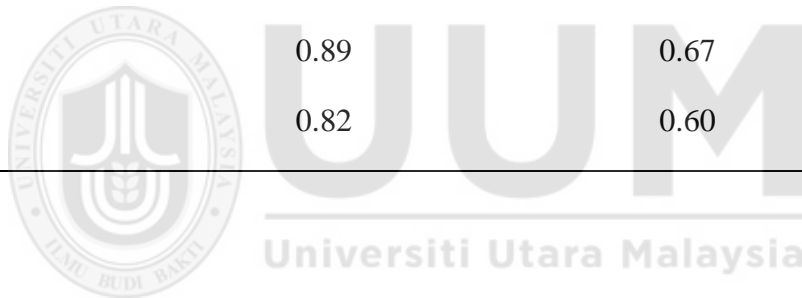
4.8 Assessment of PLS-SEM Path Model Results

It is pertinent to mention at this juncture that in an investigation directed by Jörg Henseler and Sarstedt (2013), it was suggested that goodness fit GoF isn't appropriate for model validation because suitable models cannot be separated from unsuitable ones. (Hair et al., 2014). Considering the developments mentioned above, the present study adopted a two-way approach in evaluating and reporting the PLS-SEM path. This is congruent with the recommendation of (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). The dual-approach procedure utilised in this research is (1) assessment of

measurement model, as well as (2) assessment of structural model shown in Figure 4.4

(Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009).

Assessment of Measurement Model	***Investigating individual item reliability***
	Determining internal consistency reliability
	Ascertaining convergent validity
	Assessing discriminant validity

Assessment of Structural Model	***Assessing the significance of path coefficient***
	Evaluating the level of R-Squared values
	Determining the effect size
	Ascertaining the predictive relevance
	Examining the mediating effect

Figure 4. 4

A Two-Way Procedure of PLS Path Model Assessment

Source: (Heseler et al., 2009).

4.9 Assessment of Measurement Model

In assessing the measurement model, the procedure involves identifying individual items like content validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, reliability, and internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). (See Table 4.5).

190
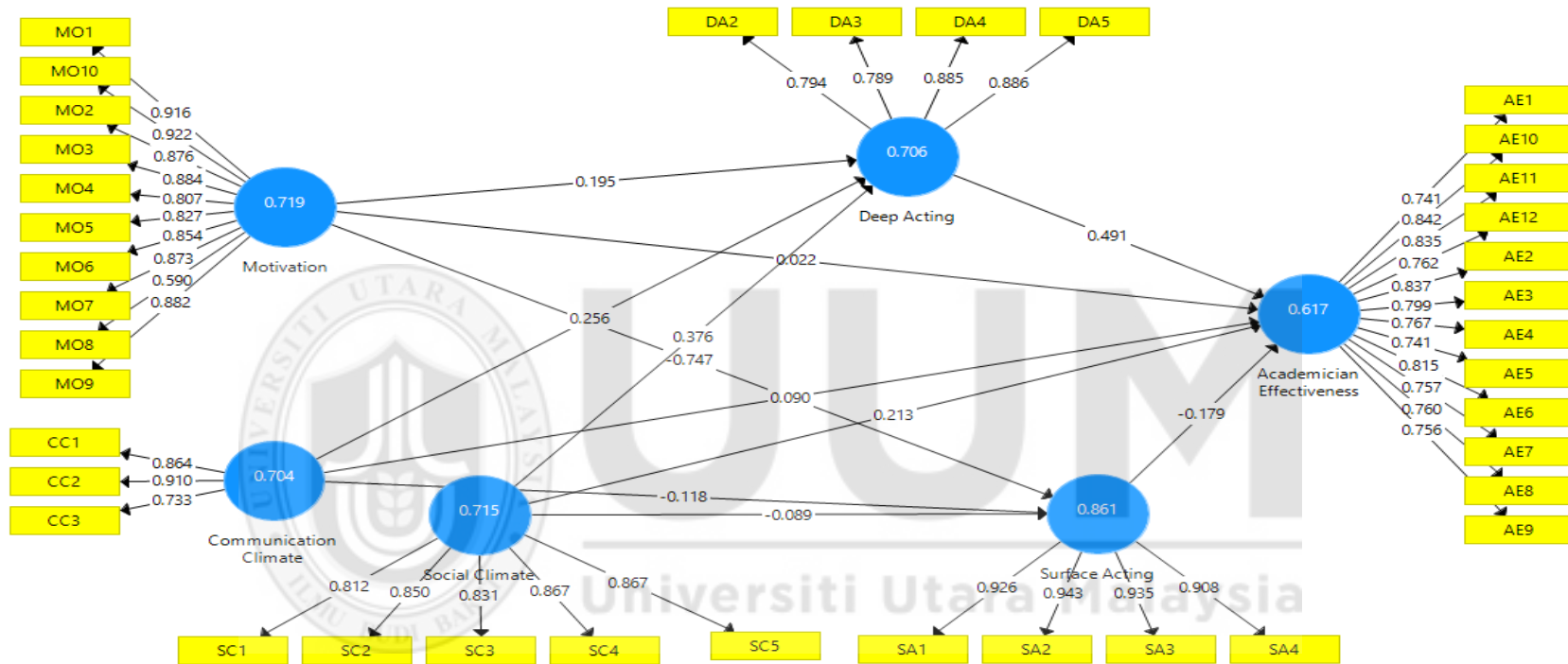
Figure 4. 5

Measurement Model Assessment

4.9.1 Individual Item Reliability

The individual item's reliability of the present study was investigated by examining the loading each construct measured (Duarte & Roposo, 2010); Hair et al., 2012;(Hulland, 1999). Aligning with the rule of thumb for retaining items in loadings with .40 and .70 (Hair et al., 2014), it was discovered that out of 41 items, only 2 items were deleted simply because of their loadings was discovered to be below the required threshold of 0.40. Therefore, concerning the model for this study, only 39 items were retained since they are confirmed to have loadings of between 0.524 and 0.943 (see table 4.5 and Appendix L).

4.9.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

Sun and Liu (2007) defined internal consistency reliability as the degree to which all items in a particular (sub) scale measures the same model. Normally Cronbach alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient are frequently utilised estimators of internal consistency reliability of an instrument in organizational research (e.g., (Bacon, Sauer, Young, & Bacon, Sauer, & Young, 1995 McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011; Peterson & Kim, 2013). In this study, a composite reliability coefficient was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of measures modified for the aim of the research. This study will advance two principal reasons for using the composite reliability coefficient. The first is that the composite reliability coefficient gives an unbiased estimate of the reliability of the items much better than can be achieved with Cronbach 's alpha coefficient. The reason is that it relies on the assumption that all the items in the

construct contribute equally to the constructs, not bearing in mind the actual impact of

individual loadings (Götz et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 1994).

Table 4. 13
Loadings, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Extracted

Constructs	Items	Loadings	C.A	CR	AVE
Academician Effectiveness (AE)					
	AE1	0.741	0.943	0.951	0.617
	AE10	0.842			
	AE11	0.835			
	AE12	0.762			
	AE2	0.837			
	AE3	0.799			
	AE4	0.767			
	AE5	0.741			
	AE6	0.815			
	AE7	0.757			
	AE8	0.760			
	AE9	0.756			
Communication Climate (CC)	CC1	0.864	0.786	0.876	0.704
	CC2	0.910			
	CC3	0.733			
Deep Acting (DA)	DA2	0.794	0.860	0.905	0.706
	DA3	0.789			
	DA4	0.885			
	DA5	0.886			

Table 4.13 Continued

Motivation (MO)	**MO1**	**0.916**	**0.955**	**0.962**	**0.719**
	MO10	0.922			
	MO2	0.876			
	MO3	0.884			
	MO4	0.807			
	MO5	0.827			
	MO6	0.854			
	MO7	0.873			
	MO8	0.772			
	MO9	0.882			
Surface Acting (SA)	SA1	0.926	0.946	0.961	0.861
	SA2	0.943			
	SA3	0.935			
	SA4	0.908			
Social Climate (SC)	SC1	0.812	0.900	0.926	0.715
	SC2	0.850			
	SC3	0.831			
	SC4	0.867			
	SC5	0.867			

The next reason is the capacity to either overrate or underestimate scale reliability. The composite reliability does have the ability to consider the indicators that have diverse loadings and as well interpreted the same as Cronbach's alpha. That is to say that if one particular reliability is not considered, an internal consistency reliability value above .70 is regarded as satisfactory for an adequate model. Still, for a value below .60, it designates a lack of reliability.

That notwithstanding, the meaning given to internal consistency reliability using the composite reliability coefficient was based on the provided rule of thumb by (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) and Hairs et al. (2011). They proposed that the composite reliability coefficient should be of the latent constructs. Table 4.13 shows the composite reliability coefficient of the latent constructs. Given the display in table 4.13, the composite reliability coefficient of each latent construct ranged from 0.876 to 0.962, each exceeding the minimum acceptable level of .70, which suggests that adequate internal reliability of measures used for this study (Bagozzi & Yi., 1998; Hair et al., 2011).

4.9.3 Convergent Validity

Hair et al. (2006, p.40) see convergent validity as the "extent to which items truly represent the intended latent construct and correlate with other measures of the same construct." The process of scrutinizing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each latent construct is suggested by (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). To attain convergent validity, as recommended by (Chin 1998, the AVE of each latent construct should be .50 or more. In line with the suggestion of Chin (1998), the AVE values (see Table 4.13) showed high loadings (>. 50) on their respective constructs, thereby indicating adequate convergent validity.

4.9.4 Discriminant Validity

Duart et al. (2010) refers to discriminant validity as the extent to which a particular latent construct differs from other latent constructs. For the present study, discriminant validity is achieved by following the suggestion of Fornell and Larcker (1981). This is normally achieved by comparing the correlations among the latent constructs with the square roots of average variance extracted (Fornell & Lacker, 1981). In addition, discriminant validity can also be determined when the criterion established by Chin (1998) is adopted. This is by comparing the indicator loadings with other reflective indicators in the cross-loadings table. Firstly, following the rule of thumb method or criterion for measuring or evaluating discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested achieving adequate discriminant validity. In line with the compelling suggestion of Fornell and Larcker (1981), the square root of the AVE should be greater than the correlations among latent constructs. Looking at Table 4.14, the reported values of the average variance extracted range between 0.617 and 0.861, suggesting that the values are acceptable. Table 4.14 shows the compared correlation among the latent constructs when such a comparison is made with the square root of the average variance extracted. (Values are seen highlighted). Table 4.14 also showed that the square root of the average variances extracted is all greater than the correlations among latent constructs, suggesting adequate discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4. 14
Discriminant Validity (HTMT)

	AE	CC	DA	MO	SC	SA
AE						
CC	0.713					
DA	0.866	0.722				
MO	0.598	0.451	0.550			
SC	0.773	0.822	0.749	0.597		
SA	0.637	0.544	0.538	0.881	0.633	

Table 4. 15
Discriminant validity (Fornell and lacker Criterion)

	AE	CC	DA	MO	SC	SA
AE	0.785					
CC	0.618	0.839				
DA	0.783	0.590	0.840			
MO	0.575	0.391	0.504	0.848		
SA	0.604	0.471	0.486	0.558	0.846	
SC	0.716	0.686	0.660	0.842	0.586	0.928

As earlier stated by the researcher, discriminant validity can be achieved when the indicator loadings and cross-loadings are compared (Chin, 1988). Chin (1988) recommended that the indicator loadings be larger than the cross-loadings to achieve appropriate discriminant validity. They all suggested an alternative approach for discriminant validity based on the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations. Jörg Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2014b) also extended their proof of higher achievement through the Monte Carlo simulation study. Regardless, the discriminant validity of this study was assessed utilising this newly proposed method, as indicated in Table 4.14. There is a problem of discriminant validity if the HTMT value is more than the HTMT0.85 value of 0.85 (Klein, 2001) or HTMT0.90 value of 0.90 (Gold et al., 2001). As indicated in Table 4.14, all of the values passed the HTMT0.90 (Gold et al., 2001) and the HTMT0.85 (Klein, 2011), suggesting that discriminant validity was established.

A recent critique of Fornell-Larcker (1981) (Table 4.15) demonstrated that the method of reporting discriminant validity criterion is no longer considered a trustworthy basis for detecting the lack of discriminant validity in frequent research scenarios (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015). Table 4.16 also compares the indicator loadings to those of other reflecting indicators. All indication loadings exceeded cross-loadings, indicating sufficient validity for future investigation.

Table 4. 16
Cross Loadings

Construct	AE	CC	DA	MO	SC	SA
AE1	0.741	0.531	0.682	0.324	0.536	0.350
AE10	0.842	0.480	0.675	0.477	0.577	0.492
AE11	0.835	0.436	0.647	0.436	0.556	0.469
AE12	0.762	0.487	0.527	0.518	0.579	0.534
AE2	0.837	0.485	0.601	0.405	0.547	0.458
AE3	0.799	0.501	0.618	0.473	0.555	0.510
AE4	0.767	0.462	0.565	0.349	0.469	0.410
AE5	0.741	0.445	0.568	0.494	0.596	0.514
AE6	0.815	0.377	0.650	0.416	0.528	0.438
AE7	0.757	0.541	0.579	0.518	0.568	0.503
AE8	0.760	0.526	0.620	0.432	0.597	0.430
AE9	0.756	0.545	0.624	0.552	0.619	0.565
CC1	0.566	0.864	0.498	0.362	0.585	0.437
CC2	0.569	0.910	0.503	0.304	0.582	0.398
CC3	0.409	0.733	0.487	0.320	0.563	0.343
DA2	0.627	0.506	0.794	0.342	0.533	0.383
DA3	0.591	0.465	0.789	0.403	0.554	0.394
DA4	0.690	0.488	0.885	0.449	0.532	0.391
DA5	0.715	0.523	0.886	0.492	0.598	0.463
MO1	0.535	0.327	0.470	0.916	0.509	0.786
MO10	0.519	0.318	0.462	0.922	0.471	0.763
MO2	0.513	0.332	0.430	0.876	0.457	0.770

Table 4.16 Continued

MO3	0.511	0.343	0.446	0.884	0.459	0.763
MO4	0.519	0.395	0.413	0.807	0.526	0.707
MO5	0.463	0.415	0.423	0.827	0.513	0.705
MO6	0.481	0.381	0.451	0.854	0.498	0.692
MO7	0.522	0.320	0.461	0.873	0.518	0.716
MO8	0.243	0.166	0.234	0.590	0.273	0.416
MO9	0.494	0.284	0.434	0.882	0.464	0.743
SA1	0.615	0.435	0.491	0.777	0.607	0.926
SA2	0.572	0.453	0.441	0.768	0.568	0.943
SA3	0.541	0.459	0.450	0.791	0.527	0.935
SA4	0.509	0.398	0.420	0.792	0.469	0.908
SC1	0.544	0.562	0.513	0.465	0.812	0.481
SC2	0.663	0.514	0.605	0.505	0.850	0.518
SC3	0.601	0.645	0.532	0.414	0.831	0.479
SC4	0.582	0.600	0.548	0.443	0.867	0.472
SC5	0.628	0.588	0.585	0.527	0.867	0.524

4.10 The Assessment of Structural (Inner) Model

If the outer models are unreliable, the inner model will have little confidence (Avkiran, 2017). In fact, "It makes sense to analyze the relationships among the constructs only if there is sufficient evidence of their validity and reliability." (Henseler, 2017, p. 6). Therefore, after achieving the reliability and validity of the measurement model, the researcher takes numerous steps to assess the hypothesized relationships within the structural model (do Valle & Assaker, 2015; Hair et al., 2014). The structural model deals with dependent links that connect the constructs in the hypothetical model (Hair et al., 2014). It is a useful depiction of interrelationships among constructs. It is an effort to discover proof supporting the theoretical model (Avkiran, 2018).

Simply, it explains the relationship between endogenous and exogenous latent variables. The relationship among the variables (the hypotheses) in this study was assessed through the structural model. The inner model consists of motivation, organisational climate (communication and social climates), Emotional labour (deep acting and surface acting) as the exogenous variables while academician effectiveness is the endogenous variable. Picking a model based on single criteria (e.g., R^2 value only) is not a decent approach (Hair et al., 2016). Researchers need to examine different criteria before deciding on a model. To do that, the study applied the usual bootstrapping method in PLS-SEM with a number of 5,000 bootstrapping samples (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). Therefore, figure 4.6 and table 4.19 illustrate the estimates for the study's structural model, including the various relationships of direct effect. Using bootstrapping procedure to produce the standard errors and t-values, the inner model was evaluated using five steps (Hair et al. 2014).
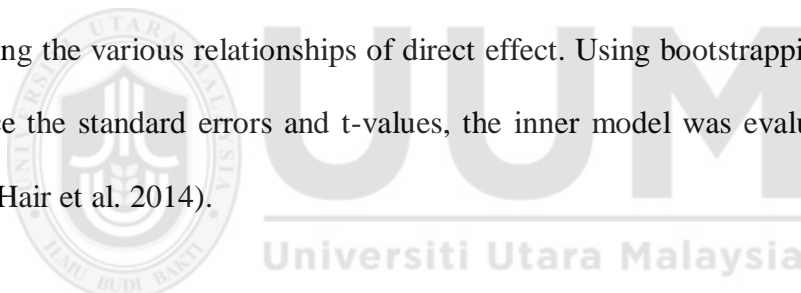
Step I: Evaluating structural model for collinearity issues (Variance Inflated Factor)

Step 2: Evaluating the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

Step 3: Evaluating the level of Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

Step 4: Evaluating the effect sizes (F^2)

Step 5: Evaluating the predictive relevance (Q^2)

201

4.10.1 Evaluating Structural Model for Collinearity Issues (Variance Inflated Factor)

To guarantee there is no collinearity issue in the structural model at the initial stage, it is important to test for it before assessing the inner model. In table 4.17, this study presents the result of the collinearity test of the inner model. The VIF values <5 for each of the constructs under study show that collinearity is not an issue of concern in the inner model of this study (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4. 17
Collinearity Assessment of the inner model (Variance Inflated Factor)

	Academician Effectiveness	Deep Acting	Surface Acting
Academician Effectiveness			
Comm. Climate	2.082	1.890	1.890
Deep Acting	1.994		
Motivation	3.689	1.453	1.453
Social Climate	2.646	2.325	2.325
Surface Acting	3.802		

4.10.2 Assessment of Significance and Relevance of Path Coefficients

In the second step, the study explores the significance and relevance of the hypothesised relationships. Therefore, the PLS algorithm was run. The path coefficients (P) estimates and coefficient determination (R^2) were obtained from this operation.

202

It is also imperative to identify the significance and degree of the path coefficients values by analysing the t-values obtained by executing a nonparametric bootstrapping procedure (Henseler, Ringle, et al., 2009b; Peng & Lai, 2012). The t-values were used to assess the path coefficient statistical significance. The critical t-value for a one/two-tailed test and significance level is presented in table 4.18.

Table 4. 18
T-values and significant levels for one and two-tailed hypotheses

One-tailed	Two-tailed	Significant level
1.280	1.645	10%
1.645	1.960	5%
l.960	2.575	1 %

The output from the bootstrapping procedure using 5000 sub-samples is shown in Figure 4.6 and is further presented in table 4.18.

203
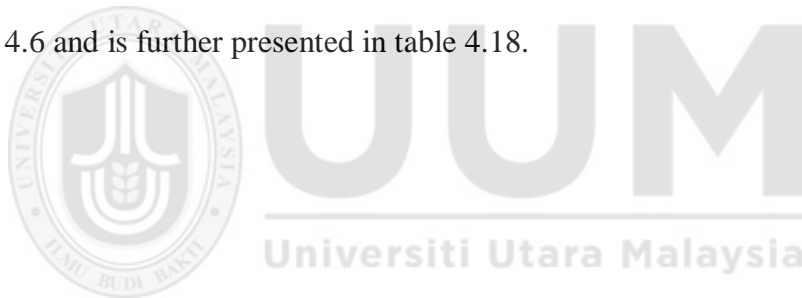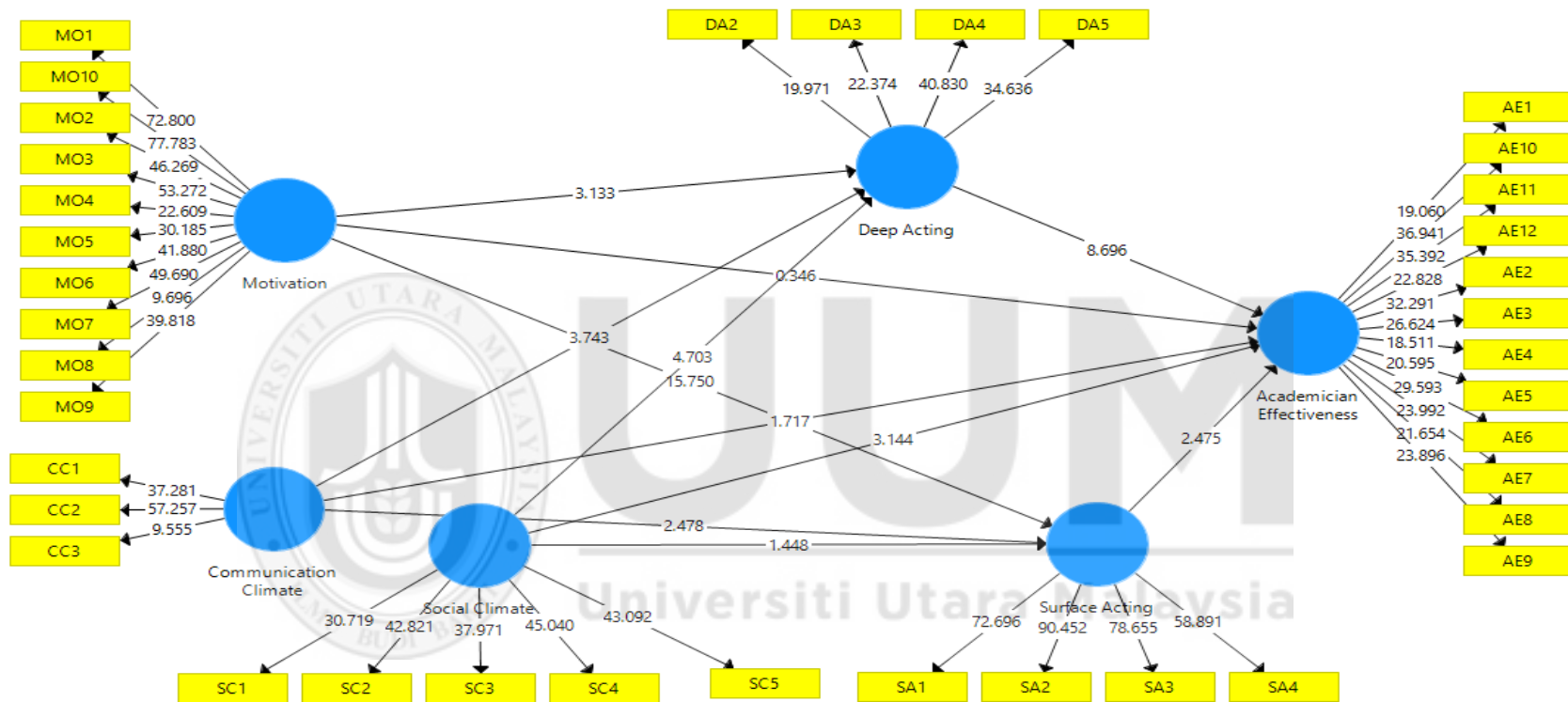
Figure 4. 6

Structural Model Assessment

From table 4.19 and figure 4.6, eleven direct relationships were examined. It was discovered that six were significant at 1 % significant level, and five were not significant i.e., communication climate has significant positive relationship with academician effectiveness ($\beta = 0.090$, t-value = 1.717 and p-value = 0.043). Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported. There is a significant positive relationship between communication climate and deep acting ($\beta = 0.256$, t-value = 3. 743 and p-value = 0.000). Therefore, hypothesis H2 was supported. communication climate has significant positive relationship with surface acting ($\beta = -0.118$, t-value = 2. 478 and p-value = 0.007). Therefore, hypothesis H3 is not supported. Deep acting has a significant positive relationship with academician effectiveness ($\beta = 0.491$, t-value = 8. 696 and p-value = 0.000).

Therefore, hypothesis 4 is supported. ln addition, the study didn't find a significant positive relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness ($\beta = 0.022$, t-value = 0. 341 and p-value = 0.365). Therefore, hypothesis H5 was not supported. Motivation has significant positive relationship with deep acting ($\beta = 0.195$, t-value = 3. 133 and p-value = 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis H6 is strongly supported. Motivation has significant positive relationship with surface acting ($\beta = -0.747$, t-value = 15. 750 and p-value = 0.000). Therefore, hypothesis H7 was not supported. Social climate has a significant positive relationship with academician effectiveness ($\beta = 0.213$, t-value = 3. 144 and p-value = 0.001). H8 was supported. Also, social climate has a significant positive relationship with deep acting ($\beta = 0.376$, t-value = 4. 703 and p-value = 0.000).

205

H9 was supported. Social climate has a significant positive relationship with surface acting (β = -0.089, t-value = 1. 448 and p-value = 0.074). Therefore, H10 wasn't supported. Finally, surface acting has a significant positive relationship with academician effectiveness (β = -0.179, t-value = 2. 475 and p-value = 0.007). therefore, hypothesis H11, too wasn't supported. (Appendix M)

Table 4. 19
Structural Model Assessment (Direct Effect)

Relationship	Std Beta	Std error	T- values	P Values	Decision
Communication Climate -> Academician Effectiveness	0.090	0.085	1.717	0.043	S
Communication Climate -> Deep Acting	0.256	0.258	3.743	0.000	S
Communication Climate -> Surface Acting	-0.118	-0.115	2.478	0.007	NS
Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.491	0.491	8.696	0.000	S
Motivation -> Academician Effectiveness	0.022	0.022	0.346	0.365	NS
Motivation -> Deep Acting	0.195	0.194	3.133	0.001	S
Motivation -> Surface Acting	-0.747	-0.745	15.750	0.000	NS
Social Climate -> Academician Effectiveness	0.213	0.216	3.144	0.001	S
Social Climate -> Deep Acting	0.376	0.372	4.703	0.000	S
Social Climate -> Surface Acting	-0.089	-0.093	1.448	0.074	NS
Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	-0.179	-0.182	2.475	0.007	NS

Note: •• Significant at 0.0 I (I-tailed), *significant al 0.05 (I-tailed), S = Supported, NS = Not Supported

4.10.3 Assessment of Coefficient of Determination (R²)

To measure the predictive accuracy of the models in PLS, researchers rely on the values of R^2, which implies the amount of variance in the constructs, which the model clarifies. It denotes the exogenous variables' joint effects on the endogenous variable. It is the most frequently used measure to estimate the structural model (Hair et al., 2014). For R^2 to have a satisfactory explanatory power level, it is essential to be considered adequate. Average R^2 values are adequate when a few exogenous latent variables (LVs) explain the endogenous LV (Henseler et al., 2009). In behavioural research standards, the R^2 value of 0.2 is comparatively high and satisfactory (Hair et al., 2014). According to Falk and Miller (1992), the value of R^2 for endogenous variables is acceptable if it is $\geq 10\%$. More so, according to Cohen (1988), the value of R^2 for endogenous LV(s) is substantial if it is ≥ 0.26 (26%), moderate if it is $\geq 0.$ I 3 (13%) and weak if it is ≥ 0.02 (2%) In the present research, the values of R^2 were obtained through the running of the PLS algorithm in Smart-PLS. As shown in Table 4.20, the LV (communication climate, deep acting, motivation, social climate, surface acting) explained 71% of the total variance in academician effectiveness. In addition, latent variables (motivation, communication climate, social climate) explained 50% of the total variance in deep acting. While (motivation, communication, and social climate) explained 74% of surface acting. This study's R^2 values (70% and 49 %) are substantial and moderate and therefore considered adequate in explaining the variance in endogenous variables (Falk & Miller, 1992; Ringle et al., 2010).

Table 4. 20
Coefficient of Determination (R²)

Latent Variables	R² (Variance Explained)	R² Percentage
Academician Effectiveness	0.713	0.71%
Deep Acting	0.497	0.50%
Surface Acting	0.736	0.74%

Often, R² is misleading and choosing a model based on the values of R² only is not a sound approach (Hair et al., 2016) because the "values of R², in themselves, are not sufficient to evaluate a model as successful (Duncan, 1975) P.66). Hence researchers need to go beyond it to assess their models, such as effect size (f²) and predictive relevance (Q²).

4.10.4. Assessment of Effect Size (f²)

As "significance testing is insufficient to describe the results" (Kline, 2015, p.209) and make inferences, researchers are therefore advised to report and interpret effect size (Kline, 2013). While R² values signify the composite contributions of all exogenous variables in the model, f² informs the individual contribution of each exogenous variable to the R²• In other words, what input does each exogenous variable add to the R² values? Does its absence cause a major increase in the R² values or not? If so, at what magnitude? Which exogenous variable adds more to the R² values?

209

The variance in the value of R² when the particular exogenous variable is detached from the model can be calculated to evaluate the considerable value of the detached variable on the endogenous variable. Hair et al. (2013) recommended this formula when assessing the f²values. Regarding the formula for expressing effect size (Cohen, 1988; Selya et al., 2012) opined for this method:

$$\text{Effect Sze: } f^2 = \frac{R^2 \text{ Included } - R^2 \text{Excluded}}{1 - R^2 \text{ Included}}$$

Whereas:
f² = effect sizes
R² incl = R-square included
R² excl = R-square excluded
1 = constant

Effect size (F^2) is described by Cohen (1998) as values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 as having weak, moderate, strong effects, respectively. According to Cohen (1988), if f²= 0.02, the construct in question has a small effect size. If f²= 0.15, it has a medium effect; if f²= 0.35, it has a large effect. Therefore, in this study, the PLS algorithm was run to get the values of f². Table 4.21 provides the result of f². From the table, it is conspicuous that the deep acting contributes more to R² than the other constructs in the model when predicting resilience (f²=0.421). Motivation contributes nothing (f²=0.000). But, in prediction, academician effectiveness, although small, contributes more to R² than the other predictors (f²=0.060), while communication climate contributes the least (f²=0.013).

Table 4. 21
Effect Size (f)

Relationships	f-squared Value	Effect size
Academician Effectiveness		
Communication Climate	0.013	None
Deep Acting	0.421	Large
Motivation	0.000	None
Social Climate	0.060	Small
Surface Acting	0.030	Small

4.10.5. Assessment of Predictive Relevance (Q²)

According to Hair et al. (2016), to complement the R² in explaining the predictive relevance of the research model, the Q² value also needs to be assessed. Stone-Geiser's Q² is frequently used as a predictive relevance measure. Q² evaluates the predictive ability of the research model (Henseler et al., 2009). Using the blindfolding procedure (an adapted version of the Jack-knife method) in PLS-SEM, Q² values > 0 imply that the exogenous LVs possess the predictive relevance for the endogenous variable (Chin; 20I0; Hair et al., 2011). ln contrast, a Q² value > O shows that the research model does not work more than the simple average of the endogenous latent variable would do (Sarstedt, Ringle, Henseler, & Hair, 20 l 4). According to Henseler et al. (2009, p.305), "The blindfolding procedure is only applied to endogenous latent variables that have a reflective measurement model operationalization".

211

Since this study has reflective measurement, to get the cross-validated redundancy, blindfolding procedure was conducted using SmartPLS 3. Table 4.22 indicates that the Q² value of academician effectiveness (0.432) is > 0, implying that the current research model has good predictive relevance. (Appendix O)

Table 4. 22
Predictive capability of the Model (Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy)

Latent Variables	SSO	SSE	Q2(=1-SSE/SSO)
Academician Effectiveness	2796.000	1587.931	0.432

4.11 Testing for Mediation

After determining the direct effect of exogenous and endogenous variables, the study investigated the linkages using mediators (indirect effect). Many statistical methods are available to make conclusions and confidence intervals (Cls). When evaluating the mediation effect, including Monte Carlo approximation to the DPR (Preacher & Selig, 2012), an analytical approximation to the distribution of the product (DPR) was made (MacKinnon et al., 2007), resampling/bootstrapping (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), asymptotic/traditional (Baron & Kenny, 1986). M These approaches merit/demerit in software availability, interpretation, empirical performance, and computational ease (Falk & Biesanz, 2016). Therefore, due to the inherent shortcomings of each of these approaches, Falk & Biesanz (2016, p.11) claimed, " reliance on traditional methods (e.g., Sobel's test) likely results in many indirect effects that go undetected due to statistical power that is too low."

212

Likewise, Sobel's test is "inappropriate because it rests on the assumption that the product of the coefficients is normally distributed, which is not the case even when the coefficients themselves are normally" (Aguinis, Edwards, & Bradley, 2017) P.12). Nevertheless, the current study used two new methods to mediation test, i.e., "partial posterior p-value calculator for mediation analysis pt and "confidence interval calculator for mediation analysis-CIHB" (Biesanz et al., 2010; Falk & Biesanz, 2016) to test the mediation effect. Moreover, the bootstrapping approach (Aguinis et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2014; Hayes, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Overall, the results are in table 4.23. confirm the mediating ability of deep acting in the relationship between communication climate and academician effectiveness – H12 (P=0.000, T-3.453, Cl=0.064, 0.183), between social climate and academician effectiveness – H13 (P=0.000, T-4.286, CI=0.120, 0.267), and between motivation and academician effectiveness – H14 (P=0.002, T-2.963, CI= 0.047, 0.153) and therefore, H12, H13 and H14 were supported. Furthermore, the results in table 4.22. confirm the mediating ability of surface acting in the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness – H15 (P=0.136, T 1.100, Cl=0.000, 0.046), between motivation and academician effectiveness – H16 (P=0.007, T-2.478, CI=0.047, 0.220), and between communication climate and academician effectiveness – H17 (P=0.042, T-1.729, CI= 0.005, 0.047) and therefore, H16, H17 were supported. However, H15 was not supported. (Appendix N).

Table 4. 23
Result of Mediation effect (Hypotheses testing) Using Bootstrapping

Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	T-Value	P-values	LLCI	ULCI	Decision
Communication Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.126	0.127	3.453	0.000	0.064	0.183	S
Social Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.184	0.182	4.286	0.000	0.120	0.267	S
Social Climate -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.016	0.018	1.100	0.136	0.000	0.046	NS
Motivation -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.134	0.135	2.478	0.007	0.047	0.220	S
Motivation -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.096	0.095	2.963	0.002	0.047	0.153	S
Communication Climate -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.021	0.021	1.729	0.042	0.005	0.047	S

Note: S = Supported, NS= Not Supported

214

4.11.1 Determining the Type of Effect and/or of Mediation

A mediating effect is said to exist when the indirect effect (a x b) is significant. The contemporary literature on mediation deliberates two main types of mediation: partial and full. Partial mediation can be separated into competitive and complementary (see Figure 4.7).
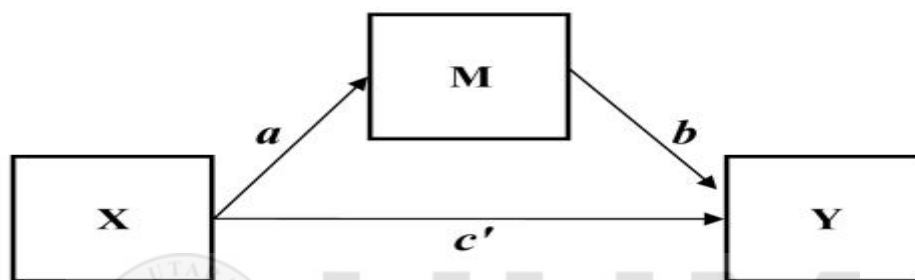
Figure 4. 7
Mediation Model

A full mediation occurs when a x b is significant, and the direct effect (c') is not significant. It means that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is transmitted with the help of a mediating variable. In other words, the existence of a x b renders c' insignificant. On the other hand, partial mediation occurs in a situation where both the c' and a x b are significant. When c' and a x b point in the same direction (positive or negative), there is complementary partial mediation (the product a x b x c ' is positive). But, when c' and a x b point in a different direction

215

(positive or negative), it is competitive partial mediation (the product a x b x c' is

negative) (Nitzl et al., 2018).
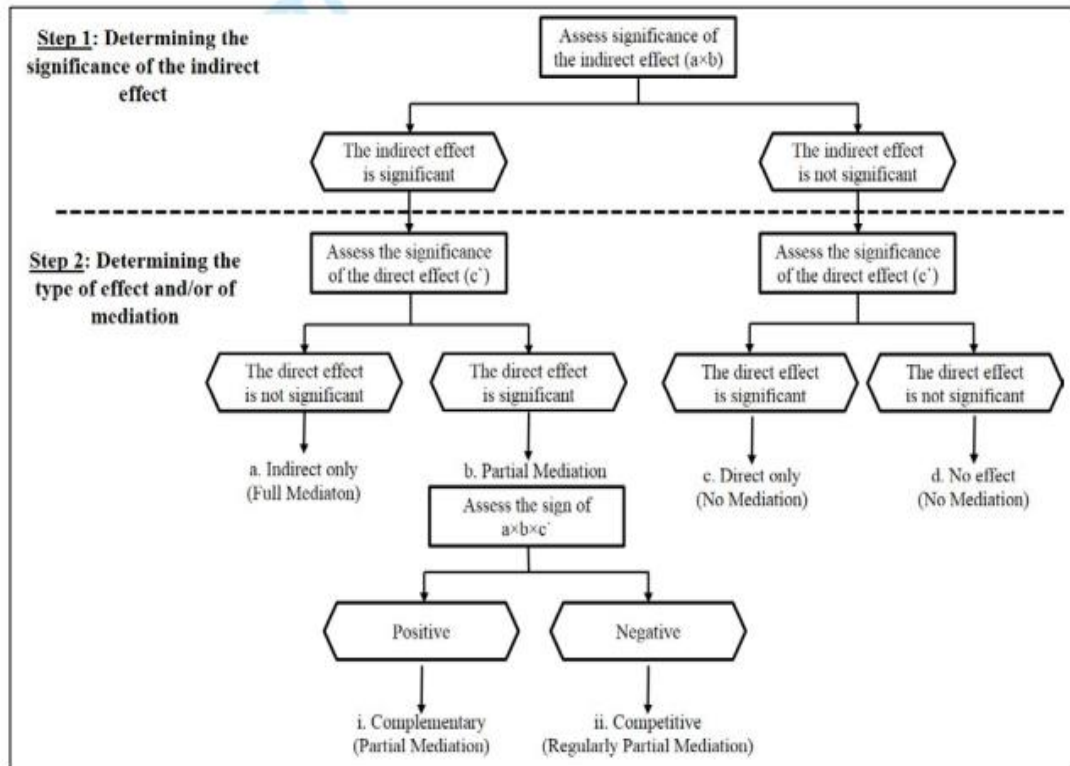
Figure 4. 8

Mediator analysis procedure in PLS

Source: (Nitzl et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2010).

Since this study found both a x b and c' (see table 4.24) is significant, it is concluded that the five mediation hypotheses (Communication Climate->Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness, Social Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness, Motivation -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness, Motivation -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness and Communication Climate -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness) are complimentary mediations. Hence, the above procedure (figure 4.8) was followed to determine the type of mediation.

217

Table 4. 24

Determining the type of effect and/or of mediation

Relationships	a x b x c'	Mediation Type
Communication Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.256 x 0.491 x 0.090 = 0.011	Complementary
Social Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.376 x 0.491 x 0.213 = 0.039	Complementary
Motivation -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	-0.747 x -0.179 x 0.022=0.786	Complementary
Motivation -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.195 x 0.491 x 0.022= 0.022	Complementary
Communication Climate -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	-0.118 x-0.179 x 0.090= 118	Complementary

The product, a x b x c' in Table 4.24 is positive. it indicates that the five mediation hypotheses (H11, 12 H 13, H14, H15, and H16) are complementary mediations.

4.12 Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis (IPMA)

Recently, another development in the PLS statistical software and series of PLS analyses is the analysis of the relative importance of the exogenous LVs. Including their impact on the endogenous LVs could be done using importance-performance matrix analysis (IPMA), also called priority map analysis or impact performance map. It is originated by Slack, 1994 and has been popular in the PLS-SEM (Höck et al., 2010; Völckner et al., 2010). In fact, "lPMA is a PLS application par excellence" (Henseler, 2016b).

218

IPMA surfaces to extend and complement the result of the model, and it builds based on the regression coefficient (unstandardized), but inserts another aspect that takes into account the values of the exogenous LVs articulated in terms of a performance index which rescaled (e.g., 1 -5 scale) to 0-l.00 by identifying the comparative importance of the exogenous LVs and assessing their direct, indirect, and total relationships to the endogenous LVs. More so, it extends the result by recognising the importance of exogenous LVs. Consequently, inferences can be drawn on importance as well as performance, which is primarily significant in prioritizing decision-making. It is, thus, better for decision-makers to concentrate on LVs that are more important in explaining a certain endogenous LVs, and simultaneously possess a comparatively little performance. In other words, the main target of IPMA is to identify LVs that possess relatively high importance for the endogenous LVs (those with strong total effect) but at the same time have relatively low performance (Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016).

Table 4. 25
Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis (IPMA)

Constructs	Importance (Total Effect)	Performances
Communication Climate	0.236	73.079
Deep Acting	0.491	77.712
Motivation	0.251	72.172
Social Climate	0.413	69.235
Surface Acting	-0.179	-32.841
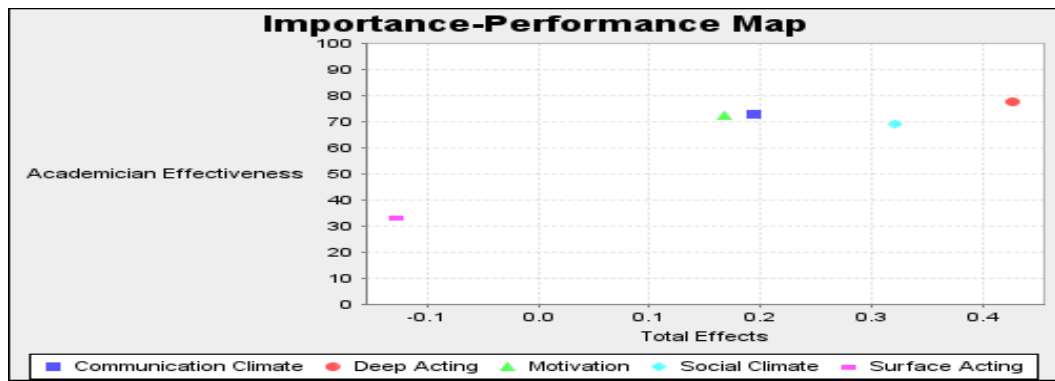
Figure 4. 9
Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis (IPMA).

Table 4.25, and the graphs in Fig. 4.9, display the relative performance and importance of the exogenous LVs (Communication Climate, Deep Acting, Social Climate, Social Climate, Surface Acting, Motivation) concerning the main endogenous LV (academician effectiveness). This study, therefore, found that the latent variable deep acting has the highest performance level, almost at a comparable level with social climate. In addition, surface acting has the lowest value of both performance and importance. As IPMA suggests, priority should be given to areas of high relative importance and low performance; therefore, deep acting should be given more priority as it exhibits more important when considering the effectiveness of academicians.

4.13 Model Fit

As researchers were encouraged to measure their model fit (Henseler et al., 2014), this study examines it using the approximate model fit standard in PLS path modelling, which is the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Henseler et al., 2014). The SRMR is "the square root of the sum of the squared differences between the model implied and the empirical correlation matrix," i.e., SRMR values estimate the

220

difference between empirical correlation and model-implied correlation matrices (Henseler, 2016, p.9). Several cut-off values have been proposed, but an SRMR value near zero indicates fit, while an absolute zero value indicates perfect model fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) showed that a value of 0.08 is more suitable for fitting PLS path models (Henseler, 2016). As a result, the SRMR score in this study is 0.061, indicating that the composite factor model fits the data.

4.14. Summary of Findings

Having analysed and presented the study results, both direct and indirect (mediating) effects in preceding sections, Table 4.26 summarizes the results of all the tested hypotheses.

Table 4. 26
Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Statement	Findings
H1	There is significant positive relationship between Communication climate and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
H2	There is significant positive relationship between Communication Climate and Deep Acting	**Supported**
H3	There is significant negative relationship between Communication Climate and Surface Acting	**Not Supported**
H4	There is significant positive relationship between Deep Acting and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**

221

H5		There is significant positive relationship between Motivation and Academician Effectiveness	**Not Supported**
H6		There is significant positive relationship between Motivation and Deep Acting	**Supported**
H7		There is significant negative relationship between Motivation and Surface Acting	**Not Supported**
H8		There is significant positive relationship between Social Climate and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
H9		There is significant positive relationship between Social Climate and Deep Acting	**Supported**

Table 4.26 Continued

H10	There is significant positive relationship between Social Climate and Surface Acting	Not Supported
H11	There is significant positive relationship between Surface Acting and Academic Effectiveness	**Not Supported**
H12	Deep acting mediates the relationship between Communication Climate and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
H13	Deep acting mediates the relationship between Social Climate and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
H14	Surface Acting mediates the relationship between Social Climate and Academician Effectiveness	**Not Supported**
H15	Surface Acting mediates the relationship between Motivation and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
H16	Deep Acting mediates the relationship between Motivation and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
H17	Surface Acting mediates the relationship between Communication Climate and Academician Effectiveness	**Supported**
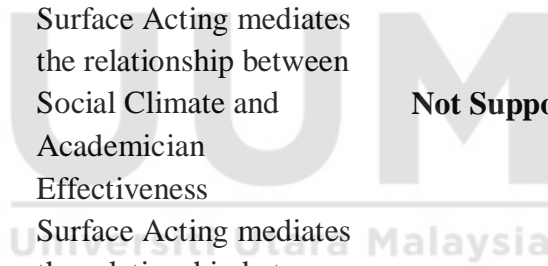
4.15 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the result of the analysis using SPSS and PLS-SEM software. The interrater agreement supported combining academician effectiveness, communication climate, social climate, deep acting, surface acting, and motivation teams to produce averaged, aggregated scores of respective teams. To prepare the data for analysis, preliminary analyses using SPSS version 23 were carried out, where data were treated against missing values, outliers, non-normality, multicollinearity, CMV, and non-response bias. After passing these tests, the data were subjected to rigorous analysis using the PLS-SEM software (Smart-PLS version 3). This study evaluates the outer model before the structural model to verify its validity and reliability. In so doing, measurement reliability (Individual and internal consistency reliability) and measurement validity (discriminant and convergent validity) were evaluated and established.

Consequently, the structural model was evaluated, and the main estimation criteria for the outer model used in this study were the coefficient of determination (R^2), assessment of the path coefficients level and significance, examining the direct and indirect effects, effect size determination, ascertainment of the predictive relevance of the model, calculating lPMA and finally model fit. Specifically, when examining the direct and indirect effects, table 4.26 presents the summary results of the hypotheses testing. Therefore, the next chapter (Chapter 5) elucidates these findings, discusses the implications, presents the limitations, suggests the direction for future research, and concludes the study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.0 Introduction

In the last chapter, the results of the study have been presented. In this chapter, attempts will be made to discuss the results found in academic staff lecturing in public universities in north-western Nigeria. This chapter was organized as follows: recapitulations of the study findings, discussions on the research hypotheses, and implications of the research on theory and practice were presented. Next, the present research limitations and directions for future research were highlighted, followed by the study's conclusions.

5.1 Recapitulation of the Study Findings

The current research examined the impact of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness. The study also examined the mediating role of emotional labour in the relationship between motivation, organizational climate, and academician effectiveness. To be specific, the first objective of this study is to examine the impact of motivation on academician effectiveness. The second objective is to investigate the relationship between organisational climate and academician effectiveness.

The third objective is to the relationship between motivation and emotional labour. The fourth objective is to investigate the relationship between organizational climate and emotional labour. The fifth objective is to investigate the mediation effect between emotional labour and academician effectiveness.

The sixth objective investigates the mediation effect between emotional labour, organisational climate, and academician effectiveness. Data were gathered from two sources: lecturers and their students from 13 public universities in northwestern Nigeria students evaluated their relationship with lecturers (academician effectiveness), while their lecturers (academicians) evaluated themselves (motivation, organizational climate, and mediating variable (emotional labour). The questionnaires were distributed to 2685 students and 537 lecturers across 537 groups. Each questionnaire was coded with a researcher-assigned identification number to match lecturers and students. The usable sample was composed of 233 lecturers and 1165 students, giving a response rate of 43.3 percent to lecturers and 43.6 percent to students, respectively. The number of respondents per team ranged from three to five, with an average of four respondents per team. As the study operationalized the constructs at the team level, the data were aggregated individual students' responses on the scales to compute a single score for each team. The within-group interrater reliability (rwg, James et al., 1984) was used to examine the appropriateness of aggregation. Finally, the Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and PLS-SEM were used for data analysis. This research utilized SPSS to conduct data screening and descriptive analysis tests. PLS-SEM is designed to examine interrelationships between variables. This research utilised PLS-SEM to conduct bootstrapping and path analysis hypothesis testing. For hypotheses results, the findings of this study indicated that six direct relationships were significantly and positively related to academician effectiveness.

226

Therefore, H1, H2, H4, H6, H8, and H12 were supported. Hence H3, H5, H7, H9, H10, and H11 were not supported. Similarly, results concerning the mediating hypothesis revealed that H12, H13, H15, H16, and H17 were supported. The results also further revealed that H14 of the mediation analysis was not supported.

5.2 Discussion

To answer the six sets of questions, namely;

1. Does organizational climate have any effect on academician effectiveness?
2. Does motivation have any effect on academician effectiveness?

3. Does motivation have any effect on emotional labour?

4. Does organizational climate have any effect on emotional labour?

5. Is there any relationship between emotional labour and academician effectiveness?

6. Is there any mediating effect between emotional labour, motivation,

   organisational climate, and academician effectiveness?

A thorough literature review of the variables under consideration was conducted, as presented in chapter two. The theoretical model used in this study depicted the direct relationships between independent variables (motivation, organizational climate) and the dependent variables (academician effectiveness).

More so, the study demonstrates the mediating effect of emotional labour in the relationship between motivation, organizational climate (independent variables), and academician effectiveness (dependent variable). This section explicitly focuses on the following points. Firstly, the relationships between independent variables (motivation, organizational climate) and the dependent variables (academician effectiveness) are explained. Then, the relationships between the mediating variable (emotional labour), independent and dependent variables are elaborated.

5.2.1 Communication Climate and Academician Effectiveness

The current research investigated the relationship between organisational climate and academician effectiveness regarding the first research question. As expected, a significant positive result was revealed from this finding showing that the importance of communication climate to academician effectiveness is significant. First, the positive influence of communication climate on lecturers' effectiveness was tested, and the effect was significant. The result reinforces the importance of communication climate between academicians and their students because it is directly related to the norms, attitudes, feelings, and behavior of the individuals that create a communication climate. It is a special relationship tone that describes how people behave with one another at their particular place. This result also highlights the importance of an effective academician. The supported hypothesis shows that effective academicians are the catalytic agents of any educational process, and it was confirmed through various educational policies of different countries.

According to Mintz (2022), the achievement or success of any educational institute is directly related to the strength and capabilities of its academics. This is because the development of our younger generation is in the hands of academics. They can shape the attitude and behavior of their students through their own way of teaching. From an educational viewpoint, teaching is considered one of the most significant contributing factors to student development. Therefore, academics act as a dominant part of any educational structure and can make or break the structure of educational institutes. In this matter, the academic's effectiveness plays a significant role because it is considered a critical component of the teaching-learning process.

A good communication climate has increased immensely in educational organizations because it comprises many components that shape an environment of interaction that directly or indirectly influences an individual's attitude and behavior(Turk & Wolfe, 2019). Whenever a social unit of people works to meet a need or to pursue collective goals, they form an organization. Thus, it can be submitted that academicians have been encouraging students' involvement, accepting comprehensive arguments of evidence, and enhancing productive encounter resolution, which will lead to a supportive environment that excels in communication climate for the student's success.

The result shows that when the act of teaching is carried out in a flexible and interactive communication climate, it will lead to a positive outcome. These are such as improvement in teaching excellence, adapting to global best practices, improved instructional delivery, improved relationships with students, and adapting higher order thinking skills in relating with the students.

Therefore, lecturers must communicate with students and colleagues positively. High-quality mutuality (in terms of a positive communication climate) will spur lecturers to interact more positively with their students. With an effective communication climate, teaching, and learning will improve, and long-term student retention and graduation rates will increase (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine 2020; Benton and Young 2018; Miller and Seldin 2014). Providing evidence of these practices and resulting improvements through a reflection process will make this work visible to others (Gibbons et al. 2018; Smith et al. 2014; Seldin 2000; Drinkwater, Matthews, and Seiler 2017; Zubizarreta 1999; Seldin, Miller, and Seldin 2010). This will lead academic units to embrace approaches in communication that can enhance their teaching effectiveness. This in turn will lead to institutional transformations as the importance of teaching is increased and the communication climate around teaching improves and becomes more transparent. These findings corroborate earlier researches by (Zhou et al., 2019b), (Mann & Cowburn, 2005), and (Alsawalqa 2020).

A good communication climate positions lecturers in realizing their full potentials. Effectiveness among academicians is expected to be high in an organisation with a high level of humanistic relationships, collegiality, and participation, resulting in higher educational success. To create a better and more positive climate for school organisations, academicians must have a relationship based on equality and mutual respect. The basis for decision-making must be debate and discussion. The way people conduct themselves individually and collectively directly impacts the organization's atmosphere. There is a need to foster an environment that encourages teachers to work together.

230

This result agrees with Blau's Social Exchange Theory (SET) (1964a, which emphasizes reciprocity in a relationship between parties. The SET advocates that individuals are motivated by self-interest and maximise profits while reducing expenses. When expenses outweigh benefits, or one side perceives another relationship to be more profitable, the relationship is likely to be dissolved in favour of a better one. Thu SET highlights the significance of knowing costs, incentives, and profits (Sabatelli et al., 2018). In this study, the lecturers would demonstrate a high level of effectiveness in the presence of a positive communication climate with students, colleagues, and university management.

5.2.2 Communication Climate and Deep Acting

Generally, in a democratic workplace, information processing and quality relationships are viewed as sources of power that allow employees to have a more macro perspective of where their organizations fit and effectively coordinate and cooperate. Fulfilling the needs and wants of employees is the function of communication in the workplace (Cheney, 1995). This study found that communication climate was positively and significantly related to academician effectiveness. This result is congruent with the findings (Alsawalqa, 2020) and (Zhou et al., 2019b) that found a positive relationship between communication climate and deep acting. Communication climate in employee interactions represents factors that affect the quality of work life and the efficiency of an organization. This is because many businesses have realised the benefits of an open-plan workspace to facilitate easy communication and social interactions among employees. As organizations, Google

231

and Facebook have been creatively adapting their workplaces to include amusing components (Akorede, 2018).

The supported hypothesis indicates that a positive communication climate among lecturers and their management is an antecedent to improved effectiveness in all facets. More outstandingly, communication climate can effectively improve their deep acting at work, which is required in institutions of higher learning. This research results further reveal that a positive communication climate can contribute to deep acting for the following reasons. First, internal happiness is generated by a good communication climate, which inspires employees to execute deep acting as social interchange. In a collectivist society, the entire process of cultural values is built on social exchange (Hwang, 2017). When employees perceive love from their employer and colleagues in a stable climate where they can communicate freely, they are more willing to invest in resources to perform better at work and be better effective (Wang et al., 2019).

Second, Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2012) contended that freedom of communication experienced at a workplace is a desirable element required by all organizations. When lecturers enjoy their communication climate, they can easily be expressive, free, and sociable with employers and students. Third, lecturers acquire social and emotional support from colleagues to conduct deep acting by establishing team-level emotional relationships in a favourable setting (Grandey, 2003). Employees can absorb triumphant personal tales about deep acting from colleagues, students, and employers through the support of colleagues received through an expressive communication climate (Tews et al., 2017).

232

The study agrees with the SET assumptions, which postulates that people tend to respond to the treatment they receive from others (Cropanzano et al., 2017b). Over time, likable communications lead to positive interactions (Lawler & Yoon 1993) and closer social relationships characterized by high levels of inter-exchange and communication (Bishop et al., 2000, 2005). A positive communication climate induces colleagues' support, such as direct aid, emotional support, and attempts to change the circumstances. SET connections are more likely to engage in open-ended exchanges than others that are not (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As a result, they entail a certain level of susceptibility and risk. As a result, when employees work as part of a team that engages in profound acts, they have enough knowledge of their co-worker's emotions to form helpful social exchange relationships. Specifically, from this result, lecturers have displayed more support from teammates, colleagues, and students due to increased deep acting.

5.2.3 Communication Climate and Surface Acting

The present study showed a negative relationship between communication climate and surface acting. This finding agrees with Park et al. (2015), that revealed a negative relationship between communication climate and emotional labor. Emotional labor is described as the management of feelings to display externally observable facial expressions or gestures (Hochschild, 1983); emotional labor that cannot be expressed verbally might be expressed nonverbally without one's awareness.

233

The communication climate is an essential component that can affect an individual's effectiveness when negatively associated with emotional labour (Park and Jung, 2016).

This hypothesis demonstrates a negative association between communication climate and surface acting, implying that many higher education authorities in Nigeria should investigate why lecturers fake their emotions. The finding that communication climate is negatively related to surface acting highlights the complex relationship between surface acting and communication climate in academic institutions. In contrast to Grant (2013), it is feasible that employees who surface act in specific situations may feel less safe and may, thus, communicate. This is especially true given that the communication climate is a reasonably good predictor of overall academic efficiency (Rogelberg et al., 2010). In the Nigerian context, where emotional labour is not frequently practiced, academics did not have to focus on masking genuine emotions. This result reveals that the Nigerian academic's cognitive and emotional energy is saved by engaging in less surface acting. This may be why the lecturers communicate less, perceiving communication as an obstacle. Such employees can commit resources to things like paying attention, gathering useful information, and networking, all of which can help them perceive the meeting as effective in satisfying the particular employee's meeting goals. According to the current study, surface acting is negatively associated with views of communication at work. This is because academics do not employ surface acting as an emotional regulation strategy, which adds to the increasing corpus of research on emotional labour.

234

Prior research has suggested that "both deep and surface acting are likely to increase employees' beliefs that it is safe and worthwhile to speak up, enhancing the probability that they will do so" (Grant, 2013 p. 1701). As a result, if the communication atmosphere improves, emotional labour (surface acting) diminishes (Kwon & Ahn, 2018). Therefore, when planning and implementing intervention programs to reduce emotional labour and increase academic success, communication climate should be considered. In addition, support services for dealing with emotional concerns should be provided to improve the communication atmosphere among academic staff.

Furthermore, this study implies that communication, rather than just communication in general, is a key element in mitigating the detrimental impacts of emotional labour (Xu, et al., 2017). The Nigerian academic should be encouraged to have a pleasant communication climate with co-workers, in particular as it may allow for higher psychological benefits by giving a socially acceptable avenue for expressing one's emotional intention and improving academician effectiveness. (McCormack et al., 2015) that is not available in less intimate relationships. Findings submit that a positive communication climate in an organization can shield lecturers who experience emotional labor from negative outcomes, such as intending to leave an institution (Cohen & Wills, 1985). This result is more likely true in Nigerian collectivist society, where social interaction and group cohesiveness are valued (Mordi, 2017).

Indeed, increased interaction with close coworkers or employers has been shown to reduce the negative effects of many personal and professional life areas, including unemployment, divorce, and major health concerns (Linn & McGranahan, 1980). Furthermore, deep communication is especially important because it mitigates the potentially negative implications of the emotional work involved in academics among higher learning institutions.

5.2.4 Deep Acting and Academician Effectiveness

Hypothesis 4 revealed positive relationship between deep acting and academician effectiveness. This indicates that the academic staff internalises the desired emotional expressions when dealing with employers, students, and other faculty members. This reinforces the notion that academician effectiveness is often revealed in terms of style, technology aid, faculty expertise, feedback mechanisms, etc. Such conformity might elevate faculty members' persona (Gaan, 2012a). This result is congruent with the nature of numerous emotional labour approaches, which echoes the argument of Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) concerning the effects of diverse emotional labour strategies on individuals' emotional well-being. It could be posited that the emotional feelings created by deep acting may strengthen lecturers' sense of effectiveness in their job. Deep acting aims to align one's required and true feelings. This is achieved by changing one's bodily language and innermost moods by utilising imagination or remembering previous happy experiences to create positive emotions. This result could be elucidated by the SET (Blau, 1964).

236

For example, academic staff may have reciprocated the pleasantness or otherwise from employers, colleagues, or students by considering their point of view to assist them. Academic employees may have also utilized emotional management tactics to sustain the pleasant moods created by employers, students, and colleagues. (Isen, 1984). More crucially, for the sake of this discussion, these findings demonstrated that the model, or its absorption, revealed that deep acting occurs when work events are favourable.

Taylor (2020) stressed that academicians actively nurtured healthy and warm emotional ties with their students, demonstrating profound levels of compassion and moral direction. Nevertheless, Cowie (2003) stated that lecturers' emotional relationships with their colleagues were also commonly unhappy and frustrating due to a lack of shared values and beliefs. Also, Hughes and Cao (2018) elucidated that lecturers and academic institutions should collaborate to evaluate emotions to improve emotional warmth with students and the quality of morals used in the classroom (Yin, 2015b). This finding agrees with Bolton's (2005) argument about the role of philanthropic emotion management in the workplace. Emotional labour will not boost academicians' performance unless the lecturers have a strong sense of duty, recognise the institution's importance, employment, and students' feelings honestly (Zheng, 2017b). Only this form of genuine emotional labour will be acknowledged by students and receive favourable feedback. To put it another way, to reap the benefits of emotional labour in teaching, academicians must consider it a sacred mission and love their jobs and students with all their hearts. They display genuine emotions in front of students, and the compassion and tolerance they treat them are entire of their own.

Students can only respond positively to the academician's emotional effort and improve effectiveness in this fashion.

5.2.5 Motivation and Academician Effectiveness

The result of hypothesis 5 revealed that no significant relationship existed between motivation and academician effectiveness. This result is congruent with Berondo (2020) findings, which implied that academicians had to perform their duties and responsibilities to be effective lecturers regardless of the motivation needs of lecturers. These findings are supported by (Villalon & Rolla 2001). The study showed no significant relationship between the teachers' job satisfaction and effectiveness. As underpinned by SET theory (Blau, 1964), there is a reciprocal relationship between working groups in an organization. For example, lecturers are more likely to elucidate more effectiveness in return when motivated by situations in the organization.

The possible reason for the lack of support for the hypothesis could be that lecturers are aware of the multiple roles they have to play to facilitate learning in the classroom and cannot be bothered because they don't feel motivated to (Akpan, 2013). In the Nigerian context, a plethora of evidence from the research literature on the motivation issues of academics in Nigeria reveals that relevant documents and key stakeholders' views suggest a motivation crisis among academics in tertiary education in Nigeria. No school system can be higher in quality than the level of motivation and job commitment of teachers. The Nigerian educational system appears to be staffed by academics with poor morale and low commitment to their work.

This study argues that Nigerian academics do not enjoy the progression of being the noblest of all professions and that, given the pitiable level of motivation, they have to give their best as teachers and work under impossible conditions (Akpan, 2013). As such, their effectiveness is under threat. It demonstrates that instruction is most successful when it is delivered quickly in response to a student's demand. Therefore, the government and other labor employers should pay attention to the workers' motivational incentives. The employers of labour in Nigeria should note that the allowances, fringe benefits, promotions, merit awards, and in-service trainings are crucial incentives motivating workers to work hard.

Therefore, in the context of this study, there is no reciprocity. The development of motivation enables the individuals to promote enthusiasm that would allow them to do their job effectively and accomplish the desired objectives. In educational institutions, lecturers contribute enormously to achieving educational goals and objectives and promoting effective student growth and development. The job responsibilities of the teachers are not only limited to imparting knowledge and information to the students in terms of academic concepts, but they also need to teach them the traits of morality and ethics. The teachers need to possess adequate knowledge and information regarding the subjects and concepts they are teaching. These factors are regarded as significant in enhancing motivation among teachers to implement their job duties in a well-organized manner. Still, when they are lacking, academicians lose morale and become demotivated. Within educational institutions, teachers are also required to remain updated on modern and innovative methods and strategies.

239

This result may also suggest the lack of support for academic staff in providing these facilities for their motivational effort. Therefore, with an adequate understanding of these categories, teachers may be able to augment their motivation levels for their job duties (Han & Yin, 2016).

5.2.6 Motivation and Deep Acting

The result of hypothesis 6 revealed that motivation is significantly and positively related to deep acting, indicating that motivated employees are more likely to feel the emotions required to carry out a job task. This finding is consistent with that of Li and Wang (2016) and therefore verifies Hypothesis 6. Owing to this significant role of the deep acting strategy of emotional labor, employees with affective motives or traits that are congruent with the work environment should be attracted to academics since this person-organization fit turns to increases deep acting (Grandey, 2003a; Ozcelik, 2013). According to Diefendorff and colleagues' conceptualization (2005), The organisation establishes positive and negative emotion presentation rules because the motivational underpinnings for engaging in emotion control appear to be diverse for various tactics, at least for deep acting (Truta, 2014a).

Moreover, academicians should exhibit supportive behavior toward their management or superiors to align affective motives and goals with the organization. According to Grandey (2000, employees expect positive emotions toward clients, and having support from supervisors and co-workers may translate into more deployment of the deep acting strategy of emotional labor.

240

The finding suggests that academicians with higher motivation levels are more likely to engage in deep acting when relating with superiors and colleagues. This result is congruent with SET (Blau, 1964). When academic staff perceives that the management of their institution places high value on welfare, well-being, or emotional condition, they are more likely to reciprocate by giving their best commitment and dedication work.

5.2.7 Motivation and Surface Acting

On the contrary, Hypotheses 7 appeared to be statistically insignificant and were rejected. The result revealed no significant positive relationship between motivation and surface acting (refer to Table 4.12). According to Grandey (2000), employees expect positive emotions toward clients, and having support from employers, students, and colleagues may translate into less employment of the surface acting strategy of emotional labor. In this case, academic staff may display the genuine emotions required to accomplish a job task. Furthermore, supportive supervisors and a work environment may indirectly enable employees to cope with the stress of their service jobs.

The plausible reason for the current result could be that most lack the most important antecedents for deploying a specific emotional labour strategy required by employees. In this context, surface acting appears to be diminishing the potency of academicians' effectiveness, as seen by the negative link between the two variables (Gaan, 2012a).

241

The cause could be ascribed to stress or burnout that developed during the performance of emotional labour, which is congruent with previous studies (Brotheridge & Grandey 2002, Brotheridge & Lee 1998, Grandey 2003, Zammuner & Galli 2005, Zammuner & Lotto 2001). Students expect their lecturers to show genuine emotions when conducting deep acting. Fake feelings undermine students' faith and belief in the subject matter presented, regardless of which pedagogy the lecture may have used with the aid of cutting-edge technology. Based on this result and in the Nigerian context, emotional labour is yet to receive significant attention. As a result, plays a minimal function in predicting academician effectiveness which may boost effectiveness in teaching. (Naring et.al. 2006).

This result is congruent with the study by Burić and Frenzel (2020), which noted that displaying unreal emotions in the form of surface acting was unrelated to good teaching technique. This shows that while suppressing and faking emotions are cognitively taxing, they appear to function quite differently in the classroom setting. For example, to motivate a low-achieving student, a teacher may exaggerate their pride and happiness when the student completes a task. Alternatively, if students speak during an essential session, a teacher may act enraged with them to get them to stop misbehaving. Faking emotions in such situations may improve the quality of a teacher's instructional behaviour while compensating for the exhausting consequences such faking has on academician effectiveness. This result agrees with SET (Blau, 1964) in the sense that when academic staff perceived that if school management of their respective institutions doesn't place a high value on their emotional needs, they are more likely not to reciprocate by not becoming committed and effective accordingly.

242

5.2.8 Social Climate and Academician Effectiveness

As hypothesized, the social climate in the Nigerian context significantly predicts academician effectiveness. The study's finding shows that the institution's social climate affects the academic, professional, and social situations of academician effectiveness. Therefore, social climate does have a significant impact on academician effectiveness. This result validates the conclusions of (Mckenna 1999). Also, this result is similar to previous studies by (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016; İhtiyaroğlu & Ottekin Demirbolat, 2016; Manaf et al., 2015; Mani, 2018) that found a positive relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness.

This result indicates that the quality, quantity, and direction of these social climate relationships in schools between teachers, colleagues, and students further affect the effectiveness of academicians (Garba et al., 2018). Therefore, academician effectiveness is high in an organization with a high level of humanistic relationships, collegiality, and engagement, resulting in higher educational performance. To develop a better and good climate for school organisation, lecturers, especially their students, must have a relationship based on equality and mutual respect. The basis for decision-making must be debate and discussion. The way people conduct themselves individually and collectively directly impacts the organization's atmosphere. There is a need to foster an environment that encourages academics, co-workers, and students to collaborate.

Through social climate, the generally long-lasting quality of the internal environment that members perceive influences their behaviour and may be represented in terms of values of a certain set of organisational features, university management should aid in creating a favourable teaching environment, resulting in increased teacher effectiveness. It will make the lecturers aware of the need to provide a conducive learning environment for students. As we advance, the relationship between academicians and students should be warm, and a friendly climate facilitates successful learning transfer and, as a result, increased academic achievement among students (Mani, 2018). The study's findings will also assist school administrators in comprehending the importance of organisational climate in creating a successful teaching-learning environment. Authorities will assist in shouldering the responsibility of directing teachers and students to the most appropriate paths. It may also be claimed that, as a result of this beneficial association, schools with a positive social environment boost academician effectiveness by assisting students, colleagues, lecturers, and their employers in developing positive lifestyles, contributing to the schools' efficacy. The current study's findings highlight the importance of the school-level setting on academician effectiveness.

University management can generate more favourable attitudes among academicians for their careers by creating a pleasant school-level atmosphere. The current study's findings imply that to create a favourable social atmosphere and academician effectiveness, one should maximise school management support, staff attachment, and goal consensus.

244

The social exchange theory supports the current result, which posits that employees form emotional and social relationships with the employees—lecturers with students and colleagues- which results in overall organisational effectiveness. According to the social exchange theory, employees engage in relationships with their leaders and reciprocate their behaviours by engaging in effective and productive outcomes (Nohe & Hertel, 2017).

5.2.9 Social Climate and Deep Acting

As hypothesized (H9), the relationship between social climate and deep acting was supported. The findings confirmed predictions that academicians' insight into the school's social milieu had a beneficial impact on deep acting. This finding supports the hypothesis that organisational elements influence employees' emotional labour. Based on the perspective of (Brunetto et al., 2014) that argued that social climate is a powerful predictor of emotional labor, and previous research has shown that effectiveness among academicians can be fostered by the social context in which one works (Yao, Yao, Zong, Li, Guo, et al., 2015).

The current research results indicate that academicians, employers, colleagues, and students need to maintain a positive emotional group tone. Thus, groups led by positive-mood displayed enhanced team coordination and task achievement compared to groups led by negative-mood leaders (Ashkanasy et al., 2017). Härte et al. (2006) prove that a positive emotional climate is important for maintaining group members' satisfaction and performance. The findings require comprehending workgroup emotional climate mechanisms, including multi-level theorizations.

For example, Ayoko, Callan, and Hrtel (2008) proposed that the emotion management skills of team members are fundamental to the type of workgroup emotional climate developed (such as supportive, participative, or negative), based on research showing that emotional expression affects both receivers and senders. They identified several emotion management skills underpinning a positive workgroup emotional climate. Importantly, other-directed emotion management skills are helpfulness, friendliness, supportiveness, giving recognition, courtesy, warmth, optimism, self-regulation, constructive conflict management, and adaptation to social display rules. In contrast, important self-directed emotion management skills are optimism, low tendency to frustration, positive affectivity/happiness, low tendency to anger, low tendency to worry, high enthusiasm, and problem-focused coping (Ashkanasy & Härtel, 2014).

5.2.10 Social Climate and Surface Acting

Unfortunately, hypothesis 10 wasn't supported. More precisely, we expected surface acting to predict academician effectiveness negatively. The study's findings illustrate how organizational social climates explain the consequences of surface acting. Surface acting comprises being forced to suppress one's genuine feelings, maintaining relationships based on a social mask, and feeling that one's emotions are deemed insufficient for the job. These make lecturers feel less volitional, competent and connected to others (Huyghebaert et al., 2018). As a result, their psychological requirements are not being met, which explains their decreased effectiveness. Because their job prevents them from meeting their psychological needs, they view it negatively and are less likely to commit their energy to it, which undermines their authenticity

(Humphrey, 1993b) and does not contribute to their personal growth (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Van Den Broeck et al., 2008).

Similarly, findings showed that the lecturers' insights of their institution's social climate do not predict emotional labor strategy of surface acting. Yao, Yao, Zong, Li, Li, et al. (2015b) found a negative connection between school social climate and surface acting. This could be attributable to the lecturer's personality features and the country's social culture and educational system. Lecturers' impressions of social climate are unrelated to the support they receive from the school management and students. In this way, lecturers' emotions are irrelevant to their perceptions of the social climate. Because teaching is such a unique profession, it has its own set of ethical norms and a conscientious component (Gülruh, 2018). Whether lecturers and colleagues receive social support or not, it does not reflect this on their emotions while teaching. Zhang and Zhu (2008a) pointed out that surface acting was found to have a negative impact on teacher burnout. This could be because the teacher's emotions aren't the same as the feelings they're trying to convey, and this disconnect can sometimes make teachers ineffective. The educational system, cultural differences, teacher working circumstances, and wage levels could be factors in this conclusion. Emotion is interpreted differently in different cultures (Krone et al., 1997).

5.2.11 Surface Acting and Academician Effectiveness

Surprisingly, the results from H11 revealed that the relationship was not supported. This research implies that even though showing good feelings is one of the emotional needs of the teaching profession (Sutton, 2004b; Taxer & Frenzel, 2015b), it could be achieved by faking (Taxer & Frenzel, 2015b). Therefore, academics were less likely

to say that their classroom emotional expressions were fake (Burić et al., 2020). As a type of surface acting, suppressions are time-consuming and drain mental and physical resources (Baumeister et al., 1998).

In the Nigerian context, in a workplace like the education industry, where success is dependent upon teamwork, collaboration, and good interpersonal relationships, the importance of surface acting does not play a major role. People skilled in managing others' emotions should help people regulate their moods in a positive direction and try to establish intimacy with them (Allworth & Hesketh, (1999). Such behavior should lead to closer friendships and greater social support, which could be of psychological benefits in terms of improved academician effectiveness. The findings of the present study are at variance with the assertion of Mount (1991) that an objective measure of emotion management skills is associated with a tendency to maintain an experimentally induced positive mood which has obvious implications for improving effectiveness. Furthermore, the apparent inauthenticity of one's emotional responses obstructs positive and gratifying connections with students (Côté, 2005b). Suppression does not truly change the experienced (and primarily negative) feelings; rather, these unpleasant affective states persist and obstruct psychological well-being and professional progress.

In both variable-centered and non-variable-centered research, the negative implications of suppression (and surface acting in general) have been found (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011a; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013) and person-centered research. Prior studies using a latent profile analysis to examine emotional labour concluded that surface acting is linked to inferior job-related results (Caesens et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019; Fouquereau et al., 2021; Gabriel et al., 2015).

5.3 The Mediating Role of Emotional Labour

As postulated in this study, the results revealed (i) mediating effect of emotional labour (deep acting on the relationships between communication climate and academician effectiveness (ii) the mediating effect of emotional labour (deep acting) on the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness (iii) the mediating effect of emotional labour (surface acting) on the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness, (iv) the mediating effect of emotional labour(surface acting) on the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness, (v) the mediating effect of emotional labour (deep acting) between motivation and academician effectiveness, (vi) the mediating effect of emotional labour (surface acting) between communication climate and academician effectiveness (refer to Table 4.24). The above findings are consistent with other studies that found the mediating role of emotional labour (Chehab et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2018; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2021; Shagirbasha & Paramasivam, 2014; Zhou et al., 2019d). For instance, (Chehab et al., 2021) found emotional labour mediated the relation between job standardisation and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

As was emphasized, emotional labour in teaching is centred on emotional capacities in dealing with others, such as empathy, respect, and tolerance (Taylor, 2020). It further confirms the argument by (Hochschild, 1983) who contended that emotional labour is a valid way for teachers to view and critically engage with the ever-important usage of emotions in the lecturing profession.

Hypothesis 12 states that emotional labour will mediate communication climate and academician effectiveness. Accordingly, hypothesis 12 was supported. Indicating that emotional labor (deep acting) mediates the relationship between communication climate and academician effectiveness. As a mediator, deep acting serves as a critical mechanism explaining the effects of communication climate on academician effectiveness. Taken together, this study's findings support the notion that genuine emotions are related to an increase in effectiveness among those who engaged in deep acting. This effect can be seen in academicians who communicate with people more personally. To put it another way, a pleasant communication climate influenced the magnitude of the interaction through deep acting, which could predict academicians' effectiveness. Therefore, the result indicates the importance of a more positive communication climate between academians and their students. Deep acting is an exhausting emotional regulation process that depletes mental resources and, to some extent, contributes to burnout (Ogunsola et al., 2020). At the same time, deep acting may boost employees' well-being in two ways. First, because deep acting entails changes in inner feelings, it can boost the academicians' true sensations and reduce isolation and loneliness.

Second, Côté (2005a) model suggested that cultivating happy emotions through deep acting promotes favourable responses from the partner, which positively impacts the employees' well-being. Incorporating the role of deep acting into the association between communication climate and academician effectiveness helps the current study build on earlier research. These findings emphasise the relevance of lecturer perceptions of the communication climate and emotional labour approaches in preventing negative lecturer outcomes on their students like burnout, work dissatisfaction, turnover, and ineffectiveness.

These findings also provide evidence that could aid in identifying methods to reduce lecturers' ineffectiveness. For example, this finding shows that issues related to the lecture's ineffectiveness could be eased by upgrading the communication climate or modifying emotional labor strategies. Findings from this hypothesis are congruent with the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996b). Based on the affective events theory, emotions affect attitudes and behaviors at work. It shows that emotional effort increases when someone is requested to act in a way that goes against their personal feelings. Deep acting is a level beyond surface acting. Instead of faking an emotion that a student might desire to see, a lecturer will actively try to feel the feeling they are presenting. This real attempt at empathy helps to align one's feelings with the emotions displayed by others. Consistent with the assumptions of AET, Wals and Bartkowski (2013a) argued that employees' propensity to be effective and committed could fluctuate based on emotional experiences.

Similarly, hypothesis 13 postulated that deep acting mediated the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness was also supported. The support for this hypothesis can be explained by the growing attention devoted to emotions and social support in organizations. There has been much interest in emotionally demanding jobs and how workers who occupy such jobs experience and manage their emotions. This result shows that when a lecturer practices or controls the display of emotions, such as anger, unhappiness, or tiredness when communicating with a student, colleague, or superior reflects positive organizational socialization.

This finding also shows that deep acting is the mechanism through which regulation of emotions impacts lecturers' effectiveness, which suggests that academic staff need to feel emotions (deep acting) to engage in these effective lecturing and teaching. As Waldron (2018) argued, workplace relationships are "emotionally unique" (p. 104). The first reason for this uniqueness is that employee expression of emotion is directly related to their income, promotions, and other organizational outcomes. Power dynamics between employee and employer demand that employees carefully edit their emotions to avoid undesirable results. However, employees socialise with their supervisors about work-related issues and personal and social matters (Amason et al., 1999). When there is social and emotional support from the superior, which includes expressing concerns and affect toward a distressed individual and affirming others' behavior, it has a great value. Employees perceive and appreciate the support from their superior, even if that support exists in the form of minor behaviours, such as caring about someone's health, noting a job well done, or just asking how the employee is doing (Amason et al., 1999).

A simple concern or encouragement from the management can bolster a subordinate's self-esteem (Miller et al., 1990), enhance worker health (Allen et al., 1998), improve supervisor-subordinate relationship satisfaction (Jia & Shoham, 2012), and more effectively reduce burnout than the comforting messages received from family and friends (Brown et al., 2003).

This finding is congruent with studies by (Ramachandran et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2020; Yao, Yao, Zong, Li, Guo, et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2019d) in which the deep acting dimension of emotional labour mediated the relationship between communication climate and effectiveness. The AET suggests that employees experience various events at work, including their interactions, which causes their emotional expression to spin (Beal et al., 2013; Beal & Ghandour, 2011). It is fair to submit that employees' emotional expressions in response to their supervisors' emotional expressions in the workplace would be affective to occurrences through which they would experience their emotions. This study suggests that academics may have a positive emotion if their students express positive emotions through voice or face. In the same vein, lecturers would negatively react if they received bad countenance from their students. As a result, the emotional expressions of academics may cause students' affective dispositions to fluctuate. The interactions of these parties may result in changes in work behaviours and academics. Hypothesis 14, which postulated that surface acting mediates the relationship between social climate and academician effectiveness, was not supported.

Furthermore, the study's findings revealed that many instructors have grown accustomed to doing emotional acts and consciously perform surface acting daily to retain their position with students and avoid any potential ramifications with their employers. In the Nigerian context, this result indicates that Nigerian academics working in an unfavourable social climate may find it easier to understand their students' perspectives and, therefore, reduce their need to resort to surface acting. On the other hand, some Nigerian academics may utilise surface acting to save energy and resources due to the workplace situation. Academics who receive more social support may continue to engage in surface acting because they feel comfortable in their supportive environment. They will not be penalised if their forced smiles and expressions are seen by others (Xu et al., 2020).

In the same stream of thought, the lack of mediating effect of this hypothesis (H14) indicates that among Nigerian academics, there may be ongoing suppressing of negative emotions. This is not only linked to faking desired emotions but can also be used as a preliminary step before employees modify their internal feelings, make themselves cheerful, and engage with students in a trustworthy manner. As a result, these findings provide a new viewpoint on negative display norms, indicating that they can either lead to faking positive expressions (Croyle & Gosserand 2005) or help eliminate the academicians' negative feelings and facilitate the change of their real emotions.

Another reason for the lack of support for the hypothesis could be that although the true feelings of academicians remain unchanged, their action of faking their emotions according to the display rules is done to save their jobs and career (Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, et al., 2012). This could indicate that persons with difficulty socialising rely on surface acting as their major emotional labour approach (Grande & Sayre, 2019). Understanding the effects of emotional labour methods on outcomes such as teaching and lecturing could be aided by incorporating the assessment of emotional demands and understanding their social space in negotiating these demands. Inadequate social assistance following a traumatic experience is a substantial predictor of increasing isolation or depression (Olaniyan et al., 2020). This reflects the situation for lecturers who did not have a solid working connection with their supervisors, students, or colleagues. Some reacted by refusing to discuss the situation further and instead opting to fake it whether or not employees believed their boss had the skills or time to help them. Therefore, surface acting tactics were more frequently mentioned among participants who wished to leave their employment. (Smith et al., 2017).

Previous studies have suggested that surface acting could make employees react unfavourably (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011c), which may lead to employees' emotional fatigue (Alicia A. Grandey & Sayre, 2019). Due to this, surface acting is likely to be viewed as fake and elicit a negative response from the students and colleagues, which can be detrimental to the lecturer (Subramony & Douglas Pugh, 2015). This has raised concerns about the effectiveness of emotional labour in the educational setting.

Faculty performance of emotional labour was viewed as favourable for institutional outcomes in higher education literature but generally unrewarded. (Constanti & Gibbs, 2004a). Researchers who focused their efforts within higher education discovered that surface acting increased burnout and decreased teaching effectiveness, similar to researchers who researched emotional labour in other organisations (Zhang & Zhu, 2008c). Similarly, lecturers suppress their emotions, negatively affecting how their employers evaluate them in the long run, leading to a weak lecturer-employer relationship (Brunetto et al., 2014). These findings support the AET theory, which states that discrete affective events or occurrences trigger mood and emotions. Grandey (2015) contends that surface acting entails concealing real-life emotions. Self-denial, low self-esteem, and estrangement from self are prevalent outcomes of suppressing felt emotions. (Huang et al., 2019; Pillay et al., 2019).

Hypothesis 15 hypothesised that surface acting mediates the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness. As expected, hypothesis 15 was supported. This finding demonstrated that lecturers who fake their emotions are the most eager to improve their effectiveness. According to Diefendorff (2005), the employment of regulatory methods changes depending on motivational factors, which could be a useful starting point for additional research. It appears far more likely that employees' motivation to follow these rules and their commitment to obey the display rule will better predict the frequency and severity of regulating emotions at work. According to the affective event theory, a favourable stimulus will shape a positive attitude before leading to positive conduct.

As a result, highly motivated academic employees are more likely to have a good attitude, which leads to increased effectiveness. According to this study, the impact of motivation on academic success is mediated by surface acting. As a positive stimulant, high motivation will inspire more surface action, as a positive attitude, which will boost effectiveness, as a positive behaviour.

This result also implies that faking emotions is cognitively demanding and functions quite differently in educational institutions. Previous studies reported that lecturers often have to show, pretend, or certain fake emotions to achieve their objectives (Sutton & Harper, 2009; Taxer & Frenzel, 2015a). For example, a lecturer may overstate their delight and happiness when a student succeeds in an assignment to stimulate a low-achieving student. Furthermore, feigning emotion was found to be favourably associated with effectiveness outcomes.

Hypothesis 16 hypothesised that deep acting mediates the relationship between motivation and academician effectiveness. As expected, hypothesis 16 was supported. As a result, if practised by lecturers, deep acting makes them firmly agree with their schools' ideals, facilitating greater care for the intrinsic value of education rather than any external interests. Although these emotional displays take a lot of emotional energy, lecturers have higher job satisfaction because favourable work outcomes (showing more effectiveness) can help people heal or regain psychological resources (Cheung & Tang, 2010).

257

As a result, lecturers who engage in deep acting tend to assume that their high levels of effectiveness stem from the importance of schoolwork. This study adds to emotional labour literature by including the function of surface acting in explaining the motivation-academician effectiveness link. Furthermore, this research adds to the emotional labor literature by addressing motivation as an antecedent of emotional labour.

This result also explains the role of motivation among lecturers of higher learning institutions in promoting emotional labour in the Nigerian context. Motivated lecturers, for example, are more likely to embrace the educational spirit. Working in schools can help them achieve their goals, which increases their satisfaction and effectiveness. As a result, motivated academics are more likely to have a strong feeling of responsibility and affiliation with their work, which is a characteristic of surface acting (Weiss et al., 1967). The perception of positive display rules and job needs for client engagement appears to be the most important antecedents for using a certain emotional labour approach in the current study. Because the motivational underpinnings for engaging in emotional control appear to be diverse for various tactics, at least for deep acting. Therefore, a deeper examination is required to determine employees' workplace emotion management motives. Researchers that looked into the performance of emotional labour in higher education found that faculty members often lose their actual selves when working, which could help them stay motivated (Lechuga, 2012). Researchers also determined that authentic emotions might be more important predictors of job affect than faked or conjured emotions (Mahoney et al., 2011).

Hypothesis 17 hypothesised that surface acting mediates the relationship between communication climate and academician effectiveness. As expected, hypothesis 17 was supported. The present study found that when employees practice surface acting, the positive communication climate may help decrease the risk of turnover intention, job dissatisfaction, and ineffectiveness among academic staff. As a modifier of the negative outcomes of surface acting can play an important role in improving members' behaviour and levels of commitment. A cooperative and friendly communication climate among members may reduce negative factors such as emotional suppression and emotional disharmony. When an organization's communication climate is supportive or cooperative, with the invocation of surface acting by employees, the risk of negative outcomes decreases. This supports (Theodosius, Koulouglioti, Kersten, & Rosten, 2021) finding that a positive surface acting mediates the consequences of burnout and turnover intention.

A harmonious and cooperative communication climate among employees in the workplace can mitigate the negative effects of dissatisfaction and ineffectiveness and increase employees' desire to stay in the organization. This finding is congruent with the Affective Event Theory, which stipulates that every individual have an average set of moods that can be elevated or depressed by the events happening at the workplace. This finding indicates that a positive communication climate can help lecturers replace resources that have been depleted by emotional regulation, reducing their vulnerability to burnout, discontent, and ineffectiveness.

Furthermore, this conclusion backs with prior research findings showing cooperation benefits employee well-being and retention. Rafferty and Griffin (2005) and that the characteristics of the work environment can affect the experience of burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). This study also indicated that academic staff who enjoy a positive communication climate utilize surface acting to meet positive display rules. Since lecturers in Nigeria are required to display positive emotions and suppress negative emotions, a positive communication climate will further induce more surface-acting emotions, which might lead to effectiveness.

5.4 Theoretical Implication

As an important theoretical contribution, this study examined the mediating impact of emotional labour dimensions, namely deep acting and surface acting, on motivation and organisational climate (communication climate, social climate). This research supports Blau's (1964) SET. In other words, this study has empirically confirmed the SET (Blau, 1964), which states that when academics (lecturers) are provided with appropriate resources and social support by organisations, they tend to reciprocate with positive conduct. First, the results showed that motivation is a psychological mechanism underlying social exchange processes in work settings. In particular, this study showed that a positive organisational climate (communication climate and social climate) on a specific workday gave rise to effectiveness among academic staff. Thus, reciprocation in social exchange comes from an obligation to reciprocate to the other party.

260

The social exchange theory is useful because the stimulation of effectiveness behaviour starts with the exchange between lecturers and their students. Lecturers with good relationships with their students, colleagues, and employers can stimulate and motivate them, supported by a resourceful organizational climate. The bi-directional transaction, which means something is given and returned, was consistent with the description of reciprocation, which can guarantee effectiveness as a two-way relationship between lecturers and students, supporting the SET (Kim & Parj, 22017). Also, as relationships matured in a setting where parties embraced change, some participants expressed an awareness that employee motivation was present (Kim & Parj, 2017).

Furthermore, some participants identified that receiving economic and socio-emotional resources from their organisation provided motivation and a supportive climate, as suggested by the SET (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012). Furthermore, the outcomes of this research offered a theoretical foundation for the SET, which functioned as a basic conceptual paradigm for understanding workplace exchange behaviour (Cho et al., 2013a). This empirical evidence demonstrated that SET (Blau, 1964) would apply to motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour, and academician effectiveness in the Nigerian public university context. Alongside the SET was absorbing the Affective Events Theory (AET) Weiss and Cropanzano (1996b). Organizational emotion caused by specific events, according to AET Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), influences employees' attitudes and behaviours, forming a circle of event-emotion-attitude-behavior.

261

Although emotion is a psychological experience that occurs within a person, it has psychological and social aspects, affecting both businesses and employees (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). Emotion can activate and facilitate the process of numerous human relationships inside the organisation by acting as a social signal in the process of being perceived, experienced, and conveyed (Iszatt-White & Lenney, 2020). AET proposes both causes and consequences of momentary mood and emotions at work. Deep and surface acting are considered mediating mechanisms (Emotional labour) on the relationship between motivation, organisational climate dimensions of communication climate and social climate impact, and academician effectiveness. According to the AET theory, mood and emotions are triggered by distinct affective events or occurrences. Positive work environment characteristics predispose discrete events that cause various emotions to occur more or less frequently. For example, jobs with a large scope should provide more events (good feedback, major goals fulfilled, etc.) that result in positive emotions for a short period (joy, happiness, pride).

Affective experiences, according to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), may lead to spontaneous affectively-driven conduct, such as acts of good or ill citizenship. Affective experiences, in sum, contribute to the affective component of attitudes like effectiveness and subsequently to judgment-driven behaviours like quitting a job. In the context of this study, AET appears to provide a very useful paradigm for understanding the role of emotional labour. This research responds to Silard and Dasborough (2021) call in which they explained the demand for future research inquiry and further conceptual growth.

With its strong focus on events, AET is a strong framework for articulating the role of emotion in these stages. This study contributed to examining and exploring the potential relationship between motivation and organisational climate predictive of academician effectiveness in a Nigerian context of public universities in northwestern Nigeria. This effort is in line with the thoughts of Dawkins (2017), who found out that different attitudes and behaviours can be predicted by considering workplace events.

5.5 Practical Implications

The findings of this study have significant consequences for the management of public universities in Nigeria. Firstly, it shows that adequately motivated academics who work in a positive climate is key to promoting and nurturing the well-being of lecturers working in academics. Hence, interventions are undoubtedly vital to allay the negative impact of emotional labour in the teaching profession, and help teachers develop their emotion management skills. In this light, assisting employees to develop strong emotional borders between work and home and using effective recuperation strategies may be beneficial (Kinman et al., 2011). This follows evidence that suggests that employees more proficient at detaching emotionally from work have greater protection from the unpleasant effect of emotional labour (Sonnentag, Kuttler, & Fritz, 2009). Furthermore, given that the findings of the currents study revealed that not all aspects of emotional labour that teachers perform may be detrimental to their health, interventions designed to reduce surface acting and enhance deep acting may also be useful.

263

Therefore, training to enhance emotional ability might be advantageous in helping teachers handle emotional labour and other types of stressors. Also, lecturers perceive that they are motivated in a supportive climate that supports constant communication among employer and employees. This can be rationalised against the background of the covid-19 pandemic, which has affected employees' mental health. They become spurred to be better effective. Employees who are less stressed with mental health issues and not burned out at work are more productive, which should inspire those in charge of human resources to invest in developing pleasant and good workplace environments. Such policies would help produce better work results, but they would also help develop work in a healthy environment.

Furthermore, higher levels of emotion control on the work are associated with higher levels of emotional weariness and poorer levels of effectiveness among lecturers. Setting explicit goals congruent with the employee's values, beliefs, and personal aspirations can help educational institutions boost employee happiness with their jobs, reduce attrition, and increase the meaning of their work. Employee stress, health, and organisational well-being may be linked to the progressions of surface and deep acting, resulting in favourable or negative consequences on individuals and their performance. Individuals dislike feeling fake when it comes to surface acting. In the long run, however, suppressing actual emotions and expressing false sensations through this method will lead to stress.

Students and stakeholders may feel that the lecturer's expressions are contrived and unnatural due to surface acting. When students and stakeholders see insincerity in the system, they are more likely to give a low rating to teaching quality. As a result, public university administrators should recognise, comprehend, and practice the human resource management process, which necessitates desirable emotional regulation strategies, including methods to support motivation, the organisational climate, and improved methods to retain valuable employees. Also, the insight of Mann (2004) can be useful when implemented in the teaching profession. Mann underscores the importance of introducing policies and practices that engender the expression of emotion as a 'natural' part of the job. Mann further recommended that an overarching programme that includes stress management techniques, debriefing, and the encouragement of 'healthy catharses are likely to be helpful.

5.6 Limitations and Direction for Future Research

The findings of this study should be seen in light of the following limitations. First, the results were based on self-reports, which could be influenced by common method variance. Second, the sample was quite narrow and limited to public universities in Nigeria; as a result, the findings cannot be applied to other types of organisations. Third, the study's cross-sectional methodology made it impossible to conclude the temporal order of effects or causation linkages. Fourthly, the present study offers quite limited generalizability as it focused mainly on teaching staff from universities located in the northwest geopolitical zone of Nigeria.

Consequently, additional work is needed to include non-teaching staff from various universities to generalize the findings. Universities should be studied and compared with other institutes of higher education such as polytechnics, monotechnic, and colleges. Fifthly, samples of this study were over-represented by male respondents, such as 70.0 percent male lecturers and 78 % male students. This suggests that the generalization of the findings is limited to male samples. Thus, to eliminate gender bias, future research could include a more female population to guarantee that the study result could be generalized based on the sample features regarding academician effectiveness.

Given the constraints indicated above, the study suggests a number of prospective future research directions. To begin with, this study was the first to investigate the function of emotional labour in mediating the links between motivation, organisational atmosphere, and academic effectiveness. As a result, more study is needed to corroborate these findings and increase understanding of emotional labor's mediation function among academics in other disciplines. Specifically, conducting comparative research on overseas universities. As a result, to generalise and corroborate the study's findings, it should be duplicated in different settings. Second, the impact of lecturers' self-reported effectiveness on motivation, organisational atmosphere, and emotional labour was investigated in this study. Future research should duplicate this study from the perspective of the lecturer-supervisors to gain a new perspective. This could serve to bridge the gap between professor and supervisor perspectives on motivation and organisational climate, and thus provide the university administration with a foundation for development.

Finally, research should be conducted to determine whether the findings can be applied to universities in other nations. It's possible that societal or cultural factors are at play, so objective measures of motivation, organisational climate, and emotional labour should be obtained to compare how self-report measures reflect the relationship between motivation, organisational climate, emotional labour, and academician effectiveness. Finally, the results would be more generalized if the sample was larger and from the same industry.

5.7 Conclusions

Drawn on the gap highlighted in the literature, this study has successfully answered all the research objectives and questions raised despite some limitations. In the introductory chapter, the study presents the study, its variables, and what warrant the need for investigation theoretically and practically. After that, the objective and questions of the research were outlined. It apparently expressed the significance the study is expected to provide to various parties. It also delineates the study's coverage and justifications for the coverage. Some of the frequently used terms were finally defined for simplification. The second chapter presented a review of literature relevant to the topic. It provided comprehensive arguments on definitions, dimensions, measurements of each variable. In addition, their possible relationships of the variables were explained and subsequently formulated the study's hypotheses. The chapter finally discussed possible theories underpinning the study, two theories were deliberated, i.e., Social Exchange Theory (SET), and Affective Event Theory (AET).

The third section discussed the methodological aspect of the study. It discussed the philosophy of the research. Variables were operationalized and consequently, measurement and instruments were presented. The section also deliberated on the research design and qualitative research specifically. Since the suitable design for this study is quantitative, total population, the required sample size, and the technique(s) used in choosing the sample were discussed. More so, it also focused on the target respondents as well as the method of data collection. In addition, scale pretest, as well as pilot study results, were presented.

The chapter also discussed the procedure for data collection, and finally, the data analysis methods were deliberated. The fourth chapter presented the analysis results using the SPSS and PLS-SEM software. To prepare the data for analysis, preliminary analyses using SPSS version 23 were carried out. The data were treated against missing values, outliers, nonnormality, multicollinearity, CMV, and non-response bias. After passing these tests, the data were subjected to rigorous analysis using the PLS-SEM software (SmartPLS 3). This study evaluates the outer model prior to evaluating the structural model to verify its validity and reliability. In so doing, measurement reliability (Individual item and internal consistency reliability) and measurement validity (discriminant and convergent validity) were evaluated and established. Consequently, the structural model was evaluated and the main estimation criteria for the outer model used in this study were the coefficient of determination (R^2), assessment of the path coefficients level and significance, examining the direct and indirect effects, effect size determination, ascertainment of the predictive relevance of the model, calculating IPMA and finally ascertained the model fit (SRMR).

The final section, elucidates the findings and the implications both theoretical, practical and methodological. It discusses the limitations, suggests the direction for future researches. Overall, from the result of the analysis, the study presented seventeen relationships, eleven direct and six indirect relationships. Six of the direct relationships were significant, while five were not. Five of the indirect relationship are found to be significant, but one was unavoidably not significant.

This research suggests that motivation and organisational climate (communication climate and social climate) are important driving factors affecting lecturers' behaviour through the mediation of emotion labour (surface acting and deep acting). This research aims to provide valuable suggestions and assistance for managing university academics and their teaching styles. The following three conclusions are drawn from this study: Firstly, much previous research on lecturers' effectiveness has focused on the broader climate of establishments. This study makes a clear distinction in investigating the impact of a social and communicative climate on the effectiveness of university academics. Second, most existing studies on emotional labour have concentrated solely on the relationship between employees and customers, with little emphasis on emotional labour's impact on the teaching process in higher institutions of learning (Zhou et al., 2019d). In conclusion, the implications of lecturers' emotional labour and its dimensions on the effectiveness of academics are discussed in this study.

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APPENDIX A: RESEARCH QUESTIONAIRE FOR STUDENTS

A STUDY ON ACADEMICIAN EFFECTIVENESS

Dear Participant,

I am a PhD candidate and I would appreciate it if you could answer the questions carefully as the information you provide will influence the accuracy and the success of this research. It will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. All answers will be treated with strict confidence and will be used for the purpose of the study only. If you have any questions regarding this research, you may address them to me at the contact details below.

Thank you for your cooperation and the time taken in answering this questionnaire.
Yours Sincerely,
Abdul Rasheed.A. Aminullah
School of Business Management
Universiti Utara Malaysia
Malaysia
Email: alfarasheed@yahoo.com
+601123680490 and +2348036862413

SECTION A

Instruction:

This part contains few demographic information pertaining to yourself. **Please tick (** √ **)** in the box or write your response in the space provided.

1. **Gender:**

   ☐Male

   ☐Female

2. **Age:**

   Please specify: _____ years old.

3. **Marital Status:**

   ☐Single

   ☐Married

   ☐Divorced/Separated/Widowed

4. **Level of Education:**

   ☐Undergraduates

   ☐First degree or equivalent

   ☐Master's Degree

   ☐ Doctoral Degree

5. **Institution:**

   ☐ Federal University Dutse ☐Sule Lamido University ☐Ahmadu Bello University ☐Kaduna State University ☐Bayero University ☐Yusuf Maitama Sule University ☐Federal University Dutsin-Ma ☐Umar Yar'Adua University ☐Federal University Birnin Kebbi ☐Kebbi State University of Science and Technology ☐Usman Dan Fodio University ☐Sokoto State University ☐ Federal University Gusau.

6. Department:

☐ Arts

☐ Humanity

☐ Science

☐ Technology

☐ Others

SECTION ONE

Operational Definition of Academician Effectiveness
Is defined in the context of teacher effectiveness) as the aggregated effects of a complex set of in-classroom teacher behaviours on students learning **(Beran & Violato, 2005).**

GUIDELINES: In section one, please rate your level of agreement with the following statements as all questions have the same options (1 = Strongly Disagree SD, 2 = Disagree D, 3 = Somewhat Disagree SWD, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree NAD, 5 = Strongly Agree SA, 6= Agree A, 7= Strongly Agree SA).

	Academician Effectiveness	SD	D	SWD	NAD	SA	A	SA
1.	The academician's quality of instruction is very effective overall.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	The academicians respond to students' questions and comment appropriately	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	There is enthusiasm in the way the academician communicates the course contents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Students are treated respectfully by academics in my school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Course assistance is readily made available by academics to students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Descriptive information, course outline, and other aids to teaching are detailed enough for the course.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7.	The course content follows the outline and other course descriptive information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	The presentation of course material was is in a well-organised manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	The course academician used a fair grading system to evaluate the course.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	The grading of student's work was done within a reasonable amount of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	The academician's course added to my knowledge in the area of study.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	The support materials provided by the academician enhanced my learning experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

RESEARCH QUESTIONAIRE FOR LECTURERS

A STUDY ON ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE, MOTIVATION AND EMOTIONAL LABOUR

Dear Participant,

I am a PhD candidate and I would appreciate it if you could answer the questions carefully as the information you provide will influence the accuracy and the success of this research. It will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. All answers will be treated with strict confidence and will be used for the purpose of the study only. If you have any questions regarding this research, you may address them to me at the contact details below.

Thank you for your cooperation and the time taken in answering this questionnaire.

Yours Sincerely,

Abdul Rasheed.A. Aminullah
School of Business Management
Universiti Utara Malaysia
Malaysia
Email: alfarasheed@yahoo.com
+601131870910 and +2348036862413

Instruction:

▪

This part contains few demographic information pertaining to yourself. Please tick (√) in the box or write your response in the space provided.

▪

7. **Gender:**
    ☐ Male
    ☐ Female

8. **Age:**
    Please specify: _____ years old.

9. **Marital Status:**
    ☐ Single
    ☐ Married
    ☐ Divorced/Separated/Widowed

10. **Academic qualification:**
    ☐ First degree or equivalent
    ☐ Master's Degree
    ☐ Doctoral Degree
    ☐ Associate Professor
    ☐ Full Professor

11. **Current monthly salary:**
    ☐ Below N 100,000
    ☐ N150,000 – N 200,000
    ☐ N200,000 – N 350,000
    ☐ Above N350,000

12. **Years in service:**
    ☐ Less than a year
    ☐ 1 – 3 years
    ☐ 4 – 7 years
    ☐ More than 7 years

SECTION TWO

Operational Definition of Motivation.
Motivation is operationalized as a mass of various activities that affects and guides our behaviour to achieve definite specific goals (McArthur & Baron, 1983).

GUIDELINES: In section two, please rate your level of agreement with the following statements as all questions have the same options (1 = Strongly Disagree SD, 2 = Disagree D, 3 = Somewhat Disagree SWD, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree NAD, 5 = Somewhat Agree SA, 6= Agree A, 7= Strongly Agree SA).

	Motivation	**SD**	**D**	**SWD**	**NAD**	**SA**	**A**	**SA**
1.	The working conditions in my institution is conducive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	There is job security in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	In my institution, the management/ supervisor is loyal to their employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	My employer's rewards a good job and expresses gratitude.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	The wages in my institution is commensurate with the work done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	In my institution, promotion is given as at when due.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I enjoy the work I do in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I feel fulfilled working in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	My institution allows me to be self-supervising when carrying out my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	My institution gives monetary reward for a job well done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	My supervisors offer a helping hand in solving personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	In my institution, a job well done is publicly acknowledged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION THREE

404

Operational Definition of Organizational Climate (Social Climate and Communication climate)
Organizational climate was operationalized as a practical description of a work environment this also includes, more specifically, employee's observations of the prescribed and casual guidelines, practices and processes to be adopted in within the work place (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

GUIDELINES: In section two, please rate your level of agreement with the following statements as all questions have the same options (1 = Strongly Disagree SD, 2 = Disagree D, 3 = Somewhat Disagree SWD, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree NAD, 5 = Somewhat Agree SA, 6= Agree A, 7= Strongly Agree SA).

	Social Climate	SD	D	SWD	NAD	SA	A	SA
1.	In my institution, everybody has a say and they are listened to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	In my institution, there is a free flow of opinion in solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Independence of opinion and thoughts are encouraged in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Personal views and thoughts are accepted and encouraged in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Differences of opinion is accepted in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Communication Climate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	In Envy can be noticed among workers in my institution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	There is competition among work mates in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Evidence of unhealthy rivalry and grouping can be noticed among the staff in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION FOUR

Operational Definition of Surface Acting
Surface acting is operationalized as modifying and faking expressions (Hochschild, 1983).

GUIDELINES: In section one, please rate your level of agreement with the following statements as all questions have the same options (1 = Strongly Disagree SD, 2 = Disagree D, 3 = Somewhat Disagree SWD, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree NAD, 5 = Somewhat Agree SA, 6= Agree A, 7= Strongly Agree SA).

	Surface Acting	SD	D	SWD	NAD	SA	A	SA
1.	I control my emotional feelings when students try to upset me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I am a role model or mentor to students in my institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I like to give my students the impression that I am carrying out my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I force myself to show concern.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I expect my students to think I'm always calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION FIVE

Operational Definition of Deep Acting
Deep acting is operationalized as the extent to which an employee modifies feelings to meet display rules (Hochschild, 1983).

GUIDELINES: In section one, please rate your level of agreement with the following statements as all questions have the same options (1 = Strongly Disagree SD, 2 = Disagree D, 3 = Somewhat Disagree SWD, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree NAD, 5 = Somewhat Agree SA, 6= Agree A, 7= Strongly Agree SA).

	Deep Acting	SD	D	N	A	SA		
1.	I am always nice and encouraging when giving advice to my students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I am expected to show interest in my students' area of concern.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

406

| 3. | I am expected to keep a positive outlook at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. | I am always nice when giving suggestions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Please indicate any comments you have in order to improve this questionnaire:

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………………

Please, feel free to contact me on any issue(s) regarding to this questionnaire.
Thank you for your participation in answering this questionnaire.

Aminullah Abdulrasheed Abdullah.
Tel No: +**601123680490** +**2348036862413**
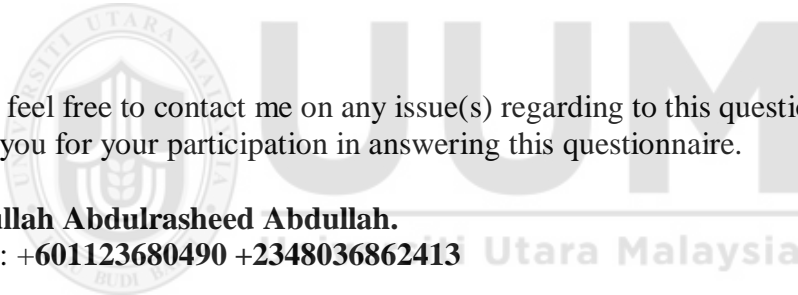
APPENDIX C: RECOMMENDATION LETTER FOR DATA COLLECTION

OTHMAN YEOP ABDULLAH GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
Universiti Utara Malaysia
06010 UUM SINTOK
KEDAH DARUL AMAN
MALAYSIA

UUM Universiti Utara Malaysia

Tel.: 604-928 7101/7113/7130
Faks (Fax): 604-928 7160
Laman Web (Web): www.oyagsb.uum.edu.my

UUM/OYAGSB/R-4/4/1
14 November 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION FOR DATA COLLECTION AND RESEARCH WORK

This is to certify that **AMINULLAH ABDULRASHEED ABDULLAH (Matric No: 903655)** is a student of Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia persuing **his** Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). He is conducting a research entitled *"The Influence of Motivation and Organization or Climate on Academician Effectiveness: The Role of University Reputation and Emotional Labour"* under the supervision of Prof. Madya Dr. Mohd Faizal bin Mohd Isa.

In this regard, we hope that you could kindly provide assistance and cooperation for him to successfully complete the research. All the information gathered will be strictly used for academic purposes only.

Your cooperation and assistance is very much appreciated.

Thank you.

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"
"KEDAH AMAN MAKMUR – HARAPAN BERSAMA MAKMURKAN KEDAH"
"ILMU, BUDI, BAKTI"

Yours faithfully

ROZITA BINTI RAMLI
Assistant Registrar
for Dean
Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business

c.c   -   Supervisor
       -    Student's File (903655)

Universiti Pengurusan Terkemuka
The Eminent Management University

AACSB ACCREDITED   AMBA   EPAS EFMD ACCREDITED   IQA   STARS   AJN-QA   SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

APPENDIX D: PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA

The Dean/Head of Department/ Exams officer

Institution:

☐ Federal University Dutse ☐Sule Lamido University ☐Ahmadu Bello University ☐Kaduna State University ☐Bayero University ☐Yusuf Maitama Sule University ☐Federal University Dutsin-Ma ☐Umar Yar'Adua University ☐Federal University Birnin Kebbi ☐Kebbi State University of Science and Technology ☐Usman Dan Fodio University ☐Sokoto State University ☐ Federal University Gusau.

Department:

☐ Arts

☐ Humanity

☐ Science

☐ Technology

☐ Others
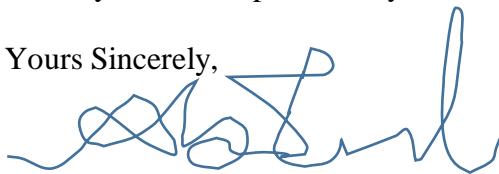
Dear Sir/Ma,

PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FROM YOUR STAFF AND STUDENTS

This is to bring it to your kind attention that the I the bearer *Abdulrasheed Abdullah Aminullah* is a PhD student from University Utara Malaysia. The title of my research is *"The influence of motivation, organizational climate and emotional labor on academician effectiveness in north-western Nigeria"*. The research requires me to collect data from student and staff alike from your institutions. Attached to this letter is the approval for data collection the University Utara Malaysia. Information obtained will be used confidentially and professionally. Please kindly indicate by ticking you institution and department in the box accordingly.

Thank you in anticipation for your kind cooperation.

Yours Sincerely,

Abdulrasheed Aminullah

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	163	70.0	70.0	70.0
	Female	70	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25-35	54	23.2	23.2	23.2
	36-45	89	38.2	38.2	61.4
	46-55	40	17.2	17.2	78.5
	56-65	50	21.5	21.5	100.0
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

Marital

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Singe	15	6.4	6.4	6.4
	Married	191	82.0	82.0	88.4
	Divorced/Seperated/Widowed	27	11.6	11.6	100.0
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

410

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	B Sc	10	4.3	4.3	4.3
	M Sc	87	37.3	37.3	41.6
	Phd	71	30.5	30.5	72.1
	Associate Proffessor	52	22.3	22.3	94.4
	Full Proffessor	13	5.6	5.6	100.0
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-3 years	60	25.8	25.8	25.8
	4-7 Years	70	30.0	30.0	55.8
	more than 7 Years	103	44.2	44.2	100.0
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

Salary

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	below N100,000	2	.9	.9	.9
	N150,000-N200,000	65	27.9	27.9	28.8
	N200,000-N350,000	97	41.6	41.6	70.4
	Above N350,000	69	29.6	29.6	100.0

411

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

Institutions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	FUD	16	6.9	6.9	6.9
	SLU	5	2.1	2.1	9.0
	ABU	66	28.3	28.3	37.3
	KASU	15	6.4	6.4	43.8
	BUK	30	12.9	12.9	56.7
	YMSU	11	4.7	4.7	61.4
	FUDMA	5	2.1	2.1	63.5
	UYU	6	2.6	2.6	66.1
	FUBK	10	4.3	4.3	70.4
	KBSU	6	2.6	2.6	73.0
	UDUS	52	22.3	22.3	95.3
	SSU	5	2.1	2.1	97.4
	FUG	6	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	233	100.0	100.0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	233	1	2	1.30	.459
Age	233	1	4	2.37	1.063
Marital	233	1	3	2.05	.422
Education	233	1	5	2.88	.990
Experience	233	2	4	3.18	.818

412

Salary	233	1	4	3.00	.782
Instituion	233	1	13	6.19	3.681
Valid N (listwise)	233				

APPENDIX F: STUDENT'S PROFILE

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	798	68.5	68.5	68.5
	Female	367	31.5	31.5	100.0
	Total	1165	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-20	184	15.8	15.8	15.8
	20-25	657	56.4	56.4	72.2
	25-35	304	26.1	26.1	98.3
	35-45	20	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	1165	100.0	100.0	

Marital

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Singe	933	80.1	80.1	80.1
	Married	232	19.9	19.9	100.0
	Total	1165	100.0	100.0	

414

Education level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Undergraduates	1001	85.9	85.9	85.9
	Masters Degree	148	12.7	12.7	98.6
	Doctorate Degree	16	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	1165	100.0	100.0	

Institution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	FUD	85	7.3	7.3	7.3
	SLU	25	2.1	2.1	9.4
	ABU	335	28.8	28.8	38.2
	KASU	75	6.4	6.4	44.6
	BUK	155	13.3	13.3	57.9
	YMSU	45	3.9	3.9	61.8
	FUDMA	25	2.1	2.1	63.9
	UYU	30	2.6	2.6	66.5
	FUBK	50	4.3	4.3	70.8
	KBSU	30	2.6	2.6	73.4
	UDUS	260	22.3	22.3	95.7
	SSU	25	2.1	2.1	97.9
	FUG	25	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	1165	100.0	100.0	

Dept

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Arts	647	55.5	55.5	55.5
	Humanities	74	6.4	6.4	61.9
	Science	264	22.7	22.7	84.5
	Technology	180	15.5	15.5	100.0
	Total	1165	100.0	100.0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	1165	1	2	1.32	.465
Age	1165	1	4	2.14	.685
Marital	1165	1	2	1.20	.400
Educationlevel	1165	1	4	1.30	.738
Institution	1165	1	13	6.12	3.670
Dept	1165	1	4	1.98	1.184
Valid N (listwise)	1165				

APPENDIX G: RESULT VARIABLES MISSING DATA (ACADEMIC STAFF)

	Result Variable	N of Replaced Missing Values	Case Number of Non-Missing Values		N of Valid Cases	Creating Function
			First	Last		

416

1	AE1_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE1)
2	AE2_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE2)
3	AE3_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE3)
4	AE4_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE4)
5	AE5_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE5)
6	AE6_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE6)
7	AE7_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE7)
8	AE8_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE8)
9	AE12_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(AE12)
10	SC1_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(EM9)
11	SC2_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(IM1)
12	SC2_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(EM5)
13	SC3_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(EM6)
14	MT2_1	9	1	233	233	SMEAN(EM8)
15	MT3_1	4	1	233	233	SMEAN(MT3)
16	MT4_1	2	1	233	233	SMEAN(MT4)
17	MT7_1	2	1	233	233	SMEAN(MT7)

417

18	MT9_1	2	1	233	233	SMEAN(MT9)
19	DA1_1	2	1	233	233	SMEAN(DA1)
20	DA2_1	3	1	233	233	SMEAN(DA2)
21	DA5_1	2	1	233	233	SMEAN(DA5)
22	SA1_1	3	1	233	233	SMEAN(SA1)
23	SA2_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(SA2)
24	SA5_1	1	1	233	233	SMEAN(SA5)

418

APPENDIX H: RESULT VARIABLES MISSING DATA (STUDENTS)

	Result Variable	N of Replaced Missing Values	Case Number of Non-Missing Values		N of Valid Cases	Creating Function
			First	Last		
1	AE1_1	2	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE1)
2	AE2_1	5	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE2)
3	AE3_1	2	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE3)
4	AE4_1	5	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE4)
5	AE5_1	2	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE5)
6	AE6_1	3	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE6)
7	AE7_1	2	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE7)
8	AE8_1	10	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE8)
9	AE9_1	6	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE9)
10	AE10_1	10	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE10)
11	AE11_1	15	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE11)
12	AE12_1	15	1	1165	1165	SMEAN(AE12)

419

APPENDIX I: NON-RESPONSE BIAS (LECTURERS)

Group Statistics

	T	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AE	1	133	6.1259	.59835	.05188
	2	100	6.1908	.51292	.05129
SC	1	133	5.9203	.68841	.05969
	2	100	6.1760	.64088	.06409
CC	1	133	6.0551	.66183	.05739
	2	100	6.2733	.56134	.05613
MO	1	133	5.5846	.78817	.06834
	2	100	5.7292	.71817	.07182
DA	1	133	3.0737	.58748	.05094
	2	100	2.9720	.54459	.05446
SA	1	133	5.8816	.76721	.06653
	2	100	6.0025	.68580	.06858

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference

									Lower	Upper
AE	Equal variances assumed	.339	.561	-.870	231	.385	-.06489	.07456	-.21180	.08201
	Equal variances not assumed			-.889	226.999	.375	-.06489	.07296	-.20865	.07887
SC	Equal variances assumed	.009	.924	-2.890	231	.004	-.25570	.08848	-.43002	-.08138
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.920	220.702	.004	-.25570	.08758	-.42830	-.08310
CC	Equal variances assumed	.507	.477	-2.656	231	.008	-.21820	.08216	-.38008	-.05631
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.718	227.610	.007	-.21820	.08028	-.37638	-.06001
MO	Equal variances assumed	.424	.516	-1.439	231	.151	-.14458	.10045	-.34251	.05334
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.458	222.589	.146	-.14458	.09914	-.33995	.05079

421

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
DA	Equal variances assumed	.787	.376	1.349	231	.179	.10168	.07538	-.04683	.25020
	Equal variances not assumed			1.364	221.090	.174	.10168	.07457	-.04528	.24864
SA	Equal variances assumed	1.630	.203	-1.246	231	.214	-.12092	.09708	-.31219	.07035
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.266	224.132	.207	-.12092	.09555	-.30920	.06736

422

APPENDIX J: NON-RESPONSE BIAS (STUDENTS)

Group Statistics

	T	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AE	1	579	4.3571	1.08672	.04516
	2	586	4.4289	1.11069	.04592
SC	1	579	4.3503	.99306	.04127
	2	586	4.3908	1.02882	.04254
CC	1	579	3.9960	1.36108	.05656
	2	586	4.0393	1.43019	.05913
MO	1	579	4.7491	.75254	.03127
	2	586	4.8345	.73575	.03042
DA	1	579	4.6328	1.38368	.05750
	2	586	4.7022	1.41756	.05861
SA	1	579	5.0730	1.35477	.05630
	2	586	5.2432	1.30445	.05393

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
					Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df				Lower	Upper

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
AE	Equal variances assumed	.399	.528	-1.115	1162	.265	-.07184	.06442	-.19822	.05455
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.115	1161.846	.265	-.07184	.06441	-.19821	.05453
SC	Equal variances assumed	2.120	.146	-.683	1162	.494	-.04051	.05928	-.15681	.07579
	Equal variances not assumed			-.684	1161.271	.494	-.04051	.05927	-.15679	.07577
CC	Equal variances assumed	1.999	.158	-.530	1162	.597	-.04335	.08185	-.20394	.11724
	Equal variances not assumed			-.530	1160.219	.596	-.04335	.08183	-.20390	.11720
MO	Equal variances assumed	.046	.830	-1.956	1162	.051	-.08534	.04362	-.17093	.00025
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.956	1160.746	.051	-.08534	.04363	-.17094	.00026
DA	Equal variances assumed	1.602	.206	-.845	1162	.398	-.06941	.08212	-.23052	.09171

424

	Equal variances not assumed			-.845	1161.777	.398	-.06941	.08211	-.23050	.09169
SA	Equal variances assumed	1.227	.268	-2.183	1162	.029	-.17019	.07795	-.32313	-.01725
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.183	1159.313	.029	-.17019	.07797	-.32316	-.01722

APPENDIX K: TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	19.356	47.211	47.211	19.356	47.211	47.211	10.221	24.930	24.930
2	4.581	11.173	58.384	4.581	11.173	58.384	7.078	17.263	42.193
3	2.432	5.933	64.317	2.432	5.933	64.317	5.315	12.962	55.155
4	1.419	3.462	67.779	1.419	3.462	67.779	4.846	11.821	66.976
5	1.170	2.853	70.632	1.170	2.853	70.632	1.499	3.656	70.632
6	.988	2.410	73.041						
7	.867	2.115	75.157						
8	.803	1.960	77.116						

425

9	.739	1.803	78.919						
10	.696	1.698	80.617						
11	.639	1.558	82.175						
12	.537	1.309	83.484						
13	.499	1.216	84.700						
14	.454	1.107	85.807						
15	.441	1.076	86.883						
16	.401	.979	87.862						
17	.380	.927	88.789						
18	.363	.885	89.673						
19	.353	.860	90.533						
20	.325	.792	91.326						
21	.312	.761	92.087						
22	.296	.722	92.809						
23	.275	.671	93.480						
24	.252	.614	94.094						
25	.242	.590	94.684						
26	.221	.539	95.222						
27	.209	.509	95.731						
28	.198	.482	96.213						
29	.180	.440	96.653						
30	.172	.420	97.073						
31	.150	.366	97.439						
32	.146	.357	97.796						
33	.136	.331	98.127						
34	.131	.319	98.446						
35	.124	.302	98.748						
36	.108	.263	99.011						
37	.099	.242	99.253						
38	.085	.207	99.460						
39	.081	.197	99.657						
40	.074	.180	99.837						

41	.067	.163	100.000					

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX L: PATH COEFFIC ENT (MEAN, STDEV, TVALUE)

Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Communication Climate -> Academician Effectiveness	0.090	0.085	0.052	1.717	**0.043**
Communication Climate -> Deep Acting	0.256	0.258	0.068	3.743	**0.000**
Communication Climate -> Surface Acting	-0.118	-0.115	0.047	2.478	**0.007**
Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.491	0.491	0.056	8.696	**0.000**
Motivation -> Academician Effectiveness	0.022	0.022	0.063	0.346	**0.365**
Motivation -> Deep Acting	0.195	0.194	0.062	3.133	**0.001**
Motivation -> Surface Acting	-0.747	-0.745	0.047	15.750	**0.000**
Social Climate -> Academician Effectiveness	0.213	0.216	0.068	3.144	**0.001**
Social Climate -> Deep Acting	0.376	0.372	0.080	4.703	**0.000**
Social Climate -> Surface Acting	-0.089	-0.093	0.061	1.448	**0.074**
Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	-0.179	-0.182	0.072	2.475	**0.007**

427

APPENDIX M: SPECIFIC INDIRECT EFFECT

Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Communication Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.126	0.127	0.036	3.453	**0.000**
Social Climate -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.184	0.182	0.043	4.286	**0.000**
Social Climate -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.016	0.018	0.014	1.100	**0.136**
Motivation -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.134	0.135	0.054	2.478	**0.007**
Motivation -> Deep Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.096	0.095	0.032	2.963	**0.002**
Communication Climate -> Surface Acting -> Academician Effectiveness	0.021	0.021	0.012	1.729	**0.042**

APPENDIX N: CONSTRUCT RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Academician Effectiveness	0.943	0.944	0.951	0.617
Communication Climate	0.786	0.800	0.876	0.704
Deep Acting	0.860	0.865	0.905	0.706
Motivation	0.955	0.962	0.962	0.719
Social Climate	0.900	0.903	0.926	0.715
Surface Acting	0.946	0.947	0.961	0.861
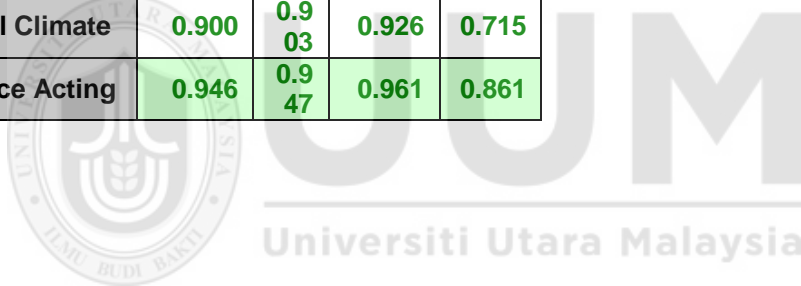
APPENDIX O: INDICATOR CROSS VALIDATED REDUNDANCYAND CROSS VALIDATED COMMUNALITY

Total

	SSO	SSE	Q² (=1-SSE/SSO)
AE	2796.000	1587.931	0.432
CC	699.000	699.000	
DA	932.000	611.610	0.344
MO	2330.000	2330.000	
SA	932.000	347.565	0.627
SC	1165.000	1165.000	

APPENDIX P: INDICATOR CROSS VALIDATED RELIABILITY

Total

	SSO	SSE	Q² (=1-SSE/SSO)
AE1	233.000	131.282	0.437
AE10	233.000	118.092	0.493
AE11	233.000	128.056	0.450
AE12	233.000	140.549	0.397
AE2	233.000	136.378	0.415
AE3	233.000	128.384	0.449
AE4	233.000	151.713	0.349
AE5	233.000	136.767	0.413
AE6	233.000	133.790	0.426
AE7	233.000	133.013	0.429
AE8	233.000	130.635	0.439
AE9	233.000	119.273	0.488
CC1	233.000	233.000	
CC2	233.000	233.000	
CC3	233.000	233.000	
DA2	233.000	160.982	0.309
DA3	233.000	157.046	0.326
DA4	233.000	154.658	0.336
DA5	233.000	138.924	0.404
MO1	233.000	233.000	
MO10	233.000	233.000	
MO2	233.000	233.000	
MO3	233.000	233.000	
MO4	233.000	233.000	
MO5	233.000	233.000	
MO6	233.000	233.000	
MO7	233.000	233.000	
MO8	233.000	233.000	
MO9	233.000	233.000	
SA1	233.000	86.000	0.631
SA2	233.000	89.347	0.617
SA3	233.000	83.628	0.641
SA4	233.000	88.591	0.620
SC1	233.000	233.000	
SC2	233.000	233.000	
SC3	233.000	233.000	
SC4	233.000	233.000	
SC5	233.000	233.000	

APPENDIX Q: PRE-TEST FROM EXPERT 1

13th January, 2020

Dear Professor Abdullahi Hassan Gorondutse,
Director academic planning
Nigerian Police Academy, kano Nigeria.
Pre-Testing of Instruments

I am Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah, a Ph.D. student at the School of Business Management of Universiti Utara Malaysia. You are cordially invited to participate in the pretesting of study instruments to be used in the study. The study aims to investigate the influence of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness among academic staff in north-western Nigeria. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to check and see if there is any ambiguity that the researcher might not have noted in the draft. Also, you are to check the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wordings, format, clarity, simplicity, scaling, and ambiguity of the question items The survey collects no identifying information. More so, all information provided will be used strictly for academic purposes. If you have any questions regarding the survey or this research project in general, please contact me at alfarasheed@yahoo.com or my supervisors, Associate professors Mohd Isa Bin Mohd Faizal and Wan Shakizah Mohd Noor. (faizal@uum.edu.my), (shakeezahmnoor@gmail.com). Alternatively, you can call me at 08036862413. It will be highly appreciated if you can go through and complete the pretesting of the survey questions and make appropriate recommendations within one week, after which I will collect back and discuss them with my supervisors before data collection.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in the pretesting of this questionnaire.

Yours Sincerely,
Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah
Ph.D. HRM Student
School of Business Management,
 UUM College of Business University Utara Malaysia,
 06010, Sintok, Kedah.

APPENDIX R: PRE-TEST FROM EXPERT 2

13th January, 2020

Dear Associate Proffessor Dr Munir Shehu Mashi
Dept of Business Management
Federal University Dutsin-Ma
Nigeria.
Pre-Testing of Instruments

I am Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah, a Ph.D. student at the School of Business Management of Universiti Utara Malaysia. You are cordially invited to participate in the pretesting of study instruments to be used in the study. The study aims to investigate the influence of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness among academic staff in north-western Nigeria. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to check and see if there is any ambiguity that the researcher might not have noted in the draft. Also, you are to check the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wordings, format, clarity, simplicity, scaling, and ambiguity of the question items The survey collects no identifying information. More so, all information provided will be used strictly for academic purposes. If you have any questions regarding the survey or this research project in general, please contact me at alfarasheed@yahoo.com or my supervisors, Associate professors Mohd Isa Bin Mohd Faizal and Wan Shakizah Mohd Noor. (faizal@uum.edu.my), (shakeezahmnoor@gmail.com). Alternatively, you can call me at 08036862413. It will be highly appreciated if you can go through and complete the pretesting of the survey questions and make appropriate recommendations within one week, after which I will collect back and discuss them with my supervisors before data collection.

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Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah
Ph.D. HRM Student
School of Business Management,
 UUM College of Business University Utara Malaysia,
 06010, Sintok, Kedah.

APPENDIX S: PRE-TEST FROM EXPERT 3

13th   January, 2020

Dear Associate Proffessor Dr Taofeek Adejare
(Coordinator for entrepreneurship Studies)
Centre for Foundation and Inter-disciplinary Studies (FIS)
Baze University Abuja Nigeria.
Nigeria.
Pre-Testing of Instruments

I am Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah, a Ph.D. student at the School of Business Management of Universiti Utara Malaysia. You are cordially invited to participate in the pretesting of study instruments to be used in the study. The study aims to investigate the influence of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness among academic staff in north-western Nigeria. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to check and see if there is any ambiguity that the researcher might not have noted in the draft. Also, you are to check the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wordings, format, clarity, simplicity, scaling, and ambiguity of the question items The survey collects no identifying information. More so, all information provided will be used strictly for academic purposes. If you have any questions regarding the survey or this research project in general, please contact me at alfarasheed@yahoo.com or my supervisors, Associate professors Mohd Isa Bin Mohd Faizal and Wan Shakizah Mohd Noor. (faizal@uum.edu.my), (shakeezahmnoor@gmail.com). Alternatively, you can call me at 08036862413. It will be highly appreciated if you can go through and complete the pretesting of the survey questions and make appropriate recommendations within one week, after which I will collect back and discuss them with my supervisors before data collection.

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Yours Sincerely,
Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah
Ph.D. HRM Student
School of Business Management,
 UUM College of Business University Utara Malaysia,
 06010, Sintok, Kedah.

434

APPENDIX T: PRE-TEST FROM EXPERT 4

13th   January, 2020

Dear Dr Najaafi Awwal Ibrahim
Department of Business Administration and Entrepreneurship,
Bayero University Kano.
.
Pre-Testing of Instruments

I am Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah, a Ph.D. student at the School of Business Management of Universiti Utara Malaysia. You are cordially invited to participate in the pretesting of study instruments to be used in the study. The study aims to investigate the influence of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness among academic staff in north-western Nigeria. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to check and see if there is any ambiguity that the researcher might not have noted in the draft. Also, you are to check the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wordings, format, clarity, simplicity, scaling, and ambiguity of the question items The survey collects no identifying information. More so, all information provided will be used strictly for academic purposes. If you have any questions regarding the survey or this research project in general, please contact me at alfarasheed@yahoo.com or my supervisors, Associate professors Mohd Isa Bin Mohd Faizal and Wan Shakizah Mohd Noor. (faizal@uum.edu.my), (shakeezahmnoor@gmail.com). Alternatively, you can call me at 08036862413. It will be highly appreciated if you can go through and complete the pretesting of the survey questions and make appropriate recommendations within one week, after which I will collect back and discuss them with my supervisors before data collection.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in the pretesting of this questionnaire.

Yours Sincerely,
Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah
Ph.D. HRM Student
School of Business Management,
 UUM College of Business University Utara Malaysia,
 06010, Sintok, Kedah.

APPENDIX U: PRE-TEST FROM EXPERT 5

Dear Mr Awa Arua
Assistant Director,
The Federal Ministry of Education
Higher Education Division
Abuja Nigeria.
.
Pre-Testing of Instruments

I am Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah, a Ph.D. student at the School of Business Management of Universiti Utara Malaysia. You are cordially invited to participate in the pretesting of study instruments to be used in the study. The study aims to investigate the influence of motivation and organizational climate on academician effectiveness among academic staff in north-western Nigeria. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to check and see if there is any ambiguity that the researcher might not have noted in the draft. Also, you are to check the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wordings, format, clarity, simplicity, scaling, and ambiguity of the question items The survey collects no identifying information. More so, all information provided will be used strictly for academic purposes. If you have any questions regarding the survey or this research project in general, please contact me at alfarasheed@yahoo.com or my supervisors, Associate professors Mohd Isa Bin Mohd Faizal and Wan Shakizah Mohd Noor. (faizal@uum.edu.my), (shakeezahmnoor@gmail.com). Alternatively, you can call me at 08036862413. It will be highly appreciated if you can go through and complete the pretesting of the survey questions and make appropriate recommendations within one week, after which I will collect back and discuss them with my supervisors before data collection.

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Yours Sincerely,
Abdulrasheed Aminullah Abdullah
Ph.D. HRM Student
School of Business Management,
UUM College of Business University Utara Malaysia,
06010, Sintok, Kedah.