THE IMPLICATION OF ADEQUATE
MOTIVATION ON WORKERS PRODUCTIVITY
IN AN ORGANISATION

BY

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MATRICULATION NO: 2509

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO ST. CLEMENTS UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ST. CLEMENTS UNIVERSITY

SEPTEMBER 2004
APPROVAL

This is to certify that this research project was carried out under our strict supervision and has been approved for submission to the department in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of the DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DECREE

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this project write up to GOD through JESUS CHRIST my Lord, Saviour, Adviser, Inspiration, Wisdom, and my Maker through whom I have all my dreams achieved.

In 1980 he inspired me with assurance that he would surely help me bridge my deficiency as per Education.

Thanks today the stories have changed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Dreams are more valuable than money, and a blind mind is worse than a blind eye. Because dreams do find opportunity, money first does not fulfil dreams. It can kill dream. Seek your dream actualisation then heaven will aid you. This has been the guiding principle that has aided me over the years.

My thanks are due to many people, whose experiences and knowledge couple with their persistent effort for me to break forth due to the natural endowment.

I will first and foremost express my thanks to my late father Mr. Ehiorobo Vbokhahu. Who had predicted that his children would one day contribute to knowledge and the well being of our Country Nigeria. And my mother, Mrs. Grace Ehiorobo’s contribution can not be overemphasized though not having the formal educational requirement, but she possesses that wisdom, acumen that enable her stratagem for the future, consequently she is to the family regarded as a master planner.

What could I have become without adhering to the advice of my brother Mr. Ehiorobo Osawaru, Lucky in 1983 when he secured admission for me to further my education. Mr. Edward Osaro, Ehiorobo made the journey easy by providing me with the necessary financial support. Other encourages from within Mr. Augustine Enoma and Miss Queen Enoma your contributions is herewith acknowledged.

In retrospect late Chief Samuel U. Ogunbor and his wife’s Mrs. Comfort, Clara, Mary, Y. Ogunbor and late Madam Victoria Ogunbor contribution cannot be soon forgotten. My present career developments have drawn on the free consultancy advice given to me in 1977 by Mrs. Mary Ogunbor whom I regards today as one of my Mentor.

The Ogunbor children whose names are many Mary, Chief Richard, Efosa, Anthonia, Nosakhare, Anderson, Nekpen, Osagie, Edoghogho, Osakpamwan, Enoma, Abiemwense, Ogie, Egbeye, Adesuwa and Oziegbe they enthuse me to take up the challenge and gave much inspiration. I really acknowledge the selfless
contribution and support of Miss Adesuwa Ogunbor proper. I also wish to record my thanks and appreciation to other relatives for the help and moral support received. Mr. Palmer, Sunday, Iyora, Frank Imafidon, Mr. Otenhabu, Emmanuel, Grace Ojo, Mr. Omoruyi Amawu, and his children Godwin, Sunday, Anna and the rest whose name is not mention.

Going into academic research at an unfavourable time of economic downturn in our country Nigeria couple with the official work demand requires a special type of courage and perseverance. On hindsight, it was the right decision after all. Instead of brooding away and reading the gloomy news on newspapers cover to cover which I have no control over, spending the time to build up my capability seems more meaningful. Incidentally, capability building is an important communiqué of strategic visioning.

I would also like to record my appreciation to all the entrepreneurs and colleagues, professionals, Eng. Albert Esenabhalu, Dr. Bokowe Enajeria, Dr. Jude Akagbusum, Mr. Jerome Onoja and Stella Asibor whom I had the privilege to seek views from; without whose assistance this dissertation would not be completed. I must also express my sincere appreciation to those who have contributed in one way or the other to the full realisation of the research.

Special accolade goes to my Academic Adviser, and as well my Supervisor Prof. David Iornem, of the Institute of Management Consultants, Kaduna, Nigeria, whose direction and efforts aided the outcome of this research. His invaluable contributions, encouragement and assistance throughout the research will always be remembered. I am also indebted to the staff of IMC, Lagos Mr. Kola Adeoye for the dispatch with which they treated all my matters.

My sincere and special thanks to Miss Omotayo Animashaun who did most of the typing work and my secretary Mr. Kenneth Ebolohien whose useful contributions and assistance made for improvements in the presentation of the research work.
I also thank my staff, Mr. Donatus Eboh, Richard Anglinah, Friday Nwabuko, Moses Chukwueke, Taiwo Odetomi, George Elikwu, Anthony Obilonu, Femi Makinde, Linus Ejim, John Ageh, Hawley Oni, Oseni Rashidi, Chomo Dalyop, Ajayi Rotiba, Samuel Nwaokike, George Showunmi, Francis Asuquo, David Titus, Bode Fabunmi, Olukunle Samuel, Gbenga Ogunjimi, Obiwale Folusho, Taju Onajobi, Bernard Nwachukwu, Michael Achayan and Ayodeji Igwe whose great concern for my academic advancement is acknowledge.

We are all influenced by the thought and ideas of other people, which tend to drift into the subconscious and are not always distinguished clearly from ones own. I have attempted to give reference for sources of work by other writers but apologies to any concerned if acknowledgement has inadvertently not been recorded.

Finally, none of those who helped me in this research should be held responsible for the form or any errors but me.
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity in an organisation especially in the Nigerian workplace and the issues involved in the designing and promoting of such programs. Asea Brown Boveri (ABB) Company in Nigeria was used as the case study.

The study has provided the conceptual framework upon which motivational programs in ABB workplace are based as well as the type of activities and skill that are involved. The focus is on such programs that will help employees deal with personal problems that might affect their productivity.

The dissertation covers the fundamentals rudiments of employee motivational processes and the appropriate steps needed to successfully implement the findings. It also addresses the values and culture of the Nigerian organisation norms that may affect the success of implementation.

The thesis incorporated a study that was conducted on 714 employees from three different groups of ABB International companies in Nigeria to find out the workers attitudes towards adequate motivational incentives and the types of problems commonly being experienced by the employees in the organisation.

In the thesis, hypotheses were formulated and tested. The literature review comprised of relevant papers, seminal papers unpublished texts written by known authors and published texts books, which help to strengthen the issues raised. Questionnaires were developed and administered. In addition, the use of survey technique, refined observation and in-depth interviews on Intimacy, consideration, thrust all formed the methodology employed.
A cross section of the staff of ABB comprising 474 subjects drawn from every class and cadre of the organisation was sampled. Nonetheless a random selection 100 questionnaires form the basis of analysis. In the analysis of data collected, the chi ($\chi^2$) was used. This method was used to facilitate the research study. Also simple percentage technique was employed.

Based on the data collected, various interviews and in conjunctions with the analysis, the result indicated that the workers were positively affected toward higher productivity with the provision of regular promotion, assurance of adequate job security and bonus for excellent performance. Nevertheless monetary incentives and rewards do not exert stronger influence on workers than any form of motivational factor.

The seeming loss of one of the most cherished and envied hallmarks of the organisation job security and the uncertainties about wages and salaries would appear to have greatly affected the workers morale. Under such a condition, workers cannot give their best and expected return or output from the job. The management would now need to take an urgent step to look into the problem if the worker is to achieve her stated objectives with higher productivity.

Secondly the organisation should encourage initiative and creativity by allowing for some flexibility in application of rules and regulation. Too much rigidity in applying the rules may constitute a set back in the modern growth of the organisation and dampen initiative and creativity.

Thirdly there is need to fish out talents for reward to serve as roll model or incentive to them, and create an aspiration for others to aim at.
The dissertation had showed that an employee adequate motivational program could succeed only in the context of the organisational commitment.

Finally the research result showed the staff problems and circumstances militating against higher productivity. Solution was recommended to obviate deterioration on workers productivity.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

Although there is general agreement among psychologists that man experiences a variety of needs, there is considerable disagreement as to what these needs are and their relative importance.

There have been a number of attempts to present models of motivation which list a specific number of motivating needs, with the implication that these lists are all-inclusive and represent the total picture of needs. Unfortunately, each of these models has weaknesses and gaps, and we are still without a general theory of motivation.

All organisation are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through people. Consequently the subject of adequate motivation of workers as derived from the so many attempts made by management practitioner is to look for the best way to manage so as to accomplish an objective or mission with the least inputs of materials and human resources available.

A lot of theoretical concept, principles and techniques of management have evolved in response to these challenges. In general management authors have tended to view motivation as a key component of the managerial function of leading or directing. However, leading or leadership style, although an important factor in determining the attitude of employers toward assigned job responsibilities is not the only determinant, other managerial function such as planning, controlling, staffing and organizing also play a role.
In any serious and competitive society workers are one of the tools for economic progress. Their welfare is taken into serious consideration because without a dedicated workforce an organization crumbles. The nations (Nigerian) reward system is probably the poorest in the entire globe were an average take home of the worker is put at $35 per month. Workers are used and abused harassed, treated, offended and discarded without any appreciation for their contribution to their organization and to the society at large.

It is therefore apparent that the issue of adequate motivation of worker has relevance in managerial function and activities that are aimed at directing the productive effort of the workforce toward achieving organisational objectives. Knotz et al (1980) holds that management strives to create and maintain an environment that is conducive to the performance of individuals who are working together in groups towards the accomplishment of pre-selected objective. Workers in organisation work in-groups and group dynamics often result in the conflict of goals between individuals and their groups.

Conversely Motivation according to Strauss and Sayles, can be provided for workers, using the following methods,

1. The traditional approach
2. Human relations approach.
3. Implicit bargaining.
4. Competition, and
5. Internalised motivation

The traditional approach to motivate, which is often referred to as the economic man model assumes the following,
(a) The only reason why people work, is to earn money and that they will work only if driven to it by fear of losing their jobs.

(b) Since no one likes to work, people will try to get away with doing as little as they can. Management must tell every worker exactly what to do, spell out every rule and give the worker the narrowest possible range for discretion.

Secondly the human relations approach emphasizes motivation basically through satisfying the workers security and benefits that provide some protection against illness, old age and unemployment. The social need for belonging should be met by various recreational activities and by the development of strong cohesive work groups.

The third approach to motivation is the implicit bargaining approach. When using this approach, management encourages workers to do a reasonable amount of work by agreeing to be more flexible in terms of supervision. These bargain in usually a matter of implicit, unspoken understanding.

The fourth approach to motivation is around competition for the pay increases and promotion that accompany outstanding work. This is important because it helps the worker to satisfy various forms of need satisfaction. Some of these include a sense of accomplishment, and added social prestige.

The last of the approaches under consideration is internalised motivation. This deals with providing opportunities for need satisfaction through doing the job itself. This approach uses Herzberge’s motivators, which means that management should create
conditions under which workers will willingly and voluntarily work towards organisational objectives because they enjoy the work.

Economic motivation is de-emphasized and more stress is put on age mode. These methods according to status and styles can either be used alone or in combination. It is further stated that usually most manager uses a combination of all five methods. It is important to consider the issue of motivation in organizations because of the interleave desire of people to pursue their own personal aspirations while the organizational objects are being met.

Certain problems of inadequate motivation however do arise as it concerns certain individuals who come into the work situation with differences in expectation, behaviour and outlook. These problems of individual motivation inadequately may be divided into two categories?

Firstly, the inability of certain individuals to be motivated may stem from the fact that there is a deficiency in their personality. For such people, the desire to avoid failure may be too strong while paradoxically, the motive to produce positive results may be too weak. This could produce a general resistance to achievement-oriented activity that should naturally be overcome by other extrinsic modes of motivation if there is to be any spur to achievement oriented activity at all.

Secondly, even when the achievement motive is relatively strong, the challenges before the individual worker may be prove to be inadequate or too difficult, which ever of
these that apply to the individual worker will usually manifest themselves in different ways such as lack of enthusiasm or premature surrender.

Bryans and Crouin contend that effective group functioning depends on the development of supportive relationships. This is important because it makes provisions for different views to be put forward and carefully studied, thus minimising the development of conflicts, which could be destructive to the establishment. Bryan and Crouin further stated that discussions, collective problem solving and decision-making could all benefit from a genuinely supportive atmosphere.

This is because the individual could derive a sense of acceptance from being a member of the establishment. This could serve as a powerful motivating force in influencing his behaviour towards other members of the establishment. At the base of all these, is the issue of individual differences which go a long way to determine the extent to which an individual is motivated. Some of the factors, which are responsible for individual differences include genetic, make up, up bringing and current influences.

In spite of all these apparent attendant problems of motivation, and productivity, every organisation do necessarily seek means of ensuring continuous productivity, which would be geared towards the accomplishment of organisation goals. The organisational system under study cannot be said to be different in any way, in terms of producing the results for which it was set up. In all these processes the private organisation and indeed the corporate organisation business has thus helped to make Nigeria the country it is today.
Motivation also finds relevance in the behavioural sciences especially in psychology where attempts are made to find out the, what, when, how and why of human behaviour. Nigerian authors Gbadamosi and Adebakin (1996) posit that motivation is an aspect of the behavioural sciences that attempts to answer the question of why human’s beings behave the way they do.

This study will also examine to what extent the non-economic factors such as achievement, job security, recognition, advancement, job enrichment or the job itself, responsibility, decisional participation and management style are needed to raise the morale of the worker for high productivity. These factors are refereed to in this study as non-economic motivators in the sense that their incentive power is not necessarily derived from money.

It is often said that one of the key problems in private organisation is not that the workers lack motivation but that the managers lack the ability to nurture it. Adequate motivation (high morale), leadership style and the success of an organization are closely inter-twinred.

The good leader is he who is able to motivate his workers to maximum production and efficiency. A man however only gives what he has. To be able to motivate, a leader must know what is a motivator and how to use it. I believe that pay packers and fringe benefits are taken for granted and do not serve as primary motivators. On the other hand, certain factors, which contribute to human dignity, may not entail any monetary gains but to the individual may mean much and when they are present may create a very good and healthy
atmosphere to induce adequate motivation but when they are absent, the result is frustration and de-motivation.

The study identifies these elements that promote human dignity and thus raise the morale of the worker for higher productivity. The study further investigates the effect of these factors here referred to as ‘non-economic motivators’ on the workers and the consequent output of the ABB Organisation.

For the purpose of this study then, non-economic motivators is used to refer to those factors which are not necessarily computable in monetary terms but which; drive’ the human mind from within to behave in a desired way and to the maximum realization of the organizational objectives while adequate motivation is simply defined as contentment, fulfilment or job satisfaction. I should perhaps explain that the title “the implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity” is my own coinage, which may be likened to Herzberg’s hygiene factors.

Herzberg had concluded from his studies that achievement; recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth are major satisfiers because their positive influence is far more frequently an element in satisfaction than is their negative effect an element in dissatisfaction. More recent studies have advanced on Herzberg ‘s position.

While there are studies to support Herzberg’s list of satisfiers in his sequence, there are questions as to the position or order of these satisfiers. All these
studies however, have been carried out in the developed highly industrialized societies. It is therefore not certain whether the findings can be applied to the Nigeria situation.

1.1 Background of the Study

Nigeria is the largest and the most heavily populated country in the continent of African, she gains Independent in 1960. With independence come a number of changes prominent among which was the change in leadership structure, role and operation of the bureaucracy of government.

Nigeria like other developing nations entered the international scene as a sovereign nation at a time when the developed countries had already achieved a high level of technological, socio-cultural and economical advancement. Like in other developing countries the urge to catch up with the west has led to massive state involvement in many facet of socio-economic life, a factor that has become a part of the task of nation building. The sense of urgency and the need to reinforce political independence with economic growth is reflected in all her national development plans since independence.

What’s more Nigeria has progressed from a basically agrarian society to a budding, industrial society with a mixed level of educational and technological attainment. Nevertheless, with reference to the lunching of our first satellite on the orbit on September 27, 2003 this has in a way boost her technological status. Nigerian satellite is the culmination of a long harboured dream of having a wholly owned earth-observing device capable of assisting the nation in dealing with its multifarious problems.
Within the agrarian period the country has experienced many changes in the leadership by way of coups and counter-coups, civil war, states creation with all their attendant problems. Conversely motivation is a by-product of any factors. These factors could either be internally or externally galvanized, depending on the disposition of the individual and prevailing circumstances at any given time. In the present Nigerian situation, the economic rate of activities and the subsequent high inflation rate have made money a relatively high motivating factor.

Behaviour is both directed to, and results from, unsatisfied needs. The limited number of salary reviews in Nigeria as well in corporate organisation has brought about a situation where there have been persistent expressions of dissatisfaction among workers. These workers include staff of Asea Brown Boveri whom ordinarily is look at as the member of the oil industries.

The private organisation or service industry depend largely on government budgets and prevailing stipulated policy to stay in the market. Therefore, salary reviews has invariably led to situation in which a lot of financial pressures have been put on management of the organisation in particular ABB. Incidentally, is the lower category of workers that bear the burden of price increases while the salary of management staff scarcely affected?

Inflation ordinarily affects the standard of living of people. This in turn adversely affects productivity. Low productivity in most cases is a by-product of
dissatisfaction, which could manifest itself in various ways. Some of these ways include indiscipline and general apathy. To contain these traits it is important to understand the individuals to be motivated, and the society itself. This is because of the number of factors, which influence individuals in different societal set ups differs.

In some cases, such a method could prove to be counter productive because the issue of adequate motivation and consequently workers productivity is a product of a person’s set up of needs, goals, drive and experience. By implication, this means that factors which govern motivation, job satisfaction, workers productivity and attitude to work differ from one society to another. However, the entire issue of the implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity is embedded in the various theories of motivation.

People are motivated by various factors at different times, according to Wilkinson et al, the first factor is the combination of the individual perceptions of the expectations other people have of them, and their own expectations of themselves. This happens because people come into work situations with various expectations.

When they arrive at the work place, they meet other people who also have expectations of them; positive individual and group expectations serve as positive motivational factors for the worker. This is why a balance must be struck as much as possible between organizational objectives and individual
aspirations. The essence of this is to ensure a situation where the individual is motivated while the organization is achieving established objectives.

The second factor deals with the issue of self-images and concepts as well as life experiences and personality. These factors have to be positively motivated in the worker to yield proactive behaviour. This can be achieved through a carefully planned reward system, which is a type of reinforcement directed at modifying people behaviour.

Those who occupy management positions in organisations encourage behaviour basically through the means of positive reinforcement. Positive reinforcement boosts favourable consequences that go a long way to encourage the repetition of particular behaviour.

In a study conducted at Emery Air Freight in USA by Davia it was discovered that in spite of proper training for workers and a good level of co-operation among them, productivity was still about 45% instead of the anticipated 90%. In a bid to improve performance, management decided to apply a program of positive reinforcement, which entailed training supervisors to give performance feedback to worker on a daily basis as well as recognition and other rewards.

As a result of the application of the positive reinforcement program, performance improved from 45% to 95%. This happened because the regular feedback and recognition gave the workers the psychological feeling that strongly and positively influenced their work.
People work together in large organisations like banks, factories where they are expected to follow orders, which they may not approve of. In addition, they may have to obey instruction from supervisors they had no hand in selecting. This is the type of situation where the worker might have no opportunity for self-expression. The basic question that now arises, relates to how to create a situation in which workers can satisfy their individual needs while working towards organisational goals. How can workers in service organisation in particular Asea Brown Boveri who feel that their salaries are low when compared with their contemporaries in the private sector be motivated?

The adoption of the presidential system of Government in Nigeria seems to have complicated and compounded the human problems of the common people as well as staff of private, corporate organisations. Motivation can be a choice. When employees and the leadership understand that motivation is a self-fulfilling prophecy they can begin to make new choices. This will also help at how the motivational plan ties together with other critical elements such as overall employee development (task, skills and teaming) as well as reward programs.

The management of people at work is a very important aspect of attaining the set organisational objective, with a peculiar reference to ABB in Nigeria this research project will explain the meaning and underlying concept of motivation, identify main types of needs and expectations of staff at work, explain possible reactions to frustration at work. Outline different approaches to work motivation, explain the nature of different theories of motivation, examine main theories of motivation and evaluate their
relevance to particular organisational work situations; Appreciate the complex nature of work motivation.

1.2 Statement of Problem

Nigeria is reputed to be the sixth largest producer of oil in the world. Recent exploratory works have indicated that the country has an even larger reserve of natural gas than petroleum. The country therefore has the potential of becoming a leading industrialized (if the potential are properly harnessed) nation in the world in the not-too-distant future due to this natural endowment. The current state of affairs in the nation in general as relating to the workforce motivation makes it necessary to temper this optimism with caution. “The workers are on strike again. "Over what?" They are asking for another pay rise after the one granted just few months ago.” What more do they want?

These statements and comments and many similar ones are reported frequently in the dailies and are commented upon by watchers of development in various industry and service organisation. The questions are often asked as to what workers in general and particular want from their employers. Can there be an end to the clamour for increases in wages? Why do workers work and what induces them to give of their best?

These questions are not peculiar to the civil servants or services organisation in Nigeria alone. Recently, the Federal Government announced an upward review of the minimum wages in the civil service. Almost, immediately after the announcement, there was a nation-wide agitation by workers in the states and
local government bureaucracies to benefit from the largesse. It would appear as if money, and more money, is what workers ever ask for, but the fact is that money is a motivator in this part of the world.

Money only plays the role of common denominator of all things. There is a general notion that if only management can identify other things that can motivate the workforce apart from money, perhaps there will be a dramatic reduction in the demand by workers for pay rises. Less time will be spent on the annual ritual of management/workers union negotiation meetings.

The aim of this research therefore is to find out from empirical studies whether workers, given the right incentives other than money can put in their best to contribute to the productivity and growth of the organisations to achieve the following objectives, amongst others: Reduce labour turnover, Increase workers productivity, Redesign and put in place appropriate labour laws and policies, eliminate or reduce industrial unrest, Improve management and staff relations, Create a productivity culture in the organisation.

It therefore follows that the efficiency and productivity of any organisation will have a multiplier effect on the economy in general. To achieve the desired efficiency and productivity levels, business establishments rely on a highly motivated workforce that shares the vision and aspirations of the establishment. What then can company operating in this organisation do to elicit the right work attitudes and drive from their employees towards achieving continuous productivity and growth?
Moreover the intention of the researcher is to elicit responses from ABB staff on their views about the implication of various motivational factors in the organisation, especially how it affect their productivity. Answers to the following research question were sought so as to provide solutions to the problems of the study.

1. Is there any relationship between motivational factors and higher productivity for experienced staff of ABB?
2. Is there any relationship between motivational factors and workers productivity for experienced staff in each organisation of ABB?
3. Is there any relationship between motivational factors and attitude to work of less experienced staff in ABB?
4. Is there any relationship between motivational factors and approach to work of less experienced staff in each of the three ABB organisation?
5. Is there any relationship between motivational factors and approach to work of old members of staff in the entire ABB organisation?
6. Is there any relationship between motivational factors and attitude to work of young members of staff in all the ABB Organisation?

1.3 Purpose of Study

The research will attempt to proffer answers to the question agitating the minds of management of the organisation, as to what to do to adequately motivate her workers to contribute their quota to their company’s productivity and growth.
The research also will look at motivation from the perspective of the workforce. While seeking to refute or validate the various models and theories of motivation by finding out from the “horse mouth” what really motivates the workers in the organisation of today and the causes of poor performance and productivity.

The purpose of this study include finding our whether there is any relationship between adequate motivational factors and productivity to work among management, senior staff, junior staff and contract staff respectively of the organisation under study.

Secondly, it is hoped that this study will help to identify how the staff of the organisation rate the various motivational factors and it implication. Finally, it is expected that the findings of this study will serve as a basis for fostering improved working relationship between management of the organisation and her staff.

1.4 Assumptions
The assumptions of the study are that the staffs of Asea Brown Boveri Limited in Nigeria are not well adequately motivated in terms of financial remuneration and provision of enable working environments.

Secondly, poor motivation could leads to frustration, which could manifest itself in various ways amongst staff. Example could be low productivity and nonchalant attitudes towards work.
1.5 Hypotheses

I believe that work can be meaningful and satisfying to a given job incumbent only when it elicits and stimulates his inner motivation. These views raise some research questions, which form the basis of the hypotheses for this study. To put this in proper perspective, the following hypotheses were formulated for testing.

1.5.1 There is no significant relationship between motivational factors and work productivity for experienced staff of ABB.

1.5.2 That pay packet is a necessity but not a sufficient condition for worker satisfaction in the organisation.

1.5.3 That the organisation will perform better when the satisfaction the workers derives from doing their work outweighs the discomfort and sacrifices that are involved.

1.5.4 Monetary incentives and rewards exert a stronger influence on workers than any form of motivational incentive.

1.5.5 Productivity and motivation as observed in workers operate in direct proportion.

1.5.6 I also have a lot of hunches, which answer may relate to the hypotheses of this study and I believe these need investigation for the promotion of greater satisfaction and productivity in the organisation.

My hunches are: -
1.5.6.1 That at the top management and supervisory levels of the organisation, an officer will derive greater satisfaction carrying out a decision in which he has played a part in making;

1.5.6.2 That the security of work enjoyed by workers is a motivating force and when this security is threatened, it breeds frustration and lower productivity;

1.5.6.3 That every staff like every other worker anywhere wants recognition and failure to get this results in lower morale and lack of productivity;

1.5.6.4 That achievement is a great motivating factor in an individual and every worker looks up to it;

1.5.6.5 That the job itself is meaningful to the satisfaction of the worker;

1.5.6.6 That advancement or promotion (not necessarily for the financial gain) is a great incentive and motivating force in any organisation;

1.5.6.7 That at the managerial and supervisory levels in Service, responsibility motivates

1.5.6.8 That growth or staff development in a company, motivates as well increases the productivity of the staff;

1.5.6.9 That growth solidarity and a sense of belonging will contribute vitally to the morale of the staff; and

1.5.6.10 That leadership or management style in any organisation will greatly affect the output of the job.
These propositions, which I believe supplement or explain the major hypotheses of this study, are examined in the study. The study hopes to show the effect of the above stated variables on the confidence of the staff of ABB in Nigeria.

In so doing, this study takes a close look at the organization and its performance in terms of the stated objectives. In particular, the study examines the effects of motivational factors other than money in the effective functioning of the organisation and offers suggestions for improvement.

1.6 Significant of Study

The findings from this study will help to highlight those areas where there are problems among staff and thus will be of great benefit to the chief executive official of the organisation and the policy makers.

The results of this study would hopefully be significant in the sense that it would enable both the Management and the labour union to better understand how the various motivational factors could be harnessed to inspire staff to increase and sustain productivity.

The findings from this study would help to further highlight the likely problems of frustrations and how motivation can be used to either reduce or eliminate these problems amongst staff of the organisation.
The results from this study will help to highlight the concept of group dynamics and staff behaviour to work. Through such understanding, the administrative scope of the chief executives official could be broadened and this would put him in a better position to review and over-haul their orientation to administration in terms of better motivating staff and thus producing better results by fully utilizing the human resources potentials available.

Furthermore this study will be of immense benefit to policy makers in the human resources functions of the organisations. Also labour union officials and representative at the negotiation meeting will find it useful when putting together their “basket of needs” and it will assist management in these other areas:

1.6.1 Designing and putting in place together welfare incentives for the workforce
1.6.2 Enables the organization identifies various types of needs and expectation of people at work.
1.6.3 Outline different approach to work motivation.
1.6.4 Explain the meaning and underlying concert of motivation.
1.6.5 Useful for government officials and establishments responsible for reviewing and updating policies and legislation or worker motivation.

In the advent of government or corporate organisation deciding to organize seminars and workshops for chief executive of business organisation in future, it is hoped that they would be equipped in terms of peculiarities to which participants should be addressed.
1.7 Limitation of Study

This research will focus exclusively on the three ABB organisations in Nigeria namely:


The workforce to be covered within the context of the survey will include contract, permanent (these include senior and junior) and management staff. The research also will establish whether the career background of an employee determines his or her level and opportunities for career advancement and hence how much a part of the organisation he feels he is, respondents will be categorised according to their professions.

Therefore one possible area of constraint in carrying out this research will probably be the difficulty of circulating the research instrument in the selected branches of the companies due to high level of security surrounding the work area and offices.

Finally the general apathy amongst Nigeria culture towards research work may also hinder accessibility to prospective respondents who are to provide needed data.

1.8 Delimitation of Study

The relationship between the organization and its members is governed by what motivates them to work and the fulfilments they derive from it. The
manager needs to understand how to elicit the cooperation of staff and direct their performance to achieving the goals and objectives of the organization.

However, this study is delimited to the three-selected ABB group of company, in Nigeria namely ABB Nig Ltd, ABB Powerlines Ltd and ABB Electrical System. The work force to be covered within the context of the project will include contract, permanent and management staff.

This study is further delimited in terms of the organizational sub-sets of familiarity, concern and driving force as well as approach to work.

1.9 Glossary of Terms

In some circumstances, word may carry different meanings. However, according to Thouless, if our thoughts are to be clearly communicated to other people then we must have a method of fixing the meaning of the word we used. For purposes of clarity therefore, some of the important term used in this study are defined as follows:

Adequate Motivation: These are factors (familiarity, concern and driving force), which exist or are provided in a work situation either physically or psychologically which determine the input and productivity level of the worker.
Implication of Motivation: The term could be defined as the work disposition of an employee, which affects the mode of doing his work.

Intimacy: Intimacy or Familiarity could be described as the feeling of warmth and friendliness based on interpersonal relationship among people.

Consideration: Consideration or Concern refers to a situation where both their colleagues and managers treat staffs with understanding. In this case, there is both a personal and human touch in dealing with workers,

Thrust: Thrust or driving force deals with leadership by example as a means of motivating subordinates. Leadership in this context takes personal interest in staff while also displaying a high degree of professional competence and dynamic leadership qualities.

Morale: Moral refers to staff emotional and mental level of zeal.

Productivity: Productivity is the relationship between the amount of one or more inputs and the amount of outputs from a clearly identified process.

Permanent Staff: Permanent staff refers to those experienced member of staff who irrespective of their ages have been working for a minimum period of five years.

Contract Staff: Members of staff who irrespective of their academic accomplishments and status are more or less regarded.
Management Staff: Management staff refers to those member of staff who irrespective of their ages have attain grade level 6 and above

GM General Manager. CEO Chief Executive Official (Country Manager)

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Literature Review

Work is an important event, a fact that is inevitable in the life of an individual whatever form, it is done, it is an activities and source of satisfaction ones needs. Employee try to find satisfaction in what they do and as a result the manager should be able to understand the problems faced by his workers and find a way of satisfying their needs and aspiration

The general assumption is that an adequately motivated worker will in turn give in his or her best towards the attainment of a general consensus. Consequently when a worker is motivated the question of poor performance and inefficiency will be forgotten issue in an organisation. Manager who are successful in motivating employees are made often providing an environment in which appropriate or adequate goals called incentive are made available for the needed satisfaction of the employee.

A good number of workers are adequately paid in their jobs so as to work hard and maintain a high standard of productivity while some even work hard but do not receive much material gains to show for it. The issue under consideration is how does a worker in an organisation with a particular set of needs achieve the reward he desires? Generally management do withhold rewards to motivate employee to achieve high performance or productivity.

Today manager cannot rely solely on the manipulation of pay, benefit or working conditions to encourage workers to perform effectively and efficiency.
Rather manager in organisation has top shoulder the responsibility by developing a work environment that makes use of the enormous energy that is within every person. Simply put it is the duty of the manager to create and develop an effective environment in which employee will be motivated to become productive members of the organisation by striving for what will bring them reward.

Campbell and Richard (1980) came up with the following assumption about human behaviour. (1) All human behaviour has a course, which can be traced to the effect of the environment. (2) The root of human behaviour is also traceable to needs, wants, and motives. (3) Human behaviour is goal-seeking people would release their effort in the direction they believe will help to satisfy their personal needs.

This chapter shall attempt to look at how the subject of motivation has evolved over the years and some known literature that have been written and that have relevance to the subject. An attempt will also be made to find out any knowledge gap that exists in current literature on the subject and how this research can bridge some of this gap.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Two incompatible conceptions of human nature appear in philosophical literature. One holds that man is essentially rational, a choosing willing being who knows the sources of his conduct or who is aware of the reasons for his conduct and hence is responsible for that conduct.
The other viewpoint sometimes holds that man, by nature, is irrational and that his impulses and desires must be held in check by the force of society’s sanctions. Another way of saying this is that man is pushed and pulled by the forces of his constitution and the stresses of his environment and that he is largely unaware of the sources of his actions and may therefore not have personal responsibility for his actions.

Adequate motivational factors have little or no place in a rationalistic account of conduct, because man’s reason is the overriding factor in the determination of what he does. His will is free to choose whatever course of action his reason dictates. If his choices are unwise, unethical, or immoral, he is responsible for them because his reason and his will have freely selected them. On the other hand, motivational factors would explain the behaviour of man in particular circumstances if it were accepted that he is irrational.

Since the study is aimed at examining the implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity in an organisation, it will be necessary to critically examine the study by seeking to define what is meant by the concepts ‘implication of adequate motivation’ ‘workers productivity and ‘organisation’ It will also be necessary to review some studies in these areas.

2.2 The Evolution of Motivational Concepts

Notions of motivation have their roots in the philosophical principle of hedonism – namely that individuals tend to seek pleasure and avoid pain. Hedonism assumes a
certain degree of conscious behaviour on the part of individuals whereby they make intentional decisions or choices concerning future actions.

In theory, people rationally consider the behaviour alternatives available to them and act to maximise positive results and to minimise negative results. These assumptions were however not testable and with a spirit of inquiry, motivational theory gradually moved from the realm of philosophy to the more empirically based science of philosophy.

Even then, motivation is relatively a new concept in psychological theory it entered the discipline as ‘instinct’, only to be reformulated as ‘drive’. There are basically four (4) theories of motivational concept and a brief comment on each of them will enhance the understanding of the nature of motivation. The theories are: - Instinct Theories; Drive Theories; Hedonic Theories; and Cognitive Theories.

One of the greatest exponents of instincts theories was McDougall and he defined instinct as ‘an inherent or innate psychophysical disposition which determines its possessor to perceive, and to pay attention to, objects of a certain class, to experience an emotional excitement of a particular quality upon perceiving such an object, and to act in regard to it in a particular manner, or at least, to experience an impulse to such actions.

According to McDougall, man is moved solely by his instinct and under such a situation he wondered why man ever behaved rationally. He saw the problem of man as that of accounting for the control over instincts and he regarded personality as developed in the interest of such control. He therefore accorded great importance to motive forces in man’s behaviour.
Instinct is purposive directing or guarding the organism to suitable objects or actions in the interest of its needs. Another notion of instinct was that of unconscious motivation or behaviour and this was the basis of the work of Feud who argued that most behavioural tendencies were not necessarily those of that individuals ‘consciously’ determined would be in their best interests.

He saw a major factor in human motivation as resulting from forces unknown even to the individual himself. Criticisms about these positions brought about the concept drive and writers like Woodworth and Sherrington wrote of instinctive behaviour and preparatory and consummators reactions which were termed drive.

**Drive theorist** were concerned with two things: the mechanisms of action; and the forces which energies the mechanism into action. We have many potential acts or behaviours in our repertoires but they do not reach expression continuously or simultaneously in the typical case. They occur individually, sporadically, or episodically, yet the mechanisms that underline them when they do appear are presumably always present in our nervous systems.

It take some special conditions for he mechanism underlying a given act to be activated, and Woodworth used the word ‘drive’ as one condition necessary to power the mechanism into action. Drive refers to general energy supply and tissue needed as source of drive. Thus drive concept came quickly to use in reference to the physiological conditions, which seem to underline the occurrence of preparatory behaviours and consummator reactions like in hunger, thirst and sex.
Behaviour was thought to vary in amount or quantity as drives varied. When drive increased there was moral general activity, consummators behaviour was enhanced and so on. The concept drive was soon replaced with incentive otherwise called hedonic. **Hedonic** as the name implies mean devoted to pleasure and there was talk of positive and negative incentives. Incentives were thought to have two functions:

1. To instigate approach toward it or avoidance (withdrawal) from it;
2. To evoke a state of arousal in the animal so that it will be moved (motivated) to approach or withdraw from the incentive.

The state of arousal is like that envisaged for drive theory, but here the arousal is evoked by the incentive, rather than being due to conditions of deprivation, as in drive theory. Incentive thus became an alternative to drive as the major motivational construct.

Perhaps one of the most scientific approaches to motivation was that provided by proponents of **cognitive theories**. McClelland was one of the foremost men in this area. McClelland and his colleagues dealt with the study of the need for achievement and other needs in human beings.

According to McClelland, all motives are considered to be learned and motivated behaviour falls along appetite or adapted ability. Motivated behaviour takes the form of approach to a situation or withdrawal from stimuli. A motive is defined as a “strong affective association characterized by an anticipatory goal reaction and based on past association of certain cues with pleasure or pain”.
They saw affective process as fundamental to motivation and held that direction and not arousal of behaviour is the proper function of motivation. They gave external stimuli a greater role in motivation than did drive theories. Reinforcement has been proposed as an alternative to drive and also to incentive theory. It may be necessary to examine how it differs from incentive theory. It has been argued that the reinforcement account of motivational phenomena is a non-motivational one.

That the properties of behaviour of interest can be explained in terms of the conditions existing at the time of reinforcement e.g., that they are learned and that no special processes such as drive or arousal by incentives are necessary. This may be a more scientific explanation of the process of behaviour changes than the concepts of instincts or drive. The basic concept of behaviour modification or reinforcement theory assumes that human behaviour can be shaped or altered by manipulating the reward structures of various forms of behaviour.

The process of doing this is called ‘positive reinforcement’. Under this process, performance standards are clearly set and improvements are supposed to result from the application of frequent ‘positive’ feedback and from recognition for satisfactory behaviour. Negative feedback is not used and it is assumed that an employee’s desire for the rewards of positive feedback and recognition will, to a large measure, motivate him or her to perform satisfactory in anticipation for such rewards.

From the foregoing we can say that motivational concepts have had at least 2 major functions with respect to behaviour:
1. To energize response, either in general or specifically and control their vigour and efficiency;

2. To guide behaviour to specific ends, i.e. to give direction to behaviour.

We could also say that motivation provides the conditions for reinforcing behaviour or weakening it. Some learning psychologists have however raised some theoretical problem, namely, that there are other mechanisms, especially learning, which are available to guide behaviour.

According to these learning psychologists, when an animal develops the tendency to turn one way in a maze rather than another, he is said to have learned to go that way. They saw Habits as structures, which guide and control the direction of behaviour, so that motivation is perhaps not necessary as a concept to account for directional aspects of behaviour.

Phenomena of choice and preference they pointed out may be given an interpretation based on habit rather than on motivation. Though there are a lot of controversial views on this objection, I believe in motivational concepts and this is in-fact the essence of this study and I agree that the hallmark of the presence of, and the need for motivational concepts in behaviour is the energising of response and the control of their vigour and efficiency.

2.3 Origin of the Word Motivation

The word ‘motivation’ was originally derived from the Latin word ‘movere’ which means ‘to move’ though this could be an inadequate description for what is meant.
Some definitions include that by Vroom, 1964 “a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity” and Atkinson, 1964 “the contemporary (immediate) influence on the direction, vigour, and persistence of action” and Campbell and Pritchard, 1976 “motivation has to do with a set of independent and dependent variable relationships that explains the direction, amplitude and persistence of an individual’s behaviour, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment”.

Perhaps we can distinguish common factors to all these definitions, namely: - What energizes human behaviour; what directs or channels such behaviour; and how such behaviour is maintained or sustained. And it is also possible perhaps to say that these are the three components of motivation and each would appear a very essential part or factor in understanding human behaviour at work. From these three components we can characterize motivation as:

1. An energizing force within an individual that ‘drives’ him to behave in some ways, and environment forces that often triggers these drives;

2. Goal oriented on the part of he individual- behaviour is directed toward something (and)

3. Systems oriented – a process of feedback from the environment to the individual, which either reinforces the intensity of their drive and the direction of the energy or dissuades them from their course of action and redirects their efforts.
2.4 Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories attempt to identify the relationships among the dynamic variables, which make up motivation. They provide a further contribution to our understanding of the complex nature of work motivation. Many of the process theories cannot be linked to a single writer, but major approaches and leading writers under this heading include: Expectancy-based model – Vroom, and Porter and Lawler, Equity theory – Adams, Goal theory – Locke, Attribution theory – Heider, and Kelley.

Motivational processes from the above views, assume that there are four basic building blocks in the motivational process namely: -

Needs or expectation; behaviour; goals; and feedback. Table 2.4A is a representation of these blocks and their relationships.

Table 2.4A Motivational Process
Table 2.4B generalized model of basic motivation process (After Dunnette & Kirchner, Dunnette, M. D. and Kirchner, W. K. *Psychology Applied to Industry*, New York: Appleton Century Crofts 1962)

Table 2.4B Generalized model of basic motivation process.

The main assumptions of the model shown in Table 2.4B is that individuals possess in varying strengths a multitude of needs, desires and expectations, which are characterized by two phenomena.

First, is that the emergence of such a need, desire or expectation generally creates a state of dis-equilibrium within the individuals which they will try to reduce; hence, the energetic component of the earlier definition.

Second, is that the presence of such needs, desire, or expectations is generally associated with an anticipation or belief that certain actions will lead to the reduction of this dis-equilibrium; hence the goal orientation component of the definition.
The model also presumes in theory the following chain of events: - based on some combinations of this desire to reduce the internal state of dis-equilibrium and the anticipation or belief that certain actions should serve this purpose, individuals act or behave in a certain manner that they believe will lead to the desired goal.

The initiation of this action then sets up a series of cues, either within the individuals or from their external environment, which feeds information, back to the individuals concerning the impact of their behaviour. Such cues may lead them to modify or cease their present behaviour or they may reassure them that their present course of action is correct.

An example may clarify this process. Individuals who have a strong desire to be with others (that is, have a high “need for affiliation”) may attempt to increase their interactions with those around them (behaviour) in the hope of gaining their friendship and support (goal). Based on these interactions, they may eventually reach a point where they feel they have enough friends and may then direct their energies toward other goals.

Or, conversely, they may receive consistent negative feedback that informs them that their behaviour is not successful for goal attainment and they may then decide to modify such behaviour. In either case, we can see the important moderating functions of feedback on subsequent behaviour and goals.
The general model of the motivational process appears fairly simple and straightforward but as Steers and Porter point out, such is not the case, several complexities exist which tend to complicate the theoretical simplicity. Dunnette and Kirchner (1965) and others have identified four such complications.

First, motives can really only be inferred; they cannot be seen. Thus, when we observe individuals putting in a great deal of overtime, we really do not know whether they are doing it because of extra income they receive or simply because they enjoy their work. In fact, at least five reasons have been identified for why it is difficult to infer motives from observed behaviour. They are:

1. Any single act may express several motives;
2. Motives may appear in disguised forms;
3. Several motives may be expressed through similar or identical acts;
4. Similar motives may be expressed in different behaviour; and
5. Cultural and personal variations may significantly moderate the modes of expression of certain motives (Hilgard & Atkinson, 1967).

A second complication of the model centres on the dynamic nature of motives. Any individual at any one time usually has a host of needs, desire, and expectations. Not only do these motives change but they may also be in conflict with each other. A desire to put in extra hours at the office to “get ahead” may be in direct conflict with a desire to spend more time with one’s family. Thus, given their often-conflicting nature, it becomes exceedingly difficult to observe or measure them with much certainty.

A third complication is the fact that considerable differences can exist among individuals concerning the manner in which they select certain motives over others and
the intensity with which they pursue such motives. A sales person who has strong need for achievement may in large measure satisfy this need by one big sale and then turn his or her attention to other needs or desires.

A second salesperson, however, may be spurred on by such a sale to increase his or her achievement motive and to try for an even bigger sale in the near future. Or, as found by Atkinson and Reitman (1956), a high need for achievement may be related to performance only when certain other needs (such as needs for affiliation) were not aroused. In other words, it is important to realize that individual differences exist among employees that can significantly affect what they desire and how they pursue such desires.

A final complication of the model, is the impact of goal attainment on subsequent motive and behaviour. The intensity of certain motives (such as hunger, thirst, sex) is generally considerably reduced upon gratification. When this happens, other motives come to the forefront as primary motivating factors. However, the attainment of certain other goals may lead to an increase in the intensity of some motive. For example, as Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) and others have argued, giving a person a pay rise does not long ‘satisfy’ the desire.

Similarly, promoting an employee to a new and more challenging job may intensify the drive to work harder in anticipation of the next promotion. Thus while the gratification of certain needs, desires, and expectations may at times lead individuals to shift their focus of attention toward different motives, at other times such gratification can serve to increase the strength of the motive.
It must however be remembered that the above description of motivational processes represents a very general model of human behaviour. As will be seen in the succeeding sections, considerable research has been done in an attempt to more rigorously define the nature of the relationships between the major variables in this process, particularly as they relate to behaviour in the work situation.

2.5 Need Theories

Several need theories are identifiable in the literature of motivation and most of the later theories of motivation deal essentially on human needs or are need based. Need theorists while differing in some respects, argue that human needs represent the primary driving force behind employee behaviour in organization settings.

2.5.1 Abraham Maslow theory

Abraham Maslow (1954) attempted to synthesize a large body of research related to human motivation, prior to maslow, researchers generally focused separately on such factors as biology, achievement, or power to explain what energizes, directs, and sustains human behavior.

Maslow posited a hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before moving to the next higher level. Once each of these needs has been satisfied, if at some future time a deficiency is detected, the individual will act to remove the deficiency.
Maslow’s needs hierarchy theory is one of the most popular theories of work motivation in our time but it was not always so. Though the theories were introduced in the mid 1940s and until 1950s, it remained primarily in the realm of clinical psychology where Maslow did most of his development work.

However, as more attention began to be focused on the role of motivation at work, Maslow’s need matching theory emerged in the early 1960s as an appealing model of human behaviour in organizations. And as a result of its popularization by Douglas McGregor (1960, 1967), the model became widely discussed and used not only by organizational psychologists but also by managers.

As early as 1954, Maslow had discussed two additional needs in his work, namely, cognitive and aesthetic. Cognitive needs are the needs to know and understand and these examples include the need to satisfy one’s curiosity, and the desire to learn. Aesthetic needs include the desire to move toward beauty and away from ugliness.

These two needs were not however included in Maslow’s hierarchical arrangement and have therefore been generally omitted from discussions of his concepts as they relate to organization settings. Maslow developed the theory that human beings are motivated, i.e., stirred to action by their needs. He contrasted 2 broad categories of human motives – ‘growth motives’ and ‘deprivation motives’.
The first kind is characterized by a push toward actualisations of inherent potentialities, while the other is oriented only toward the maintenance of life, not its enhancement.

Deprivation motives he says are arranged in a developmental hierarchy. They are five in number and structured as in Table 2.5.1 explanation as follows:

(i) **Physiological needs.** These include homeostasis (the body’s automatic efforts to retain normal functioning) such as satisfaction of hunger and thirst, the need for oxygen and to maintain temperature regulation. Also sleep, sensory pleasures, activity, maternal behavior, and arguably sexual desire.

(ii) **Safety needs.** These include safety and security, freedom from pain or threat of physical attack, protection from danger or deprivation, the need for predictability and orderliness.

(iii) **Love needs** (often referred to as social). These include affection, sense of belonging, social activities, friendships, and both the giving and receiving of love.

(iv) **Esteem needs** (sometimes referred to as ego needs). These include both self-respect and the esteem of others. Self-respect involves the desire for confidence, strength, independence and freedom, and
achievement. Esteem of others involves reputation or prestige, status, recognition, attention and appreciation.

(v) **Self-actualization needs.** This is the development and realization of one’s full potential. Maslow sees this as: ‘what humans can be, they must be’, or ‘becoming everything that one is capable of becoming. Self-actualisation needs are not necessarily a creative urge, and may take many forms, which vary, widely from one individual to another.

![Maslow's hierarchy of needs model](image-url)

**Table 2.5.1** Maslow’s hierarchy of needs model
The normal person is characterized by spontaneity, creativeness and appreciation of others. People who fail to achieve self-actualisation, he says, tend to be hostile and disastrous. Maslow conceived a human being developing the five groups of needs, in sequence, from one to five.

The survival needs are present at birth. During childhood, one becomes aware of each of the higher groups of needs. A man takes all five needs to work. The manager who wishes to motivate his management subordinates is faced with the fact that his subordinates are attempting to satisfy all five levels of needs.

If a man experiences nagging insecurity, because redundancies are being anticipated or because He feels there is an absence of order and equity in the organization (which would be caused by an irrational wage or salary structure), he will not be interested in the organization’s policies and plans designed to assist him in fulfilling higher needs.

If he cannot see an easy, straightforward way to satisfy these needs, he is liable to behave irrationally, obstructing or sabotaging the work of the firm or organization, breaking work agreements and going on strike.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is widely accepted as a convenient simple analysis of human motivation and which can assist us, therefore, to understand why men behave the way they do in given situation and to anticipate how they will behave in future situations.

My Evaluation of Maslow’s theory
Based on Maslow’s theory, once lower level needs have been satisfied (say at
the physiological and safety levels) giving more of the same does not provide
motivation. Individuals advance up the hierarchy as each lower-level need
becomes satisfied. Therefore, to provide motivation for a change in behaviour,
the manager must direct attention to the next higher level of needs (in this case,
love or special needs) that seek satisfaction.

However, there are a number of problems in relating Maslow’s theory to the
work situation. These include the following:

People do not necessarily satisfy their needs, especially higher-level needs, just
through the work situation. They satisfy them through other areas of their life as
well. Therefore the manager would need to have a complete understanding of
people’s private and social life, not just their behaviour at work.

There is doubt about the time, which elapses between the satisfaction of a
lower-level need and the emergence of higher-level needs. Individual
differences mean that people place different values on the same need. For
example, some people prefer what they might see as the comparative safety of
working in a bureaucratic organization to a more highly paid and higher status
position, but with less job security, in a different organization.

Some rewards or outcomes at work satisfy more than one need. Higher salary
or promotion, for example, can be applied to all levels of the hierarchy.
Even for people within the same level of the hierarchy, the motivating factors will not be the same. There are many different ways in which people may seek satisfaction of, for example, their esteem needs.

Maslow viewed satisfaction as the main motivational outcome of behaviour. But job satisfaction does not necessarily lead to improved work performance. Hall and Nougaim undertook an examination of Maslow's need hierarch theory in an organizational setting. This was a longitudinal study, over a five-year period, of 49 young managers in the American Telephone and Telegraph Company.

The top four levels of Maslow's hierarchy were used, with physiological needs excluded. An attempt was made to test the developmental change aspect of Maslow's theory. Researchers conducted lengthy interviews, each year, with the managers. Part of the study involved an analysis, for each, of a comparison between the satisfaction score for one need with the strength score of the next higher level need. Independent coders undertook the comparison.

Although a positive relationship was found between need strength and need satisfaction, there was only a low statistical significance. Hall and Nougham suggest the results indicate needs changed more because of developing career concern than the strength of need satisfaction. This study appears to provide only very limited support for the developmental theory of Maslow.
Lawler and Suttle undertook a somewhat similar study on 187 managers in two organizations. They used different samples and somewhat different methods of analysis from Hall and Nougham. But, again, although some positive relationship of Maslow’s theory was found, there were few findings of statistical significance.

Maslow’s theory is difficult to test empirically and has been subject to various interpretations by different writers. Reviews of the need hierarchy model suggest little clear or consistent support for the theory and raise doubts about the validity of the classification of basic human needs.

However, it is important to stress that Maslow himself recognizes the limitations of his theory and did not imply that it should command widespread, empirical support. He suggested only that the theory should be considered as a framework for future research and points out: ‘it is easier to perceive and to criticize the aspects in motivation theory than to remedy them.’

Although Maslow did not originally intend that the need hierarchy should necessarily be applied to the work situation, it still remains popular as a theory of motivation at work. Despite criticisms and doubts about its limitations, the theory has had a significant impact on management approaches to motivation and the design of organizations to meet individual needs.
It is a convenient framework for viewing the different needs and expectations that people have, where they are in the hierarchy, and the different motivators that might be applied to people at different levels.

The work of Maslow has drawn attention to a number of different motivators and stimulated study and research. The need hierarchy model provides a useful base for the evaluation of motivation at work.

2.5.2 Alderfer’s Modified Need Hierarchy Theory

Clay Alderfer produced a modified need hierarchy theory that converts Maslow’s five levels of needs into three levels. This model became known as the ERG theory (or Existence – Relatedness – Growth Theory). Alderfer (1969) suggests.

1. Existence Needs – are concerned with sustaining human existence and survival, and cover physiological and safety needs of a material nature.

2. Relatedness Needs – This class concerns how people relate to their surrounding social environment and includes Maslow’s need for meaningful social and interpersonal relationships

3. Growth Needs – This group are thought to be the highest need category and includes Maslow’s needs for self-esteem and self-actualization.

Like Maslow, Alderfer suggests that individual’s progress through the hierarchy from existence needs, to relatedness needs, to growth needs, as the lower-level needs become satisfied. However, Alderfer suggests these needs are more a continuum than hierarchical levels. More than one need may be activated at the
same time. Individuals may also progress down the hierarchy. There is a frustration-regression process.

For example, if an individual is continually frustrated in attempting to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs may reassume most importance. The lower-level needs become the main focus of the individual’s efforts.

Alderfer proposed a number of basic propositions relating to the three need relationships. Some of these propositions followed Maslow’s theory, some were the reverse of the theory. A number of studies were undertaken to test these propositions across different samples of people in different types of organizations.

Results from the studies were mixed. For example, the proposition that the less existence needs are satisfied the more they will be desired received constant support from all six samples. However, the proposition that satisfaction of existence needs activate desire for relatedness needs was not supported in any of the six samples.

Unlike Maslow’s theory, the results of Alderfer’s work suggest that lower-level needs do not have to be satisfied before a higher-level need emerges as a motivating influence. The results, however, do support the idea that lower-level needs decrease in strength as they become satisfied.
ERG theory states that an individual is motivated to satisfy one or more basic sets of needs. Therefore if a person’s needs at a particular level are blocked then attention should be focused on the satisfaction of needs at the other levels. For example, if a subordinate’s growth needs are blocked because the job does not allow sufficient opportunity for personal development, then the manager should attempt to provide greater opportunities for the subordinate to satisfy existence and relatedness needs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maslow Hierarchy of needs</th>
<th>Alderfer ERG theory</th>
<th>Herzberg’s two factor theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physiological</td>
<td>Existence</td>
<td>Hygiene Factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Motivators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Actualisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.5.2**
Relationship among Maslow, Alderfer and Herzberg theories of Motivation

Alderfer also suggest unlike Maslow that more than one need may be operative, or activated, at the same point, in time. In this respect Alderfer’s model is a
less rigid model of the motivation process and therefore bears a resemblance to Murray manifest needs model.

### 2.5.3 Murray’s Manifest Needs Theory

Murray’s model of motivation is known as the manifest need theory, and the model has its origin in the early work of Henry A. Murray and his Associates at Harvard Psychological Clinic during the 1930s.

Murray was concerned directly with the description and measurement of motivation as a basis for understanding human behaviour. “A need”, he says “is a predisposition to behave in a certain way under certain condition”. A need is identified with end or goal. His concept of need according to Murray was essential to understanding human behaviour. He distinguished between two types of needs namely:

1. Viscorogenic Needs: Which are concerned with physical conditions of the body, e. g., food; and

2. Psychogenis or secondary Needs: According to him, the Psychogenic or Secondary Needs are about 27 and can be divided into 5 major classes, namely: Ambition, Defence of Status, Response to Human Power, Affection and Exchange of Information.

Based on several years of clinical observations, Murray (1938) wrote his classic ‘Explorations in Personality’ in which he argued that individuals could be classified according to the strengths of various personalities need variables.
These needs were believed to represent a central motivating force both in terms of the intensity and the direction of goal-directed behaviour.

Murray defined a need as “a construction, which stands for a force in the brain region, a force which organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation” (1938, p. 123).

Murray stated that the analysis of such needs was “a hypothetical process, the occurrence of which is imagined in order to account for certain objective and subjective facts” (1938, p. 54).

Murray here implies that one could only infer needs from observed behaviour. According to Murray, needs are viewed as largely learned behaviour rather than innate tendencies, which were activated by cues from the external environment.

Each need according to him was composed of two factors:

1. A qualitative or directional component which represents the object toward which the motive is directed; and

2. A quantitative or energetic component, which represents the strengths or intensity of the motive toward the object.

He felt that in order to understand a person’s need, it was essential to take account of previous experiences and behaviour, that the history of a person is necessary for understanding his needs.
The needs for aggression may lead to fighting. Needs could be expressed in overt behaviour or in imaginable forms. According to him, there were six functions of personality, namely:

1. Tension reduction – needs produce tension which lead to tension reduction similar to Freud’s view;
2. Generation of tension – pleasure derives from tension reduction;
3. Self expression allows personal expression of Feelings
4. Decision making;
5. Adjusting levels of aspirations;
6. Ensuring that individual conforms within society – accommodating personality within society.

2.5.4 Herzberg, and his Two-Factory Theory

Closely related to the needs theory is the Two-factor (motivation – hygiene) theory by Fredrick Herzberg. Maslow’s analysis was concerned with the motivation of man from birth, at work and at leisure, in the family, and in his many social groups.

Herzberg, however, has concentrated on studying how Maslow’s needs operate at work, in the employment situation. To Herzberg, there are two groups of needs. One group consists of company policy and administration, working condition, supervision, interpersonal relations, status, salary, job security and personal life.
According to Herzberg, all these factors must be present in any work situation because their absence reproduce’ dissatisfaction resulting in action that could be detrimental to the organization such as decreased productivity, laxity or even strikes.

Their presence however would yield productivity at the normal level but not necessarily above the normal or average. The implication is that their existence does not motivate in any special ways in a sense of yielding satisfaction. Herzberg referred to this group as “dissatisfiers”

The second group of needs he termed ‘satisfiers’ and they include achievement, advancement, recognition, a challenging job and growth in the job. All these relate to job content. Their existence will yield satisfaction.

To Herzberg the only way to motivate an employee is through ‘job enrichment’. Herzberg and his research colleague’s had put questions to managers at all level and to non-management personnel in many companies and in many industries. The answers given by these different groups were very consistent.

They had asked each man to identify a number of his ‘satisfying experiences’ each experience was referred to as an ‘event’. They asked the man to identify the cause or causes of satisfaction in each satisfying event. They thus established findings on: What satisfied men at work, that is what seems to leave them satisfied or what seems to give rise to satisfying experiences.
Much more what dissatisfied men at work, that is, what seems to leave them dissatisfied or what seems to give rise to dissatisfying experiences? From the result obtained, Herzberg concluded that the following six factors are distinguished as satisfiers because their positive influence is far more than frequently an element in satisfaction than is their negative effect an element in dissatisfaction. They are therefore essentially or mainly ‘Satisfiers’. They are show in table 2.6.4:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Satisfied %</th>
<th>Dissatisfied %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Achievement</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Recognition</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The work itself</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Responsibility</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Advancement</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Growth</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.6.4 a Herzberg Satisfier needs

According also to Herzberg, the negative influence of the following factors is far more frequently an element in dissatisfaction than their positive influence an element in satisfaction. They are therefore essentially or mainly ‘Dissatisfies’. They are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Satisfied %</th>
<th>Dissatisfied %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Company policy and administration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Supervision</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Relation with superior</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Work conditions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Salary</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Relations with peers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Personal factors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Relations with subordinates</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Status</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Security</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.6.4 b Herzberg dissatisfies needs
Categorising the factors as either satisfiers or dissatisfies must be treated with caution. It will be noted that the three main satisfiers are also important dissatisfies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Satisfied %</th>
<th>Dissatisfied %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work itself</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.6.4 c Comparison of Herzberg satisfier and dissatisfiers.

Only two of ten dissatisfies company policy and administration and supervision are more significant than above three, as dissatisfies. Herzberg called attention to the special characters of the satisfier. The six satisfiers are all factors inherent in the work being done.

That is they are all ‘job content’ factors. Experience, which gives a man ‘satisfaction’, must be satisfying his need. Since men are motivated by their needs, Herzberg decided that he would name his six ‘satisfiers’ the ‘motivators’. Herzberg also called attention to the special character of the dissatisfiers. The ten dissatisfiers are all ‘job context’ or ‘job environment’ factors. They are all concerned with the environment in which the job is done, not with the job itself. Herzberg decided to term his 10 dissatisfiers ‘hygiene factors’, using the medical association’s version of the term to highlight that these factors are both environmental and preventative.

They are as started above, concerned with the job environment. Their negative influence on motivation must be prevented to allow the motivators to have effect. Herzberg’s work has however not gone unchallenged, and the most typical is the feeling
that the two-factor theory is an over-simplification of the real situation. It is alleged that the questionnaires used in the studies prejudiced the answers and results attained.

**My EVALUATION OF HERZBERG’S WORK**

The motivation hygiene theory has extended Maslow’s hierarchy of need theory and is more directly applicable to the work situation. Herzberg’s theory suggests that if management is to provide positive motivation then attention must be given not only to hygiene factors, but also to the motivating factors.

The work of Herzberg indicates that it is more likely good performance leads to job satisfaction rather than the reverse.

Since the original study the theory had been replicated many times with different types of workers, including scientists, engineers, technicians, professional workers, nurses, food handlers, assemblers, and maintenance staff. The samples have covered a number of different nationalities. Results of these studies have been largely consistent with the original findings.

Herzberg’s theory is, however, a source of frequent debate. There have been many other studies to test the theory. The conclusions have been mixed. Some studies provide support for the theory. However, it has also been attacked by a number of writers. For example, Vroom claims that the two-factor theory was only one of many conclusions that could be drawn from the research.
From a review of the research House and Wigdor draw attention to the influence of individual differences. A given factor may be the cause of job satisfaction for one person but not job dissatisfaction for another person, or vice versa. Within the sample of people, a given factor can be the source of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. House and Wigdor conclude that the two-factor theory is an over-simplification of the sources of satisfaction and job satisfaction.

Kings suggest that there is at least five different theoretical interpretations of Herzberg’s model that have been tested in different studies. Each interpretation places a different slant on the model. This suggests doubts about the clarity of statement of the theory.

(i) Do all motivators combined contribute more to satisfaction than to dissatisfaction, and all hygiene factors combined contribute more to dissatisfaction than to satisfaction?

(ii) Do all motivators combined contribute more to satisfaction than do all the hygiene factors combined, and all the hygiene factors combined contribute more to dissatisfaction than all motivators combined?

(iii) Does each motivator contribute more to satisfaction than to dissatisfaction, and each hygiene factor contribute more to dissatisfaction than to satisfaction?

(iv) Does each principal motivator contribute more to satisfaction than does any hygiene factor, and does each principal hygiene factor contribute more to dissatisfaction than does any motivator?
(v) Is it only motivators, which determine satisfaction, and only hygiene factors, which determine dissatisfaction?

King concludes that theories (i) and (ii) are subject to defensive bias of the respondents, and have not been tested adequately. Theories (iii), (iv) and (v) appear to be supported by other studies but are invalid because they reflect bias in the research.

There are two common general criticisms of Herzberg’s theory. One criticism is that the theory has only limited application to manual, workers. The other criticism is that the theory is methodologically bound.

It is often claimed that the theory applies least to people with largely unskilled jobs or whose work is uninteresting, repetitive and monotonous, and limited in scope. Yet these are the people who often present management with the biggest problem of motivation. Some workers do not seem greatly interested in the job content of their work, or with the motivators or growth factors. For example, in Goldthorpe’s study of manual workers on assembly line and other factory work, he found a group of workers who adopted an instrumental orientation to their job. The workers’ primary concern was with economic interests – pay and security – rather than with the nature of the work or the satisfaction of social needs. Their earnings were well in excess of the average manual wage at the time, that is, they were ‘affluent’ workers. Work was seen as a means to an end, a means of earning money through which to satisfy outside demands and interests.
As another example, Weaver contends that such theories of motivation have little meaning for hourly workers in the hotel and restaurant industry. The work of, for example, cooks; dishwashers, waiting or housekeeping staff does not change much among different companies so such staff feel little attachment to a particular company.

Where there is little pleasure in the work itself or the job offers little opportunity for career advancement, personal challenge or growth, people are working for their pay cheque and are best motivated by direct cash rewards for above-average productivity.

However, work by Blackburn and Mann suggests that not all manual workers share an instrumental orientation to work. From a sample of 100 workers in relatively low-skilled jobs, they found a variety of work orientations. These included primary concerns for outdoor work or indoor work, autonomy, intrinsic aspects, worthwhile-ness of the job, work colleagues, working condition, hours of work, and promotion, as well as economic rewards.

A second general criticism concerns methodology. It is claimed that the critical incident method, and the description of events giving rise to good or bad feelings, influences the results. People are more likely to attribute satisfying incidents at work, that is the motivators, as a favourable reflection on their own performance.
The dissatisfying incident, that is the hygiene factors, are more likely to be attributed to external influences, and the efforts of other people. Descriptions from the respondents had to be interpreted by the interviewers. This gives rise to the difficulty of distinguishing clearly between the different dimensions, and to the risk of possible interviewers bias. When studies have been conducted without the use of the critical incident method, results generally are different from those predicted by the two-factor theory.

Whatever the validity of the two-factor theory much of the criticism is with the value of hindsight, and Herzberg did at least attempt an empirical approach to the study of motivation at work. Also, his work has drawn attention to the importance of job design in order to bring about job enrichment. Herzberg has emphasized the importance of the ‘equality of work life’. He advocates the restructuring of jobs to give greater emphasis to the motivating factors at work, to make jobs more interesting and to satisfy higher level needs.

2.5.5 Early criticism of Needs Theories

In the 1970s Mahmood A. Wahba and Lawrence G. Bredwell (1973, P. 514-520 of Proceeding of the Thirty-third Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management) have studied and reviewed Maslow’s theory and while pointing to problems of validity for the needs classification have called attention to the necessity for the theory to be subjected to many more tests.
The studies by Lawler and Suttle (A causal correlation test of the need hierarchy concept in Organization behaviour and Human Performance, 1972, 165-67) and Hall and Nougaim (‘An Examination of Maslow’s needs hierarchy in an organization setting’ in Organization Behaviour and Human Performance 1963, p3, 12-35) found little evidence to support the claim that human needs conform to a hierarchy.

Lawler and Suttle discovered that at the higher level of management, the strength of needs varied with individuals. While the need for self-actualisation was predominant in some, the others were more interested in social needs. Hall and Nougaim had concluded that upward movement of need prominence resulted from upward career changes and not from the satisfaction of ‘lower-order’ needs.

Porter in agreeing to this had discovered that managers at all levels had similar security and social needs, and the three higher needs on the hierarchy varied significantly with managerial ranks. Also, G. R. Salancik and Jeffrey Pfeffer (Administrative Science Quarterly, 1977 p22, 427-465) have examined the need – satisfaction models of job attitudes and have concluded that need – satisfaction mode have survived, more because of their aesthetics than because of their scientific utility.

However, Alderfer in his critique of their examination (Administrative Science Quarterly, 1977 p22, 658-669) has pointed to the problems that led to their conclusion such as their failure to distinguish adequately between expectancy theories and need theory.

2.6 Equity Theory of Motivation
One of the major variables of satisfaction in the Porter and Lawler expectancy model is perceived equitable rewards. This leads to consideration of another theory of motivation – equity theory. Applied to the work situation, equity theory is usually associated with the work of Adams. And group among the process theories.

In the 1960s many related theories of motivation emerged that deal with social comparison processes. Such theories generally assume that an Individual’s motivation is largely influenced by how the individual feels he/she is being treated compared to others around him/her. And these theories have been referred to by various names such as ‘equity theory’ (Adams, 1963, 1965, Weick, 1964) and ‘distributive justice’ or exchange theory’ (Homans, 1961, Jaques, 1961, Patchen, 1961).

The general thrust of all such theories is similar and is based on an argument that a major determinant of job effort performance, and satisfaction is the degree of equity or inequity that an individual perceives in the work situation. The degree of equity is explained in terms or a ratio of an individuals input (such as his pay) as compared with a similar ratio for a colleague or relevant ‘other’.

Each of these models, however, differs in some respects from the other, but Adams (1963) formulation of the theory is about the most highly developed and heavily researched model of the social comparison of equity theory.
One major distinction between the equity theory and need theory is that whereas need theory is individual based, equity theory, places much emphasis on group influences and individual’s perceptions of others. Another distinguished factor is the fact that whereas need theories focus on the identification of specific factors in the individual which determine behaviour, equity theory just as valency/expectancy theory focuses on an understanding of the processes by which behaviour is energized and sustained.

Students of motivation see the equity theory as a more dynamic approach to the study of motivationally relevant variables in a work situation. This is why Campbell et al (1970) refer to equity theory as a “process” theory while the more static need theories of Maslow, Murray and Alderfer have been called ‘content theories’. One other major distinction between Equity Theory and Need theory is the fact that Equity Theory suggest that motivated behaviour depends largely on the ‘perceived’ situation and not necessarily on the actual sets of circumstances whereas Maslow and Murray saw behaviour and satisfaction.

The implication of this model in management is that the manager must always ensure not only that he is fair or equities. This calls for a more dynamic approach to problem of employee motivation in an organization. The notice of equity is the major force.

When there is an unequal comparison of ratios the person experiences a sense of inequity. The feeling of inequity might arise when an individual’s ratio of outcomes to inputs is either less than, or greater than, that of other people. For
example, Adams suggests that workers prefer equitable pay to overpayment. Workers on piece-rate incentive payment scheme who feel they are overpaid will reduce their level of productivity in order to restore equity.

A feeling of inequity causes tension, which is an unpleasant experience. The presence of inequity therefore motivates the person to remove or to reduce the level of tension and the perceived inequity.

The magnitude of perceived inequity determines the level of tension. The level of tension created determines the strength of motivation. Adams identifies six broad types of possible behaviour as consequences of inequity.

1. **Changes to input** - a person may increase or decrease the level of his or her inputs, for example through the amount of quality of work, absenteeism, or working additional hours without pay.

2. **Changes to outcomes** – a person may attempt to change outcomes such as pay, working conditions, status and recognition, without changes to inputs.

3. **Cognitive distortion of inputs and outcomes** – in contrast to actual changes, people may distort, cognitively, their inputs or outcomes to achieve the same results. Adams suggests that although it is difficult for people to distort facts about themselves, it is possible, within limits, to distort the utility of those facts: for example, the belief about how hard they are really working, the relevance of a particular qualification, or what they can or cannot obtain with a given level of pay.
4. **Leaving the field** – a person may try to find a new situation with a more favourable balance, for example, by absenteeism, request for a transfer, resigning from a job or from the organization altogether.

5. **Acting on others** – a person may attempt to bring about changes in others, for example is lower their inputs or accept greater outcomes. Or the person may cognitively distort the inputs and outcomes of others. Alternatively, a person may try to force others to leave the field.

6. **Changing the object of comparison** – this involves changing the reference group with whom comparison is made. For example, where another person with a previous similar outcome – input ratio receives greater outcomes without any apparent increase in contribution, that other person may be perceived as now belonging to a different level in the organization structure. The comparison need not necessarily be made with people who have the same inputs and outcomes. The important thing is a similar ratio of outcomes to inputs.

The manager may seek to remove or reduce tension and perceived inequity among staff by influencing these types of behaviour, for example by attempting to change a person’s inputs or encouraging a different object of comparison.

However, there are likely to be only two courses of action under the direct control of the manager. Outcomes can be changed by for example increased pay, additional perks or improved working conditions; or by instigating a person leaving the field through transfer, resignation or, as an extreme measure, dismissal.
2.7 Expectancy/Valance Theory

2.7.1 Vroom’s Expectancy Theory

Vroom was the first person to propose an expectancy theory aimed specifically at work motivation. His model is based on three key variables: valence, instrumentality and expectancy (VIE theory or expectancy/valence theory). The theory is founded on the idea that people prefer certain outcomes from their behaviour to others. They anticipate feelings of satisfaction should the perceived outcome be achieved.

The feeling about specific outcomes is termed valence. This is the attractiveness of, or preference for, a particular outcome to the individual. Vroom distinguishes valence from value. A person may desire an object but then gain little satisfaction from obtaining it. Alternatively, a person may strive to avoid an object but finds, subsequently, that it provides satisfaction. Valence is the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome. This may differ substantially from value, which is the actual satisfaction provided by an outcome.

The valence of certain outcomes may be derived in their own right, but more usually, they are derived from the other outcomes to which they are expected to lead. An obvious example is money. Some people may see money as having an intrinsic worth and derive satisfaction from the actual accumulation of wealth. Most people however see money in terms of the many satisfying outcomes to which it can lead.
The valence of outcome derives, therefore, from their instrumentality. This leads to a distinction between first-level outcomes and second-level outcomes.

The **first-level** outcomes are performance-related. They prefer to the quantity of output or to the comparative level of performance. Some people may seek to perform well for self-sake and without thought to expected consequences of their actions. Usually, however, performance outcomes acquire valence because of the expectation that they will lead to other outcomes as an anticipated source of satisfaction – second level outcomes.

The **second-level** outcomes are need-related. They are derived through achievement of first-level outcomes that is through achieving high performance. Many need-related outcomes are dependent upon actual performance rather than effort expended. People generally receive rewards for what they have achieved, rather than for effort alone or through trying hard. On the basis of Vroom’s expectancy theory it is possible to depict a general model of behaviour. See Fig 2.7.1

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**Diagram:**

- **Expectancy** - perceived probability that effort will lead to first level outcome
- **Effort expended (Motivational)**
- **First level outcomes**
  - Performance related e.g.
    - High productivity
  - Level of performance
- **Instrumentality** – extent to which first level outcomes lead to second level outcomes
- **Second level outcomes**
  - Praise from superior
  - High wages
  - Promotion
The strength of the valence of an outcome is dependent upon the extent to which the outcome serves as a means to other outcomes. An outcome with a high valence is likely to be one that is perceived to be instrumental in leading to the achievement of a larger number of need-related outcomes. Instrumentality is the association between first-level outcomes and second-level outcomes, measured on a range between +1.0 – 1.0.

For example, if it is believed that good work performance (a first-level outcome) always results in a pay increase (a second-level outcome) instrumentality will be constant at +1.0. If the person believes a pay increase is certain to be obtained without good performance, or impossible even with it, instrumentality will be –1.0.

When a person chooses between alternative behaviours, which have an uncertain outcome, the choice is affected not only by the preference for a particular outcome, but also by the probability that such an outcome will be achieved. People develop a perception of the degree of probability that the choice of a particular action will actually lead to the desired outcome.
This is expectancy. It is the relationship between a chosen course of action and its predicted outcome. Expectancy relates effort expended to the achievement of first-level outcomes. Its value ranges between 0, indicating zero probability that an action will be followed by the outcome 1, and indicating certainty that an action will result in the outcome.

The combination of valence and expectancy determines the person’s motivation for a given form of behaviour. This is the motivational force. The force of an action is unaffected by outcomes, which have no valence, or by outcomes that are regarded as unlikely to result from a course of action.

Expressed as an equation, motivation (M) is the sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes (IV); times the strength of expectancies that action will result in achieving these outcomes (E). Therefore, if either, or both, valence or expectancy is zero, and then motivation is zero. The highest attractiveness score indicates the choice between alternative behaviours.

\[ M = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_i \times V_i \]

There are likely to be a number of different outcomes expected for a given action. Therefore, the measurement of \( E \times V \) is summed across the total number of possible outcomes to arrive at a single figure indicating the attractiveness for the contemplated choice of behaviour.
Among the studies to test Vroom’s model was an investigation undertaken by Galbraith and Cummings. They studied 32 workers in a firm manufacturing heavy equipment. Productivity figures were compared with measures of job-related (second-level) outcomes such as pay, fringe benefits, promotion, style of supervision, and popularity with co-workers. The overall results suggested little significant support for the model as a whole.

They did, however, indicate a marked interaction between valence and instrumentality in the case of support and consideration from supervisors, and high performance. Where workers wanted support from their supervisors, and believed this would be achieved by good performance, the workers had a high level of productivity.

2.7.2 Porter and Lawler Expectancy Model

Porter and Lawler have developed vroom’s expectancy/valence theory. Their model goes beyond motivational force and considers performance as a whole. They point out that effort expended (motivational force) does not lead directly to performance. It is mediated by individual abilities and traits, and by the person’s role perceptions.

They also introduce rewards as an intervening variable. Porter and Lawler see motivation, satisfaction and performance as separate variables, and attempt to explain the complex relationships among them.
These relationships are expressed diagrammatically (Fig. 2.7.2) rather than mathematically. In contrast to the human relations approach, which tended to assume that job satisfaction leads to improved performance, Porter and Lawler suggest that satisfaction is an effect rather than a cause of performance. It is performance that leads to job satisfaction.

Value of reward (Box 1) is similar to valence in Vroom's model. People desire various outcomes (rewards), which they hope to achieve from work.

![Porter and Lawler Expectancy Model](image)

**Fig. 2.7.2 Porter and Lawler Expectancy Model**

Perceived effort-reward probability (Box 2) is similar to expectancy. It refers to a person's expectation that certain outcomes (rewards) are dependent upon a given amount of effort.
Effort (Box 3) is how hard the person tries, the amount of energy a person exerts on a given activity. It does not relate to how successful a person is in carrying out an activity. The amount of energy exerted is dependent upon the interaction of the input variables of value of reward, and perception of the effort-reward relationship.

Abilities and traits (Box 4): Porter and Lawler suggest that effort does not lead directly to performance, but is influenced by individual characteristics. Factors such as intelligence, skills, knowledge, training and personality affect the ability to perform a given activity.

Role perceptions (Box 5) refer to the way in which individuals view their work and the role they should adopt. This influences the type of effort exerted. Role perceptions will influence the direction and level of action, which is believed to be necessary for effective performance.

Performance (Box 6) depends not only the amount of effort exerted but also on the intervening influences of the persons abilities and traits, and their role perception of what is required, then the exertion of a large amount of energy may still result in a low level of performance, or task accomplishment.

Rewards (Boxes 7A and 7B) are desirable outcomes. Intrinsic rewards derive from the individuals themselves and include a sense of achievement, a feeling of responsibility and recognition (for example Herzberg’s motivators). Extrinsic rewards derive from the organization and the actions of others, and include
salary, working conditions and supervision (for example Herzberg’s hygiene factors).

The proportion of intrinsic and extrinsic reward will vary among individual and in different work situations, but there must be a minimum of both. Porter and Lawler see both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to be important and desirable outcomes. They suggest, however, that intrinsic rewards are more likely to produce job satisfaction related to performance than are extrinsic rewards.

Perceived equitable rewards (Box 8): this is the level of rewards people feel they should fairly receive for a given standard of performance. Most people have an implicit perception about the level of rewards they should receive commensurate with the requirements and demands of the job, and the contribution expected of them.

Satisfaction (Box 9): this is not the same as motivation. It is an attitude of an individual’s internal state. Both actual determine satisfaction rewards received, and perceived level of rewards from the organization or a given standard of performance. If perceived equitable rewards are greater than actual rewards received, the person experiences dissatisfaction. The experience of satisfaction derives from actual rewards, which meet or exceed the perceived equitable rewards.

The Porter and Lawler model recognizes that job satisfaction is more dependent upon performance than performance is upon job satisfaction.
Satisfaction only affects performance through a feedback loop to value of reward. When satisfaction follows receipt of a reward it tends to influence the value of the reward. Also to the extent that performance results in reward, this tends to increase the effort-reward relationship.

Originally, Porter and Lawler included rewards as a single variable. After empirical testing the model was redrawn to divide reward into two variables – intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards. The relationship between performance and intrinsic rewards is shown as a line. This is because the extent of the relationship depends upon the nature of the job. If the design of the job permits variety and challenge, so that people feel able to reward themselves for good performance, there is a direct relationship.

Where job design does not involve variety and challenge, there is no direct relationship between good performance and intrinsic reward. The line between performance and extrinsic rewards indicates that such rewards do not often provide a direct link to performance.

A second revision to the original mode involved drawing a link between performance and perceived equitable rewards. Self-rating of performance Links directly with the perceived equitable reward variable. Higher levels or self-rated performance are associated with higher levels of expected equitable rewards. The heavily arrowed line indicates a relationship from the self-rated part of performance to perceived equitable rewards.
Porter and Lawler conducted an investigation of their own. This study involved 563 questionnaires from managers in seven different industrial and government organizations. The main focus of the study was on pay as an outcome. The questionnaires obtained measures from the managers for a number of variables such as value or reward, effort-reward probability, role perceptions, perceived equitable rewards, and satisfaction.

Information on the managers' effort and performance was obtained from their superiors. The results indicated that where pay is concerned, value of reward and perceived effort-reward probability do combine to influence effort.

Those managers who believed pay to be closely related to performance outcome received a higher effort and performance rating from their superiors. Those managers who perceived little relationship between pay and performance had lower ratings for effort and performance. The study by Porter and Lawler also demonstrated the interaction of effort and role perceptions to produce a high level of performance. Their study suggested, also, that the relationship between performance and satisfaction with their pay held good only for those managers whose performance was related directly to their actual pay.

A study by Graen, into the factors contributing to job satisfaction and performance, provided results, which were generally supportive of expectancy theory. A total of 169 women were engaged in part-time, temporary clerical tasks in a simulated work organization. One group of workers received verbal recognition directly related to their prior performance. A second group received
a pay increase in the hope that they would do much better. The third group received no special treatment.

Questionnaires were used to obtain measures of the different variables of the theory, and details of job satisfaction and performance. In general, intrinsic rewards were found to contribute substantially more to job satisfaction and performance than did the extrinsic rewards.

### 2.7.3 Lawler’s Revised Expectancy Model

Following the original Porter and Lawler model, Lawler undertook further work. (See Fig. 2.7.3). He suggests that in deciding on the attractiveness of alternative behaviours, there are two types of expectancies to be considered: effort-performance expectancies ($E - P$); and performance-outcome expectancies ($P - O$).

The first expectancy ($E - P$) is the person’s perception of the probability that a given amount of effort will result in achieving an intended level of performance. It is measured on a scale between 0 and 1. The closer the perceived relationship between effort and performance, the higher the $E - P$ expectancy score.

The second expectancy ($P - O$) is the person’s perception of the probability that a given level of performance will actually lead to particular need-related outcomes. This is measured also on a scale between 0 and 1. The closer the
perceived relationship between performance and outcome, the higher the P – O expectancy score.

![Diagram of the Lawler Expectancy model]

**Fig. 2.7.3.** An Illustration of the Lawler Expectancy model

The multiplicative combination of the two types of expectancies, E – P and the sum of the products P – O, determines expectancy. The motivational force to perform (effort expended) is determined by multiplying E – P and P – O by the strength of outcome valence (V).

\[ E (\text{Effort}) = (E - P) \times \sum [(P - O) \times V] \]

The distinction between the two types of expectancies arises because they are determined by different conditions. E – P expectancy is determined in part by the person’s ability and self-confidence, past experience, and the difficulty of the task. P – O expectancy is determined by the attractiveness of the outcomes.
and the belief about who controls the outcomes, the person him/herself or other people.

**Expectancy theories Implications for Organisation**

There are a number of different versions of expectancy theory. The main elements tend to be very similar, however, and this suggests the development of a generally accepted approach. Numerous research studies aimed at testing expectancy models appear to suggest general support for the theory, but they also highlight difficulties with some of the concepts involved and with methodology.

Expectancy models are not always easy to understand, or to apply. There are many variables, which affect behaviour at work. A problem can arise in attempting to include a large number of variables or in identifying those variables, which are most appropriate in particular situations.

Expectancy theory does, however, draw attention to the complexities of work motivation. It provides further information in helping to explain the nature of behaviour and motivation in the work situation, and help to identify problems in performance.

Expectancy theory indicates that organisation should give attention a number of factors, including the following:
1. Using rewards appropriate in terms of individual performance. Outcomes with high valence should be used as an incentive for improved performance.

2. Attempting to establish clear relationships between effort-performance and rewards, as perceived by the individual.

3. Establishing clear procedures for the evaluation of individual levels of performance.

4. Paying attention to intervening variables such as abilities and traits, role perceptions, organizational procedures, and support facilities, which, although not necessarily direct motivational factors, may still affect performance.

5. Minimizing undesirable outcomes, which may be perceived to result from a high level of performance, such as industrial accidents or sanctions from co-workers; or to result despite a high level of performance, such as short-time working or layoffs.

Porter and Lawler emphasise that the expectancy theory model applies only to behaviours, which are under the voluntary control of the individual. The two general types of choices over which individuals have voluntary control of work performance in organizations are:

(i) The amount of effort and energy expended; and

(ii) The manner in which they go about performing their work.

Porter and Lawler also emphasise that the expectancy model is just a model. People rarely actually sit down and list their expected outcomes for a contemplated behaviour. Estimate expectancies are valences, multiply, and add
up the total unless, of course, they are asked to do so by a researcher. Yet people do consider the likely outcomes of their actions, do weigh and evaluate the attractiveness of various alternatives, and do use these estimates in coming to a decision about what they will do.

The expectancy model provides an analysis tool for mirroring that process and for predicting its outcome, but it does not purport to reflect the actual decision-making steps taken by an individual.

Recent advantages in telecommunications and in scientific and technological knowledge have led to greater emphasis on the knowledge and expertise of staff. Tampoe suggests that at the core of the new industrial trend are the knowledge-workers – those employees who apply their theoretical and practical understanding of a specific area of knowledge to produce outcomes of a commercial, social or personal value.

The performance of knowledge workers should be judged on both the cleverness of ideas and the utility and commercial value of their applied knowledge. Creativity is necessary and needs to be encouraged but should be bounded by commercial realism. This presents management with a new challenge of how to motivate the knowledge workers.

Tampoe suggests that the personal motivation of knowledge workers is based on the value they place on the rewards they expect to earn at work. In addition
to the individual’s own motivation, the performance of knowledge workers is
dependent upon four key characteristics:

1. Task competence;
2. Peer and management support;
3. Task and role clarity; and

The challenge to management is to ensure the effectiveness of the four key
variables and to recognize the need for staff to supervise and manage
themselves and the wider rewards expected by knowledge workers.

2.8 The Path-Goal Approach

Georgopoulos, Mahoney and Jones (1957) put forward a hypothesis on the relationship
between effort and reward, which seemed to gain wide acceptance. According to the
hypothesis. “If a worker sees high productivity as a path leading to the attainment of
one or more of his personal goals He will tend to be a higher producer.

Conversely, if he sees low productivity as a path to the achievement of his goals, he will
tend to be a low producer”. The interesting thing about all the approaches to Motivation
discussed is that each standpoint has enough empirical evidence to support the
hypothesis advanced. Motivation then must be a very wide subject and must be of a
very complex nature to absorb all the various description and postulations irrespective
of the differences in the various standpoints. It may therefore be necessary to examine
the intrinsic and extrinsic nature of Motivation.

2.9 McClelland’s Achievement Motivation Theory
McClelland’s work originated from investigations into the relationship between hunger needs and the extent to which imagery of food dominated thought processes. From subsequent research McClelland identified four main arousal, bases and socially developed, motives:

1. The Achievement motive;
2. The Power motive;
3. The Affiliatives motive; and
4. The Avoidance motives.

The first three motives correspond, roughly, to Maslow’s self-actualisation, esteem and love needs. The relative intensity of the three motives varies between individuals. It also tends to vary between different occupations. Managers appear to be higher in achievement motivation than in affiliation motivation.

McClelland saw the achievement need (n-Ach) as the most critical for the country’s economic growth and success. The need to achieve is linked to entrepreneurial spirit and the development of natural resources.

Research studies by McClelland use a series of projective ‘tests’. For example, individuals are shown a number of pictures in which some activity is depicted. Respondents are asked to look briefly (10-15 seconds) at the pictures, and then to describe what they think is happening, what the people in the picture are thinking and what events have led to the situation depicted.
The descriptions are used as a basis for analysing the strength of the individual’s motives. Despite the apparent subjective nature of the judgments, McClelland has, over the years of empirical research, identified four characteristic of people with a strong achievement need (n-Ach): a preference for moderate task difficulty; personal responsibility for performance; the need for feedback and innovativeness.

1. They prefer **moderate task difficulty** and goals as an achievement incentive. This provides the best opportunity of providing they can do better. If the task were too difficult or too risky, it would reduce the chances of success and of gaining need satisfaction. If the course of action is too easy or too safe, there is little challenge in accomplishing the task and little satisfaction from success.

2. They prefer **personal responsibility for performance**. They like to attain success through the focus of their own abilities and efforts rather than by teamwork or chance factors outside their control. Personal satisfaction is derived from the accomplishment of the task, and recognition need not come from other people.

3. They have the need for **clear and unambiguous feedback** on how well they are performing. Knowledge of results within a reasonable time is necessary for self-evaluation. Feedback enables them to determine success or failure in the accomplishment of their goals, and to derive satisfaction from their activities.

4. They are **more innovative**. As they always seek moderately challenging tasks they tend always to be moving on to something a little more challenging. In seeking short cuts they are more likely to cheat. There is
a constant search for restless and avoid routine, and also tend to travel more.

The extent of achievement motivation varies between individuals. Some people think about achievement a lot more than others. Some people rate very highly in achievement motivation. They are challenged by opportunities and work hard to achieve a goal. Other people rate very low in achievement motivation. They do not care much and have little urge to achieve.

For people with a high achievement motivation, money is not an incentive but may serve as a means of giving feedback on performance. High achievers seem unlikely to remain long with an organization that does not pay them well for good performance. Money may seem to be important to high achievers, but they value it more as symbolising successful task performance and goal achievement.

For people with low achievement motivation, money may serve more as a direct incentive for performance.

McClelland’s research has attempted to understand the characteristics of high achievers. He suggests that n-Ach is not hereditary but results from environmental influences, and he has investigated the possibility of training people to develop a greater motivation to achieve. McClelland suggests four steps in attempting to develop achievement drive:
1. Striving to attain feedback on performance. Reinforcement of success serves to strengthen the desire to attain higher performance.

2. Developing models of achievement by seeking to emulate people who have performed well.

3. Attempting to modify their self-image and to see themselves as needing challenges and success

4. Controlling daydreaming and thinking about themselves in more positive terms.

McClelland was concerned with economic growth in underdeveloped countries like Nigeria. He designed training programmes intended to increase the achievement motivation and entrepreneurial activity of managers.

McClelland has also suggested that the effective manager should possess a high need for power. However, the effective manager also scores high on inhibition. Power is directed more towards the organization and concern for group goals, and is exercised on behalf of other people. This is ‘socialised’ power. It is distinguished from ‘personalised’ power, which is characterized by satisfaction from exercising dominance over other people, and personal aggrandizement.

2.10 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

In seeking to understand the motivational processes, it is perhaps necessary to distinguish two types of motivation namely: the intrinsic and the extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation results from an individual’s need to be competent and self-determining (Deci. 1975, Kruglanski, Alon and Lewis (1972) point out that intrinsically motivating
task are those that are interesting and enjoyable to perform – irrespective of possible external rewards.

And as Steers and Porters say, the clearest example of intrinsic motivation can be seen in job enrichment efforts, where it is felt that more challenging tasks will increase one’s intrinsic desire to perform. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation deals with behaviours that are motivated be factors external to the individual.

Some examples of extrinsic motivators are pay, leadership style and group solidarity, to name a few. Deci’s work (1975 (axb) incorporates much of current conceptual work on intrinsic motivation. His much talked about cognitive evaluating theory argues that an individual’s level of effort on a task is largely determined by the nature of the rewards available for task accomplishment.

Deci identifies two processes by which rewards influence intrinsic motivation. First, he talks of the notion of “Locus of Causality”. He argues that when behaviour is intrinsically motivated as Deci, E. L. ‘Notes on the Theory and Metatheory of Intrinsic Motivation’. Organizational behaviour and Human Performances, 1975, 151 130-145.

Individual’s perceived locus of causality is internal. That is an individual feels that task accomplishment is under his own control. Under such circumstances, he or she will engage in activities for intrinsic rewards. When, on the other hand, an individual receives extrinsic reward for task behaviour, he or she will perceive his locus of causality to be external and will engage in those activities only when he or she believes that extrinsic rewards will be forthcoming.
Deci’s contention is that providing extrinsic rewards on an intrinsically satisfying task leads to a shift from internal to external locus of causality. The interpretation of these findings in relation to theories of work motivation shows that the effects of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are not addictive, to use Deci’s word. While extrinsic rewards such as money can certainly motivate behaviour, they appear to be doing so at the expense of intrinsic motivation and as a result, contingent pay systems do not appear to be compatible with participative management systems.

Secondly, Deci say rewards can also influence intrinsic motivation through changes in feelings of competence and self-determination. Rewards or outcomes that reassures people they are not competent or self-determining tend to decrease intrinsic motivation. Barry M. Staw examined the evidence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and concluded that the administration of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards can have important effects on a person’s task attitudes and behaviour.

The joint effect of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards may be quite complex, for not only may intrinsic and extrinsic factors not be addictive in their overall effect on motivation and satisfaction, but the interaction of intrinsic and extrinsic factors may under some conditions be positive and under other conditions negative. In practice, however, extrinsic rewards are relied upon heavily to induce desired behaviour and most users of rewards will positively affect an individual’s interest in a task.

2.11 Workers Morale, Attitude and Job Satisfaction in relation to Motivation
What do we mean by workers morale? Among other things, morale is the amount of confidence, enthusiasm, and determination etc a person or group have at a particular time. Oxford Advance learners Dictionary. (Special price edition, 1998, p.755).

While, motivation has be described as the direction and persistence of action. It is concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems.

The relationship between the workers morale, attitude and motivation is governed by what motivates individual to work and the fulfillments they derive from it which in effect lead to high productivity. The organization should re-double her efforts to provide an enabling environment for the workers to improve their productivity.

Clearly, Nigeria is still living in pre-computer age. Now virtually everything is networked in most countries. With this, organizational activities are more visible, constantly processing and giving out needed information. A system where the organization is invisible and unapproachable is no longer acceptable. For this, organization should stroll out of their offices often, communicate with and gather information from their subordinates, and solve problems as they arise. In other words, they should crawl out of their cocoon, stop playing gods, and become more sensitive to the needs of their subordinates. This can boost the workers morale, attitude to work, motivation and productivity.
Furthermore ‘morale’ is not found frequently in literature but the term is a widely applied concept. More often what is found in the literature is a description of the state of attitudes rather than the word. The term has however been used in different ways in various studies. In some cases it has been used to mean employee’s attitude toward the organization as a whole and in others it is use to simply refer to an individual feeling in the organization.

Its general use implies satisfaction. I wish to define morale as an affective feeling state which people experience in the course of their work and by morale I will mean satisfaction. Such feeling as happiness, self-elation, commitment and contentment or self-fulfilment would all add to the broad definition of adequate motivation or morale. Morale then is an attitude.

An attitude, is defined by Steers and Porter (1970s) as “a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable at to persons or objects in one’s environment”. To say we ‘like’ or ‘dislike’ something for example is to express our attitude towards the person or object. Thus, when we examine the specific attitude of adequate motivation on the other hand job satisfaction. The consequences of attitude can be observed in terms of behaviour but the attitude itself cannot be deserved.

Attitudes are therefore inferred from behaviours and statements. Attitudes range from one extreme to the other that is from very positive to very negative, and as such can be measured along a continuum. Attitudes are also related to subsequent behaviour that is attitudes are predictive of behaviours.
Thus like motivation it may be difficult to observe satisfaction or morale, rather it may be inferred from behaviours. The problem of how we can infer or adequately motivate is a bit controversial. According to Fishbein (1967). Attitude can best be conceptualised if it is subdivided into three related parts, namely:

1. Beliefs about the job;
2. The attitude itself; and
3. The behavioural intentions that result from the attitude.

It is very easy to see how beliefs about one’s work (e.g. the work is risky, uninteresting, dirty, etc) can lead to a negative attitude e.g., job dissatisfaction which in turn can lead to the behavioural intentions to leave or to reduce effort, productivity on the job.

Such behavioural intentions are then translated into actual behaviour, assuming the individual is able to carry out his or her intentions. Steers and Porters (1979) have given a very explanatory diagram of the process as shown in Table 2.11. While some researchers have tied satisfaction with productivity, some believe they are not correlated or at least there is no causal relationship between the two.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Belief about Job</th>
<th>Job attitude</th>
<th>Behavioural intentions</th>
<th>Actual Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job is dull</td>
<td>Job dissatisfaction</td>
<td>Intention to leave</td>
<td>Absenteeism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job is dirty</td>
<td>Low job involvements</td>
<td>Intention to reduce effort</td>
<td>Low turn over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job provides little autonomy responsibility etc.</td>
<td>Poor performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.11 A Conceptual model of job attitudes by Steers & Porter
It has been argued that there is little evidence to show that high morale leads to high productivity. Morale for example may be low in a concentration camp, yet production may be very high, similarly, workers may well be satisfied to goof off in a department where the work pace is extremely slow.

The question of the relationship between productivity and adequate motivation is one that will continue to generate more investigations. There have been many studies dealing with the determinants of intrinsic satisfaction and findings from many of these studies show that the more varied, complex and challenging tasks are higher in worker gratification than the less skilled casual workers.

Comparisons of occupational groups shows that the more skilled the profession the more its members enjoy their work. Adequate motivation tended to increase with work-related level, with the greatest satisfaction achieved among professional groups. In most of these studies, adequate motivation is used loosely to cover overall liking for the employment situation as well as intrinsic work satisfaction deriving from the content of work process.

Hence the greater gratification of the higher occupational levels can be due to the higher pay, the greater prestige of the calling, the hours of work or working conditions and the like. For this reason, it is important to hold constant factors other than the nature of the work in comparing the satisfaction derived from employment varying in level of skill and complexity.
Katz and Kahn. Report, the bulk of the research on satisfaction with employment demonstration that the more varied complex and challenging tasks are higher in worker gratification than less skilled, routine jobs.

Hoppock (1935) reported that more than 90% of a group of 500 teachers liked their work, whereas Bell (1937) found that 98% of young people working in canning factories and textiles mills hated their jobs.

Adequate motivation increased with occupational level with the greatest fulfilment among professional groups. Studies by Hull and Kolstand (1942), Thorndike (1935) Super (1939) and Unrbrock (1984) have confirmed the relationship between employment happiness and occupational status. The survey by the group at the University of Michigan on employee morale in the company measured intrinsic employment satisfaction by an index that summarized the answers to four questions.

How well do you like the work you are doing? Do you get any feeling of accomplishment from the work? Does your work or job give you a chance to do the things you feel you do best? How do you feel about your work; does it rate as an important job with you? The employee were grouped into 4 classes on the basis of job level; high – level technical, semi supervisory,

In the high-level technical group only seven percent of their members fell into the category of low intrinsic work satisfaction compared with 41 percent of the group doing repetitive clerical work. Also the relationship was not reduced when length of service and salary was held constant. These findings strongly suggest that the greater
gratification found among high-level occupational groups are not wholly a function of wages and conditions of work.

It suggests that people derive high satisfaction in the expression of their skills, in interesting and challenging work, and in the sense of accomplishment from successful performance of such tasks. A finding of the study also was that employees who were higher on intrinsic employment satisfaction tended to describe their job as having variety and as giving them some chance to make decision.

The Human relations movement of the 1930s introduced the idea that a happy worker is a productive one. Since then, organizational researchers and managers alike have continued to show interest in the relationship between job attitudes and job behaviour. The humanist saw an underlying relationship between the two as job satisfaction they assumed ‘caused’ improved workers productivity.

The notion provided a simple and easy implication for management namely - “keep your workers or employees satisfied” at least this would ensure maximum productivity. With time, however, research findings called to question the truthfulness of the Humanist’s assumption. For example, Brayfield and Crockett (1955) after an extensive review of work in this area concluded that little evidence existed of any simple or even appreciated relation between job satisfaction and resulting performance.

About a decade later, Vroom (1964) analysed the results of twenty studies which measured both satisfaction and performance and found that the two variables had a median correlation of 14 and correlation co-efficient ranged from + 86 to - 31 across
these studies. These revelations if we call them so, triggered off a considerable controversy concerning the causal relationship, if any, between these variables. Does job satisfaction necessarily lead to improved job performance or could the reverse be true? Were there perhaps other important intervening variables, which moderate the relationship?

Greene studied the evidence concerning the role of rewards in determining performance and job satisfaction, and Lawler focused on the concept of job satisfaction and reviews major influences on satisfaction as well as major outcomes. Greene’s study identifies three basic propositions namely:

1. Satisfaction – causes – performance
2. Performance – causes – satisfaction; and
3. Both satisfaction and Performance are caused by an additional variable(s), primarily, rewards.

But empirical support is more promising for the third that satisfaction and performance are co-variants of a third (or more) variable(s). The relationship is thus: -

1. Reward constitute a more direct cause of satisfaction than does performance; and

The implications of Lawler’s study is that organizations can influence employees' motivational levels and since it is possible to know how employee will react to different outcome levels, organizations can allocate outcomes in ways that will cause either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.
I agree with both students and believe that their findings can be applied to the organisational setting under research for better results on productivity.

2.12 KURT LEWIN’S FIELD THEORY

Kurt Lewin’s field assume that motivation depends on organizational climate and as much, must be looked at as element in a large system. This theory is illustrated using human behaviour formula.

\[ B = (P, E) \]

This formula when translated, means that human behaviour B. is a function of a person (P) and his environment (E) in other word, to understand a person’s behaviour at a given point of time, some knowledge of the person’s being and his environment is important. In terms of motivation, this means that people have differing motivations at various times. Furthermore, the power with which something motivates an individual could be to a large extent depending on the climate in which the person is operating.

By way of concluding this portion of the review it would be pertinent to consider the vies of Wilkinson et al statement, that while the midpoint on the Theory X – Theory Y spectrum is shifting to the right the dotted line between scheme is moving upward. In view of this, the following is concluded:

1. Herzberg’s dissatisfaction is similar to Maslow first two levels of need plus some small increment in each of the top three needs in his hierarchy.
2. This dissatisfaction tends to be related to the autocratic structured management style of Taylor or McGregor’s Theory X.
3. Morse and Lorsch have identified this autocratic style as being for routine tasks.
4. Herzberg’s satisfiers are similar to Maslow’s top three levels of needs.

5. McClelland’s achievement, power and affiliation needs are a different mix of Maslow’s top three levels of need.

6. These satisfiers are related to the participative management style described by McGregor as theory Y.

7. This style, according to Morse and Lorsch, appears more effective for tasks with high levels of complexity.

8. The nature of the people and of the tasks being performed causes higher and higher levels of dependency, diversity, uncertainty, complexity, education and professionalism. Therefore, the greater the observed differences between reactive and proactive behaviour, and the greater the applicability of multiple influences.

As a result of modifying these motivational concepts in order to tie them together in an integrated model, the manager in a formal organization is able to see relationship among them. This integrated model thus provides an analytical framework for any manager, which in this case includes heads of organisation, who is trying to improve performance of individuals, groups or the entire organization.

### 2.13 Motivation and Money

Money in the form of pay or some other sort of remuneration is the most obvious extrinsic reward. Money provides the carrot that most people want. Doubts have been cast by Herzberg et al (1957) on the effectiveness of money because they claimed, while the lack of it can cause dissatisfaction, its provision does not result in lasting satisfaction.
Money may in itself have no intrinsic meaning, but it acquires significant motivating power because it comes to symbolize so many intangible goals. It acts as a symbol in different ways for different people, and for the same persons at different times. As noted by Goldthorpe et al (1968) from their research into the affluent worker, pay is the dominant factor in the choice of the employer and consideration of pay seem most powerful in building people to their present job.

Money can therefore provide positive motivation in the right circumstance, not only because people need and want money but also because it serves as a highly tangible means of recognition. But badly designed and managed pay systems can de-motivate. Another researcher in this area was Jaques (1961), who emphasized the need for such systems to be perceived as being fair and equitable. In other words, the reward should be clearly related to effort or level of responsibility and people should not receive less money than they deserve compared with their fellow workers. Jaques called this the ‘Felt-Fair’ principle.

Although this study focuses on implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity in an organisational factor other than money, it is necessary perhaps to review the concept of money as a motivator. This may in effect help in bringing out the issue in focus in this study.

I think it is necessary to examine the motivational power of money in order to be able to assess the value and importance of other motivators. Money is the means by which employees are directly rewarded for their contributions towards the achievements of
organizational goals. I believe however that the extent to which money can act, as a motivator will depend upon the individuals, the types of job they are engaged in and the culture.

According to Chester Barnard, money is the weakest motivator an organization could offer its members. Herzberg as earlier discussed, totally rejects money as a motivator. Money however can be measured while other motivators cannot. Opsah and Dunnettee (1966) list five theories of explanations of the role of money in employee motivation and performance.

First, it is generally believed that money acts a generalized conditioned reinforcer since it is repeatedly paired with primary reinforces.

Secondly, some suggest that money is conditioned incentive, that is, the repeated pairing of money with primary incentives helps to establish a new learned drive for money.

Thirdly, it is suggested that people learn to become anxious in the presence of a variety of cues that signify an absence of money. Such cues include being told, “That costs too much money” or “We can’t afford that” Such cues lead to feeling of anxiety (and perhaps feeling of insecurity) which money can satisfy.

Fourthly, money is seen as “hygiene” factor as in Herzberg’s two-factor theory. In this model, it is suggested that the absence of money causes dissatisfaction, although the
presence of money does not satisfy. It merely eliminates the source of dissatisfaction and brings someone to a neutral state of satisfaction.

Finally, money can serve, as an instrument for gaining other desired outcomes such as for example, building or buying a new house, a car or even vacation. This accords with the expectancy/valence theory. Here money acquires value for an individual to the extent that it can help to fulfil these other desires and needs.

Money, for example, could therefore be an instrumental reward for someone wanting a new car but may not be either an instrumental reward or a motivator for someone seeking escape from the pressures of a routine, dead-end job. For such a person only a job enrichment can motivate. I accept that money could be a motivating factor or instrument of motivation but within some limited context. However,

I contend that workers take money for granted as a reward for their labour and it is not seen as a motivator as such. Granted that its absence breed’s discontent, its presence however does not add to performance over and above the normal. I contend that many factors other than money make the worker tick.

A Nigeria researcher, Ubeku’s (1975) discussion of wages/salaries as one of the basic needs of the organisational or Nigerian worker seems to have succeeded in putting a vivid picture of the organisational work situation and the process of motivating the individual worker. As he puts it, the immediate problem confronting the Nigeria graduate is how he will be able to get a job so that he can earn some money. And this feeling is especially so in cases where the graduate had gone through his career by

The immediate and main need is to get a job and earn the money back to pay off. Also Nigerian families place a lot of responsibilities on their wage-earning members. Thus Ubeku feels and perhaps rightly that the findings of studies carried out in Europe and America which tend to pay down the importance of wages and salaries as a motivating factor may not very aptly in the Nigerian context, because wages and salaries in Nigeria are a large motivating factor.

Ubeku agrees that there is never going to be a time that the size of the pay packet alone will determine the level of the individual worker’s satisfaction or form of motivator but argues that the payment of goods wages and salaries is fundamental to the productivity efforts of the individual worker. His argument in this direction may even earn more support in the present day Nigeria with over 500,000 unemployed.

Yet it may be necessary to distinguish between the school leaver seeking employment and the worker who has already been employed and who knows that as of right he is entitled to his pay at the end of the month for the job he has done.

It is one thing to accept anything when in search of the job, but once employed, a worker knows his rights and seeks to use them, even through the labour union if he finds it necessary. I believe that under ‘normal’ conditions workers take the payment of their wages and salaries for granted since to them it is a right and therefore depend on
factors other than just the mere payment of salaries for their satisfaction in the work or office environment.

I have used the word ‘normal’ because it would appear that for the past few years in Nigeria the work atmosphere has not been too ‘normal’ and this is why we have such situations as workers not being paid salaries in many months specially in the government circle, or even retrenchment of workers due to redundancies or inability of the organisation to meet the salary bills.

I expect that this ‘abnormal’ situation, which it is claimed as been brought about by the global economic problem, may likely affect the results of the present study and this will be discussed in due course. It may however be necessary therefore to assume that the Nigerian worker under ‘normal’ conditions may conform to the motivation expectations of many of the studies already discussed carried out in Europe and America.

A support for this view may be got from the work of Tunde Oloko who seems to have done some extensive research in the area of implication of worker satisfaction in Nigeria. Findings from his study of the ‘Muddy Water’ subjects revealed that the workers rated the following reward items as most important in a declining order:

1. Opportunity in the Company for Advancement
2. Job Security
3. Salary or wages
4. Medical and Health facilities
5. Working on the Job you prefer
6. Pension Scheme
7. Credit for the Job you do
8. Good People to work with
9. Supervisor’s Temperament and Attitude
10. Vacation and Holiday Practices
11. Housing
12. Company’s Attitude to Ward Employees
13. Incentive Schemes
14. Physical working Conditions

Such a finding would appear not too different or far from the research findings of Herzberg et al. It was necessary to go into many details in reviewing the origin, background, nature and development of the concept motivation for research earlier stated that is to paint a very clear and vivid picture of motivation and its effect on human behaviour in order to fully appreciate its application in this study.

Central to this study however is one Herzberg's work in applying Maslow’s 'needs' to work situation. As stated in the introductory chapter, research studies have advanced on Herzberg’s position and while there are questions as to the position or order of these satisfiers, since all the studies have been carried out in the developed highly industrialized societies, it is not certain whether the findings can be applied to the organisation in Nigerian situation with particular reference to the ABB.
It is therefore the aim of this study to replicate, conform of modify the application of such modern research findings as the case of Herzberg et al to the Nigerian situation. In doing so, it draws from research findings by Oloko whose study of workers at the ‘Muddy Waters’ has provided a salient framework for Nigerian researcher on motivation.

2.14 Role Modelling as a Motivational Model.

Generally people or workers can be motivated by modelling their behaviour on a role model that is, someone whose approach to work and ability to get things done produces a measure of inspiration and a desire to follow the example provided by the model who could be a leader or colleague.

Role modelling can take place when inspirational leadership is provided and it is also one of the forces that can operate within groups. There is of course negative side to role modelling. The behaviour of a manager or fellow worker can produce de-motivation.

2.15 Behavioural Theory

Behavioural psychologist such as skinner (1974) emphasize that behaviour is learnt from experience. They pay down even dismiss, the significance of internal psychological factors and instinct and are only interested in the external factors that directly influence behaviour. They believe that learning takes place mainly through the process of reinforcement.
2.16 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory as developed by Bandural. (1977) combines, aspects of both behavioural and expectancy theory. It recognizes the significance of the basic behavioural concept of reinforcement as a determinant of future behaviour but also emphasised the importance of internal psychological factors, especially expectancies about the value of goals and the individual ability to reach them.

The term ‘reciprocal determinant’ is used to denote the concept that while the situation will affect individual behaviour, individual will simultaneously influence the situation.

Robertson and Cooper (1983) have pointed out that ‘there are many similarities between social learning theory and expectancy theory in their joint emphasis on expectancies individual goes and values and the influence on both person and situation factors.

2.17 Instrumentality Theory

Instrumentality is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another. In its crudest form, instrumentality theory states that people only work for money. The theory emerge in the second half of nineteenth century with emphasis on the need to rationalize work and on economic outcomes. It assumes that a person will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tie directly to his or her performance, thus the awards are contingent upon effective performance.
Instrumentality theory has its roots in the scientific management methods of Taylor (1911), who wrote: It is impossible through any long period of time, to get worker men to work much harder than the average men around them unless they are assured a large and permanent increase in their pay.

This theory is based on the principle of reinforcement and the so-called law of effect as described other theory under review. Motivation using this approached has been, and still, widely adopted and can be successful in some circumstances. But it is based exclusively on a system of external controls and fails to recognize a number of other human needs. It also fails to appreciate the fact the formal control system can be seriously affected by the informal relationship existing between workers.

### 2.18 Motivational Patterns In Personnel Administration

Although much has been said about the subject implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity, I will be looking at the subject in relation to administrative process. Motivation is concerned, basically, with why people behave in a certain way. In general terms, motivation can be described as the direction and persistence of action. It is concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems.

Because motivation is a subject many researcher have dangle into no doubt more definitions would crop up in the near future. Mitchell identifies four common characteristics, which underlie the definition of motivation.
1. Motivation is typified as an individual phenomenon. Every person is unique and all the major theories of motivation allow for this uniqueness to be demonstrated in one way or another.

2. Motivation is described, usually as intentional. Motivation is assumed to be under the worker’s control, and behaviours that are influenced by motivation, such as effort expended, are seen as choices of action.

3. Motivation is multifaceted. The two factors of greatest importance are: (i) what gets people activated (arousal); and (ii) the force of an individual to engage in desired behaviour (direction or choice of behaviour).

4. The purpose of motivational theories is to predict behaviour. Motivation is not the behaviour itself, and it is not performance. Motivation concerns action, and internal and external forces, which influence a person’s choice of action.

On the basis of these characteristics, Mitchell defines motivation as ‘the degree to which an individual wants and chooses to engage in certain specified behaviours. Therefore the underlying concept of motivation is some driving force within individuals by which they attempt to achieve some goal in order to fulfil some need or expectation. People’s behaviour is determined by what motivates them. Their performance is a product of both ability level and motivation.

\[
\text{Performance} = \text{function (ability x motivation)}
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Consequently, if the manager is to improve the work of the organization, attention must be given to the level of motivation of its members. The manager must also encourage
staff to direct efforts (their driving force) towards the successful attainment of the goals and objectives of the organization.

Organization theories have not addressed themselves to the question of what is that workers are motivates towards. They have however assumed that if workers are motivated, in some general sense, then productivity also holds sway for workers in corporate organisation. A worker may be motivated toward a variety of goals.

The same level of drive arousal in one case may be expressed toward quality of performance hence productivity, in another toward criticism of the boss and in a third toward a good record in attendance. It is for this reason of variety of good among people in various departments that it has become necessary to review the various types of motivational patterns in managing people.

The first pattern deals with rule enforcement. Here, the pattern is concerned with the acceptance of role prescriptions and organizational directives because of their legitimacy. The group members include both management, senior; junior and contract staff obeys the rules because they stem from legitimate sources of authority and because they can be enforced by legal sanctions. There is evidence that clarity of rules, which could serve, as a motivator is a condition of some importance in holding people within any formal system.

Weitz, Youngberg and Macedonia found in their studies, that prior knowledge and understanding of role requirements were a significant factor in keeping
people both in the company. In these investigations, the experimental groups received information through booklets while the control groups did not. It was also discovered that in another study carried out by Lyons, it was reported that staff nurses who perceived their role demands as clear, were less likely to leave or think of leaving their jobs. This was because they were better motivated as regards working towards their expected role demands.

Emphasis on legal compliance can bring about acceptance levels of individual performance. This is particularly with an autocratic leadership in the organizations. The occasional policing of rules and regulations are characteristics of the legal motive in organizations. However, workers may be motivated to exceed the norm for various rewards but not for the satisfaction of properly meeting the rules.

The problem with leadership emphasizing legal compliance is that the minimally insisted standard, which would eventually become the maximum in practice, would find both over and under achievers problematic. However, punishing ineffective performance can improve efficiency and productivity. This comes about when the persuasion, censure, reprimands and warning methods are used. It is sated by Miller through that this is not as a result of any conclusive proof that motivation has taken place.

On the other hand, feedbacks of some sort are necessary so as to permit for the correction of errors. Feedbacks in themselves though do not provide the motivation to make such correction. The legal basis of influencing people is
notoriously deficient in affecting performance beyond the narrow role prescriptions for quantity and quality of work. This is in the sense that whatever is not covered by rules, is by definition not the responsibility of the organizational member. By implication, while clarity of role expectation can serve as a motivator, wrong use of legal compliance, could lead to a situation where working to the rules could became the traditional revenge of the legally constrained work force.

The second type of motivational pattern, deals with extrinsic rewards as the term relates to both the system and the individual worker within the system. According to Thompson, the first logical extension of the machine theory beyond rules and sanctions is the addition of rewards to motivate performance.

Trist et al who add that it is important to distinguish between rewards administered in relation to individual effort and performance and the system rewards that accrue to people by virtue of their membership in the system further express this view. In the former category are piece rate incentive, promotions for outstanding performance, or any special recognition bestowed in acknowledgement of differential contributions to organizational functioning.

The category of system rewards includes fringe benefits, recreational facilities, and cost of living raises, across the-board upgrading, job security and pleasant working conditions.
Individual rewards can be effective in motivating people to meet and exceed the quantitative and qualitative standards of role performance. This effectiveness is limited, however, when large numbers of people are performing identical tasks like a middle manager in ABB organisation. This comes about because superior individual performance threatens the rewards and security of the majority. In other words, differential individual rewards are difficult to apply effectively to groups of people doing the same work and are supposed to be sharing the same fate. Large organizations have moved in the direction of converting individual rewards into system rewards.

This is however impossible in some organisational system because every worker has a defined function to perform. The only exceptions are in cases where group tasks are assigned. Katz and Kahn, say that spectacular instances of innovations behaviour can be single out for recognition as a form of motivating people. They further state that everyday cooperative activities that keep an organization from falling apart are more difficult to recognize and reward. Creative suggestions for organizational improvement they contend should at times be encourage through financial rewards by way of motivation to the workers.

However, generally speaking, singling out of individuals for their extra contributions to the cause is not the most effective and reliable means of evoking high motivation for the accomplishment of organizational objectives. In addition to the problem of singling out of individuals for their contribution, it must
be stated that if rewards such as pay incentives are to work as they are intended, they must meet three primary conditions:

1. They must be clearly perceived as large enough in amount to justify the additional effort required to obtain them.
2. They must be perceived as directly related to the required performance and follow directly on its accomplishment.
3. The majority of systems members must perceive them as equitable. Many of them will not receive them.

These conditions do however suggest some of reasons why individual rewards can work well in situations and yet would be difficult to apply in other situations. In the case of ABB organisation, which is under focus, the management condition of annual increments and promotions at stipulated times, cannot be departed from. This is so because the organisation is a large-scale organization, which consists of many people who engage in similar and interdependent tasks.

In the organisation workers like those in the government institutions stayed back to receive rewards like pensions and gratuity, which were given on the basis of length of service contrariwise this is the reverse in ABB. However, ABB that have substantially better working conditions and fringe benefits than other organisation should be able to set higher levels of performance as a minimal requirement for its workers and still retain them particularly in these times of economic hardship.
Reward systems according to Katz and Kahn however do little to motivate performance of workers beyond the line of duty as has hitherto been explained. There are some exceptions however. This is because as people develop a liking for the attraction of an establishment, they may be more likely to engage in cooperative relations with their fellow workers towards organizational goals.

They may also be more likely to contribute to a favourable climate of opinion for the establishment in the external environment. This end, it may be easier for an establishment to recruit high calibre and good personnel when the employees have described it as a good place to work. This is with particular reference to leadership, motivation and the general working climate.

Airing his views on the issue of rewards as motivators, Scanlon says that rewards can be used as motivators. He however goes on to say that if they were to be so used, by the virtue of mere membership of the system then any allocation favouring some individuals over other would be seen to be suspect. In addition to this, Fox states that management is frequently surprised by resentment over differential system rewards when there has been no resentment of differential individual rewards.

In one study, a public utility inaugurated an attractive retirement system for its employees before such fringe benefits were common. By so doing, the employees were objectively much better off because of the new benefits. Yet,
the most hated feature of the whole company was the retirement system. The employee's complains centred on two basis issues.

The first was years of employment in the company before the employee was thirty years old, did not count towards retirement pensions. The second was that because the highly placed company officials earned higher salaries and correspondingly higher pensions, they could retire on liveable incomes. The employees felt intensely, that if they were being rewarded for service to the company then it was unfair to rule out years of service before thirty. In the same vein, the employees also felt that a lifetime of service to the company should enable them to retire on liveable income as it enabled company officials to do so.

The critical point of system rewards is that they have logic of their own. A logic of citizenship, rather than performance. This is because since they accrue to people by virtue of membership or length of service in an establishment, they will be perceived as inequitable if they are not uniformly administered. The perception of the organisational staff is that all members are equal in their access to organisational benefits. Along this line, it can be seen from studies that this viewpoint seems to be paramount on the minds of employees.

Porter and Steers found satisfaction with pay and promotions were correlated with turnover in the expected direction. Lawler and Hackman in their study were able to establish that rewards as motivating factor, also influences absenteeism. This was demonstrated in an experimental field study of part-time janitorial employees.
Furthermore, Scheinder and Olson provide evidence from a study of hospitals that indicate attitudes towards the importance of pay are related to performance, but only where good performance does actually lead to higher pay.

There is a controversy as to whether or not the model of perceived instrumentally and valence of outcomes as regards motivation should be multiplicative as proposed by Vroom. This is because this particular has not been firmly established. Vroom adapted the multiplicative model evolved by Atkinson to the work situation. Atkinson assumed that the strength of the motive multiplied by the value of the incentive and further multiplied by the expectancy or subjective probability of attaining the outcome would predict behaviour. Vroom uses a similar formula in multiplying three factors, which are the perceived instrumentally of an action for reaching a goal, the value of that goal outcome.

On the negative side Vroom’s adapted multiplicities model, spitzer found that multiplying importance by expectancy did not increase the prediction to performance. However, most studies do support the multiplicative hypothesis. For example, a study showed that workers rate the value of such rewards as pay, promotion and recognition and in addition, evaluate the importance of effective job performance for the attainment of these outcome. Galbraith and Cummings contained this in a study.

The research conducted by Galbraith and Cummings suggested that approval from one’s superior was like pay and extrinsic reward and as such must be tied to performance to be effective for increasing productivity. Chief executives can avoid inequity and make their approval part of the system reward by speaking words of
encouragement to every hard worker. They can in the alternative decide to single out some hard workers for special approval. In the former case, the leadership might merely contribute to the feeling that the establishment is a pleasant place to work in. In the latter case; the leadership might just succeed in strengthening the motivation of a few people and add to the resistance of the majority.

Kaye says that the actions of the leader in ministering to the dependency needs of followers may develop a satisfying international relationship, which would have a negative effect on organizational performance. This is because the dependent worker may gravitate to the superior who can give him some psychological assurance in coping with personal problems. The likely consequences of this, is that the support of the parental figure may no be given to the person who does the job well, but to the dependent person who needs it more.

In turn, the superior may derive gratification from playing this supportive role. When this happens, both individuals benefit from the relationship, but it may be so unrelated to the job to be done that it ends up affecting output.

Another form of extrinsic reward, deals with promotions and advancements. Promotions generally bring with them increased responsibility, greater task complexity and higher pay. They are compounded in their impact. They represent a fusion of the reward the establishment can offer, and the opportunity for advancement, which can be highly motivating. Promotions however have to be linked to performance in the eyes of members of the organisation if it is to have any motivating effect.
Georgopoulous, Mahoney and Jones found a significant relationship between productivity and the belief that poor performance would hurt a worker’s chance for promotion. This study was conducted using university lecturers and administrators. This seems to have some correlation with a study carried out by White where the issue addressed is that of whether management should promote from within or go out to fill vacancies at higher levels. According to White, the advantages of staying within the system are greater motivation and morale among members of an institution on the long run.

Other advantages include greater stability of direction and operation, greater familiarity with the candidates, lower cost than in the comprehensive outside search. Furthermore, the increase morale resulting from promotion from within is accentuated if the vacancy is at a high level in the institution because the promotion creates a string of vacancies down the line. This is what White refers to as chain of opportunity.

The advantages of recruiting from outside are the infusion of new ideas and practices, greater range of experience and ability among candidates, the breakdown of institutional discrimination against less privilege groups, and the possibility of less conflict, politics, rivalry and resentment among people on the inside.

These factors however take on different weightings for organisations confronting different situations. Stability may be more important for one organisation at a certain point in its history and new directions more important for another organisations. It is not always true that going outside opens up a wider range of capable candidates, and the intra-organizational variance. The merit of promoting from within as a means of
boosting morale and subsequent attitude to work depends on the quality of the organisation compared to its competitors.

The main dilemma in promoting from within is what criteria to employ for evaluating candidates. Performance on the job is the best indicator of future performance but if we look at past performance, we could be dealing with behaviour that may not be relevant for the new position. To this end, the effective lecturer may not make a good head of department in a private or corporate organisation.

The Peter Principle satirizes this point by asserting that people are promoted to their level of incompetence. Thus, incompetence is often encountered at high organization levels. This principle however overlooks two major facts. In the first place, far from rising to a position of incompetence, some people have their promotions unduly delayed or do not get promoted at all. In the second place, competence does tend to generalize, and most forms of ability show some degree of positive correlation.

Chief executives at times who are entrusted with the responsibility of making decisions about promotions can decide to get behind organisational policies as they affect equal opportunity either because they do not believe in it, because of pressure from third parties or because of their own prejudices. These are part of the findings by Quinn et al in a study they conducted with one hundred and thirty managers in large manufacturing plants.
Praise, recognition awards and titles are part of the series of motivational patterns used in personnel management to motivate staff and thus increase their productivity. It is common practice, particularly in western culture for individual to receive no monetary reinforcement of various sorts, ranging from praise, titles and honorific awards. However, the extent to which the effect of external rewards can be explained as operant conditioning remains an open question. Behavioural theory however would account for the arousal of ego motives through the principle of reinforcement. A number of studies have been carried out to confirm the efficacy of verbal reinforcement in modifying behaviour.

Verplanck demonstrated that merely agreeing with or rephrasing a person’s spoken statement will increase the frequency of expression of an opinion. He found this to be true whether the experiment was conducted in the school, home, hospital ward, a public longed or over the telephone. Endler in his own study, reinforced some subjects by indicating their own responses were correct when they agreed with a contrived group consensus and others when they disagreed. Reinforcement for agreeing produced more conformity than reinforcement for disagreeing and the extent of this effect was a function of the amount of reinforcement.

The experiments suggest that the reinforcement of operant responses is sufficient to produce the continuation of certain behaviour and the failure to reinforce can result in the dropping out of responses. That is to say that this leads to behaviour modification. If supervisors are to be programmed to emit sounds of approval when the worker makes the right move, it would then mean that a much higher ratio of supervisors to workers than is commonly found now would be required and this would mean very close
supervision. Research has amply demonstrated that workers perform better when not supervised closely.

Praise can be an effective moderator, if not as Skinnerian reinforcement on a programmed basis then as the elicitor of ego motives of self-esteem. Galbraith and Cummings have showed the part played by the subjective evaluation of the individual personality in reaction to rewards in their study. They found that the value of outcomes multiplied by perceived instrumentality of performance in attaining the reward predicted to productivity. This was especially true when the reward was consideration and support from the supervisor. Output was highest for those workers who valued the praise from their superior and who believed such recognition was contingent upon producing well.

Approval is also used to encourage ego motives in work situations. This practical recognition has run far ahead of scientific acceptance and analyses of the phenomenon of social approval. One reason for the lack of application of Skinnerian principles in establishments may be alternative use of appeals to the ego as developed in the human relations philosophy of Likert.

2.19 Labour Union and Workers Motivation

The role of corporate organisation business in Nigeria since independence has undergone a fundamental change, following the traditional colonial pattern of the labour union being the apex of the government of the worker in various organisations. One effect of this development is the acceleration of the process of Nigerianization of the service industries or organisation. With the
Nigerianization and the increase in the scope of the service industries or organisation.

The human problems in the organization have become compounded. Over the years, these organizations have suffered some reverses and the workers have consequently experienced a lot of changes under the different leadership, government and Labour union NLC.

The Nigeria Labour Congress [NLC] was formally constituted as the only national federation of trade unions in the country in 1978. Before then, four labour centres existed. These are Nigeria Trade Union Congress [NTUC], Labour Unity Front [LUF], United Labour Congress [ULC] and Nigeria Workers Council [NWC]. The emergence of the NLC ended decades of rivalry and rancour involving the four centres and unions affiliated to them. The unions, numbering over 1,000 were also restructured into 42 industrial unions.

The organization has had a chequered history, surviving two instances of dissolution of its national organs and consequent appointment of state administrators. The first was in 1988 under the military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida. Congress’ opposition to the anti-people Structural Adjustment Programme incensed the military administration to take over the Nigeria Labour Congress.

The second military intervention was in 1994 during the regime of General Sani Abacha, whose government also became fed up with the labour movement’s agitation for the restoration of democracy. Like the initial case, the
military government dissolved NLC’s National Executive Council and appointed a Sole Administrator.

The same treatment was meted to the two unions in the oil and gas industry National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers [NUPENG] and Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria [PENGASSAN]. However, the administrators apparently added a further brief they plundered the finances of Congress and the two unions.

The dissolution exemplified the travails of Congress, its leadership, affiliates and state councils, under military rule. Arbitration, prolonged and unlawful detention of Labour leaders, invasion and disruption of union meetings, seminars and other activities of Congress and its components by security forces and a vicious anti-Labour campaign by the state generally marked the period. The military also invoked its legislative prerogatives to unleash all manner of legislation to check the activities of unions. For instance, under General Abacha, a decree that banned a section of the movement from holding leadership position in Congress came into effect.

However, with the death of General Abacha, the unions reclaimed Congress, culminating in a National Delegates Conference held on January 29, 1999. At the conference, the current leadership was elected. It comprises Mr. Adams Oshiomhole as president.

On the contrary while under the tenure of labour union leader Adams Oshiomhole, it could be said for example, that the workers are wielding much power; and the services lost the security of tenure that over the years had
remained one of the hallmarks of the conditions of service for workers. This event it is argued greatly demoralized the staff in various organisations and has since left an element of fear about the security of workers while in service.

From this period onwards, an expression seems to have come to stay amongst private or public workers in this country. The expression is “there is no longer any moral, motivation in the service”. Whatever this phrase means, it carries a connotation of dissatisfaction and low productivity.

Morale in this phrase may stand for security, or more generally, adequate motivation, satisfaction. There have been salary reviews and increases, and the workers’ take home pay today is quite sizeable only in the oil industries though this has come to offset the effect of global inflation and rising cost of commodity, yet it does appear that the workers is not all that happy with things as they are as at today. On 8th of April 2004 there was a serious problems between Labour union and the workers over the issue of inadequate provision of basic amenities like safety shoe, uniform, proper annual appraiser etc.

2.20 Comparison of Public Service and Private Organisation
The public service is viewed the world over as the Government on the spot for most demands and needs of a society. It is characterized as non-profit making, service oriented, though irregular and perhaps unsatisfactory and slow. Etc. the civil service forms the major or focal point of the public service in any society, and the symbolization is stronger even with the Civil Service in terms of bureaucracy. Many schools of thought accuse the Civil Service of inertia. Yet it
is known that the Civil service is the main force of stability in times of crisis and a powerful force for growth and change in normal times in any country.

This section looks at comparisons of privately owned organisation and general global look at the nature, role and organization of the public service usually regarded as Civil Service in particular. And since the study is limited to ABB organisation I will compare civil service era popularly refers to as udoji commission. Which are an offshoot of the Nigeria and the problem of motivation, morale, performance and the implication on workers productivity.

The Udoji Commission 1972 – 74.
This fact remains that any discussion on the major development in the Nigeria public Service will be incomplete without a special mention of the Udoji commission and its work. This is because the report of the commission seems to have ‘revolutionaries’ a lot of things in the civil service, some to the advantage of the service and others perhaps not in the interest of the service. The Commission was set up in September 1972 to examine the organization, structure and management of the Public Services. It was also to Investigate and evaluate the methods of recruitment and conditions of employment and the staff development programmes of the Public Services.

This was a major departure from earlier Commissions, which examined primarily salaries and wages in the Service. The report came out very critically against many practices and operations of the Public Service and recommended some new operative systems and practice to the Service. This included such
concepts as management by objectives, Programme and performance in the Public Service. The report also introduced, the unified grading structure for all posts in the Civil Service, and this was meant to provide equal opportunity for every officer to advance to the highest post in the Civil Service irrespective of his or her discipline, with hope that eventually the workers moral, motivation will lead to higher productivity. There was emphasis on staff development for all grades of officers in the service and a code of Ethics for Public Servants.

Although Government accepted most of the recommendations of the Commission, the area, which seems to have created the greatest sensation and attention is that of salaries and wages. Most workers perhaps think of the Commission in terms of arrears of salaries, which were paid out popularly called “Udoji arrears”.

Unfortunately such issues which were introduced like the open reporting system component of the management by objectives and the supposed use of ‘Merit’ as the major yardstick for determining promotions in the Service were not nurtured and perhaps not according to the intentions of the report.

The Udoji Report seemed to have been patterned along the same lines as the Fulton report and like Fulton, the report condemned the myth of the generalist administrators. The creation of unified senior management group comprising both Administrative and professional officers who should be given equal opportunity for advancement to the highest post in the Civil Service was amongst other things perhaps as a way of defusing or removing to a large
extent the age long conflict between the administrators and professionals. This is not a place for a critique of the Report, but it is necessary perhaps to observe that an inside experience shows that the feud between Administrative and Professional groups would appear to have increased even further possibly as a result of the so called one line management system.

On the ‘eve’ of the submission of this work, it is understood that the Federal Government has set up another Commission to review the structure and operations of the Civil Service. The Commission was under the chairmanship of Professor Dotun Philips. It was hoped that the Commission will settle down to consider problems arising from the implementation of the Udoji report as well as other ailments plaguing the Service.

Prior to this date, it was part of the Western Region, one of the then three regions of Nigeria. The Midwestern Region became known as Midwest State in 1967 although without any alteration to its geographical boundaries. With the creation of the Region, the Midwestern Region (Transitional Provisions) Act, 1963 came to force. This act provided that all the staff and employees of the then Western Region who were already physically based in the Midwest on the 9th of August, 1963 would automatically become members of the Public Service of the new Region.

The history of the now Edo State Civil Service therefore dates back to 1963. Dr. I.M. Okonjo writes that on the eve of the creation of the Region, precisely on the 27th of July, 1963, all public servants of Midwest origin in the Service of the
them Western Regional Government were issued identical letters posting them to Benin City on special duty. All the officers and employees affected, he says, were given only seventy-two hours to comply with the posting instruction.

Okonjo, I.M. “Ten years of Midwest Civil Service: A Decade of Crisis and Growth” in the _Bureaucrat_, special edition July – September 1973. (Okonjo was at the time the Secretary to the State Military Government and Head of Service in Bendel State) by the Western Regional Government of transferring on masses to Benin City all its staff and employees of Midwest origin who were previously based in what was then the Yoruba areas of the Region, he observes, created many difficulties.

As he puts it, ‘it is easy to imagine the chaos and confusion that was bound to exist in a situation where hundreds of public servants of all grades were, with only seventy-two hours notice, uprooted from their accustomed environment and ways of life and charged with the frightening responsibility of establishing a thorough-going responsibility of establishing a thorough-going public service in an area which was then woefully lacking in the essential infra-structure and facilities.

This movement is said to have involved about 3,000 public servants, who consequently formed the nucleus of the Midwest Public Service. The Midwest Region legally came to being on 9th August, 1963 and on that date there were already a number of public servants in the Region who were required by the Act
to 'carry out the functions pertaining to their officer under the directions of the Administrative Council.

These Public Officers formed the nucleus of the Midwest Public Service. Along with this number of officers who came on mass transfer were a group of persons mainly un-established staff whose appointments were terminated following the creation of the new Region.

With such a large number of personnel and with little or no physical office accommodation, the new and young service was certainly faced with some obvious problems – the most glaring one being that of immediate office accommodation. Dr. Okonjo records that although the number of staff available was comparatively sizeable, yet in terms of skill, experience and expertise, they did not adequately satisfy the needs of the new service. The Service was also faced with the problem of finance as it was not immediately spelt out how the new Region was to be financed or how it was to organize its machinery for revenue collection to gear it up to the requirements of a full fledged Region.

2.21 Organisational Theories and Structure

Every work organisation is concern with being effective. Upon the attainment of its aims and objectives rests the success and ultimate survival of the organisation. The quality of management is central to organisation development and improved performance. There are, however, multiplicities of variables, which impinge upon organisational effectiveness.
The starting point for an organisation theory review is an analysis of the existing structure, processes of the organisation and an assessment of the strategic issues in line with the subject under check. Though March and Simon (1992) argue that definition of organizations do not serve much purpose, a more reasonable approach would be to argue that definitions provide a basis for understanding the phenomena to be discussed. On this note, I will begin this by looking at definition of organizations, starting with definitions from the past.

1. **Weber:** Marx Weber, a man noted for his pioneering work in an aspect of management called bureaucracy is also the father of modern definitions of organization. His concept of organization has remained the basis for most of the definitions we have today on the subject. Separating the “Corporate group” from other forms of social organizations *Weber* (1947) opine that an organization is “a social relationship, which is either closed or limits the admission of outsiders by rules, so far as its order is enforced by the action of specific individuals whose regular function this is, of a chief or head and usually also an administrative staff.” Some elements of this definition which also form part of most other definitions (and therefore require further highlighting) are:

(a) Social Relationships: Organizations involves social relationships i.e. individuals interact within the organization and these individuals are not in random contact because an organization must only include some part of the population and exclude others. That is to say that an organization must have a boundary.
(b) Order: In organizations interaction patterns do not just arise because a structure of interaction is imposed by the organization itself. In order words, the organization imposes order on itself. This part of the definition also suggests that organizations contain a hierarchy of authority and a division of labour in carrying out their functions. Order is enforced with specific personnel designated to perform this function.

(c) Associative ness of Interaction: Another ingredient of the definition is that in organizations interaction is associative rather than communal. This differentiates the organization from other social entities, such as the family, which shares the other aforementioned characteristics of the corporate group.

(d) Purposive Activities: Organizations also carry out purposive activities of a specified kind. In this regard, organizations transcend the lives of their members, employee and have goals, as the phrase “purposive” suggests. Thus, organizations are designed to do something. Weber’s definition, as have been noted, basically focuses on legitimate interaction patterns among organizational staff as they pursue goals and engage in activities.

2. Barnard: Chester Barnard (1938) agrees with Weber’s definition on many points but offered a definition that stresses different basis for organizations as “a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons”. Explaining further, Barnard’s definition implies that activity is accomplished through conscious, deliberate and purposeful coordination. Organizations
require communication, willingness on the part of staff to contribute and a common purpose among them. Barnard stresses the role of the individual. It is they who must communicate, be motivated and make decisions. Thus, the difference between Weber’s work and that of Barnard is that while Weber emphasizes the system, Barnard is concerned with employee of the system.

**Contemporary definition.**

My concern in this case is not to take an excursion into definitions of organizations but to bring out the difficulty in fashioning out a definition that connote the subject under consideration. Even though such a definition would share in common certain basic attributes with those of other people.

Another reason is also to prepare the ground for the organization to think broadly, comparatively and conceptually in her motivational efforts. Looking at definitions from later day researchers to compare with those of Weber and Barnard so that one can adequately comprehend the implications of attempting to define organization.

(a) **Hall, Richard:** An organization is a collectivity with a relatively identifiable boundary, a normative order, ranks of authority, communications systems and membership coordinating systems, this collectivity exists on a relatively continuous basis in an environment and engages in activities that are usually related to a set of goals, activities have outcomes for organizational members, the organization itself or society. This definition is cumbersome and unwieldy
and Hall has acknowledged this by explaining that the subject itself is cumbersome and unwieldy too.

(b) **Schein, Edgar** opine that Organization is the rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the attainment of common explicit goals, through division of labour and function and through the hierarchy of authority and responsibility. This definition shares some basic attributes with that of Weber.

(c) **Mitchel, Terence R**: Mitchel simply adopted the definition of formal organization offered by W.G. Scott as “a system of coordinated activities of a group of people working cooperatively toward a common goal under authority and leadership”, as with the orders, this definition also shares some basic attributes with the works of Weber and Barnard.

Mitchel went further to state that economic rationality is the reason why organizations exist and this implies that organizations are designed and exist to facilitate the attainment of objectives. The major components of the principle of rationality are:

1. The process of organizing for goal attainment
2. The proper management of resources to reach these goals
3. The value orientation that goal attainment is a good thing.

Perhaps the best way to capture the difficulty in arriving at a universal (generally acceptable) definition is to recount the experience of one of the scholars of industrial
psychology in the world today who was invited to participate in a ten-week continuing symposium dealing with the study of organizations. The group of participants, who met thrice each week for a three-hour period, consisted of scientists from such diverse areas as sociology, psychology, political science, anthropology, economics and mathematics. Each felt he had something unique to contribute and that he could benefit greatly from finding out the points of view held by his brethren in their disciplines.

Being good and objective scholars, they decided at the first meeting that the initial order of business should be the definition of what was meant by the term “organization”. Unless they had a common conception of the basic term, it would be difficult to exchange ideas, so they decided to hammer out a definition that would be acceptable to all concerned. But ten weeks later, the group was still hopelessly bogged down in the process of trying to agree on what were the essential characteristics of an organization. Everyone knew what he meant by the term organization but no two persons had similar conceptions.

Notwithstanding the definitional difficulty, there are two essential characteristics of organizations, which clearly stand out. These are structure and purpose. Every organization must have a structure and a purpose and from these come the central aspects of successful organizations, which are goals and management.

There is the term refer to as organizational charter, according to Bake. (1959) These are the unique identifying features of organizations and they comprise:

1. The name of the organization
2. The function of the organization in relation to its environment and its participants.

3. The major goal or goals toward the realization of which the organization, through its systems of activities, is expected by participants to employ its resources (including themselves).

4. The major policies to the fulfilling of these functions and the achievement of these major goals to which agents of the organization are committed.

5. The major characteristics of reciprocal rights and obligations of the organization and its participants with respect to each other.

6. The major characteristics of the reciprocal rights and obligations with respect to each other, of the organization and people and organizations in the environment.

7. The significance of the organization for the self-realization of people and organizations inside and outside the organization in question.

8. The value premises legitimising the function, goals, policies, rights and obligations, and significance for people inside and outside the organization.

9. The symbols used to clarify, focus attention upon and reinforce the above, and to gain acceptance from people inside and outside the organization. These symbols are actually particular items of the several basic resources, which serve as cues to bring to mind the content of the organizational charter and reinforce its hold upon the minds of both participants and outsiders.

There are other theories of organization. These theories of organization are as follows:

(a) **Exchange Theories:**
The exchange theories view the operation of an organization as the establishment of a balance or equilibrium between the individual workers and the formal organization. Both parties give something to the other and, in turn, receive something in return for what they have given. Two sets of researchers are credited for pioneering work on the exchange theories. These are Barnard-Simon and then Levinson.

The Barnard Simon theory emphasizes the economic aspects of the exchange. They view the organization as offering wages, services, and income to the individual as inducements to his participation, while the individual offers his services as a worker as his part of the bargain. Organizational equilibrium is attained when the utility of the inducements is equal to the utility of the contributions i.e. when both the worker and organization feel they are getting value received for value paid, and then equilibrium exists.

The Levinson Theory of exchange is very similar to that of Barnard-Simon except that the model is based more upon motivational aspects of work rather than upon the economic aspects of work. Under this theory, the worker must feel that he is getting as many psychological reward units, from the organization as he is giving up in order for balance to exist.

(b) **Group Theories:**

Associated with Elton Mayo and Rensis Likert, group theories are those which take the point of view that association and human affiliation are primary work
motivators, and that the degree of cooperation and cohesiveness in one's primary group is very critical to a successful organization. Mayo was probably among the first to emphasize the importance of viewing any organization as a social system, rather than as an economic system.

To Mayo, the essential element in the interaction between the organization and its members was that of cooperation. However, in order for such cooperation to take place, management had to be made aware of the importance of the social aspect of work and its influence upon the success of any organization.

Likert's theory is also very similar in that it also emphasizes the importance of a cohesive primary work group, but Likert feels that cooperation between groups can be accomplished by what he has called “linking pins” rather than by having to train or convince all of management of the importance of social work group forces. The linking pin concept simply means that there should be at least one member of every organization unit who is also a member of the organizational unit immediately higher in the organizational hierarchy.

(c) Value Theories:

These are theories that hold that the basic values of the organization are generally quite different from the values held by individuals within the organization, and that this conflict of values systems is what is critical to determining the effectiveness and the stability of the organizational system. Chris Argyris and Blake and Mouton are associated with this theory.
Chris Argyris takes the point of view that the basic values of organizations are “bureaucratic” values, and that these values are shallow and impersonal. They lead to mistrust, conflict, lowered efficiency and poorer overall effectiveness. He argued that instead of just swallowing bureaucratic values, managers should be trained in the development of competence in understanding and appreciating new values which will include the expression of individual feelings, personal trust, and personal concern. It is basically a very humanistic theory, one which draws heavily from Maslow’s need hierarchy.

The Blake and Mouton managerial theory is substantially different. It seems rooted in the notion demonstrated by the Ohio State leadership studies that the two major dimensions of managerial “style” are:

1. Concern for people and
2. Concern for production.

According to Blake and Mouton, one can find eight different styles of management, as defined by the particular combination of these two dimensions. They suggest that optimal style involves maximizing both dimensions, and suggest further that such a style can only be developed through extensive organizational training.

(c) **Structural Theories:**

These are theories that hold that organizations should not be viewed as being mechanistic in nature. Thus, an organization is not a machine and it is therefore, inappropriate to apply mechanistic principles to it. Instead,
organizations should be viewed as “living” organisms, which are dynamic, adaptive to change and in general highly responsive to the world around them. Associated with structural theories are Shephard and Others.

(d) **Situational Theories:**

These are theories of organizations behaviour that have taken the specific situation as the focal point for resolving the conflict between individual and organizational goals. Associated with these theories are McGregor and Leavitt. McGregor holds the view that working out conflict for any particular situation is a joint endeavour between the manager and his subordinates and that this involves a complicated process called integration.

On the other hand, Leavitt takes the point of view that the organization must fit the task or the situation i.e. one should take the task as being given and then structure the organization to fit it, rather than task the organization as being given and attempt to shape the task to fit the organization. He feels that within one large organization, there may be many sub-units each with quite different organizational forms.

A party from the above theories summarized by Blum and Naylor (1984), Parker et al (1977) have quoted Pugh, D.S. (1971) to had identified the following six models and theories of organizations:

(i) **Economic Theories:**
This takes the firm as the organizational model because it is regarded as acting rationally in pursuit of its goal (which is maximizing profit or minimizing loss); simulation models are developed, building on the model of the firm and its part in the economic process. Man is viewed as a consumer of and motivated by rational and calculated ends.

(ii) **Technology Theories:**

This goes with the notion that technology is a major variable, which conditions both the environment of the organization and its internal structure. The works of Wodward (1970), Thompson (1967) Perrow (1970) are associated with this theory. Technology is a critical variable in work organizations.

(iii) **Individual Theories:**

These focus on the attitudes, personality attributes and experiences of the individual within organizations. Maslow (1954) and Herzbert (1966) fall within this category with their analysis of work satisfaction, hierarchy of needs and motivation of self-growth. Also coming under individual theories is the thesis of Chris Argyris (1964) which states that “Self Actualisation” is only possible in the toxicologically good organization.” Also, the classic analysis of March and Simon (1958) comes within this framework, emphasizing the individual. They claim that organizations can be defined and examined through the decision process of individual, despite such decisions being constrained by hierarchical and task differentiation.

(iv) **Group Theories:**
As with the work of Blum and Naylor, group theories as analysed by Pugh, are associated with Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Studies. The importance of group norms and leadership patterns is emphasized and the claims is made that organizational constraints and individual orientations and experiences can be adequately understood if groups like is taken into account.

(v) **Structuralist Theories:** Pugh’s classification links structuralist theories with the work of Max Weber (Model of Bureaucracy), Burns and Stalker (1961), and Pugh (1968). The central claim of Weber’s structuralist view is that organizations can be defined in terms of regularities of hierarchical authority, task allocation and functional coordination. The work of Burns and Stalker discusses the influences upon and problems with, mechanistic and organismic/organic structures and so does the work of Pugh (1968).

(vi) **Management Theories:**

These are exemplified in the writings of Fayol (1949) and Urwick (1956). The concern of management theories is with maximum productivity. The acceptance of hierarchical authority as “normal”, the treatment of people as machines, and the propaganda of common-sense maxims as scientific statements, have all been attributed to management theories. Placing the works of Blum and Naylor (adapted from (Bennis, 1966) and those of Parker et al (adapted from Pugh, 1971) side by side, one can note some similarities. The major differences in their pattern of analysis may have been because while Blum and Naylor are Psychologists, Parker et al are Sociologists: and their different
backgrounds may have influenced their views on the theories of organization as much as the references they chose.

**Classification of organizations:**

(a) **Goal Classifications**

Organizations are classified in terms of the goals they pursue i.e. in terms of their contributions to society. In this regard, Talcott Parsons (1960) has identified 4 types of organizations depending on their contributions to society and these are:

(i) Production goals (organization): which are those that meet the adaptive needs of the societal system.

(ii) Political organizations: Those that pursue the political needs of the polity and therefore meet the goal attainment needs of the political system.

(iii) Integrative Organizations: those whose shape, motivate and reduce conflict.

(iv) Pattern-Maintenance Organization: Those that are concerned with educational and cultural activities. Several other writers like Katz and Khan (1966), have adopted the goal pattern of classifying organizations even though their own focus is on open system. But classification of organization by “goals” poses severe conceptual and empirical problems which border on the ambiguity of the concept, the multiplicity of goals, the inadequate differentiation of organizational structure and the processes.

(b) **Compliance Relationship Classification**
Etzioni (1975) has stressed that organizations should be classified on the basis of the compliance relationship between the organization and its members (the psychological variable of members). He defines compliance as the relationship between the authority (or power-means) which organizations use, and the members’ involvement patterns (psychological decoding and attachment). Coercive means are said to involve alienative involvement e.g. the prison; remunerative means relate to calculative involvement e.g. the firm or business enterprise, normative means are related to moral involvement e.g. voluntary organizations.

(c) **Benefit/Consumption Classification**

Blau and Scott (1963) have classified organizations on the basis of the segment of the society that benefits or consumes the output of the organization, the nature of the members’ participation and the main problems. In this regard, four types (Classifications) of organizations have been offered and they are:

1. The mutual benefit organizations: Those in which the members themselves are the main beneficiaries e.g. trade associations, cooperative societies, clubs (e.g. Ikoyi Club) etc.

2. The business concern: Those in which the owners are the beneficiaries e.g. Banks, Hotels, retail stores, etc.

3. The service organizations: Those in which the benefits go mainly to the clients e.g. civil rights organizations, Insurance companies, Universities etc.

4. The commonwealth Organizations: Those in which the public is the major beneficiary e.g. Post Office, General Hospital etc.
But sequel to the inherent problems to these classifications (Etzioni, Blau & Scott), the general conclusion has been that organizations are too complex to be classified simply in terms of single criterion or dimension. An adequate classification would have to take into account “the array of external conditions, the total spectrum of actions and interactions within an organization and the outcome of organizational behaviour.” One way of moving towards this has been the development of an empirical taxonomy or organizations.

This has been attempted using characteristics derived from critical appraisal of Etzioni, Blau and Scott Schemas. But the results still suffer from a central weakness, namely, that the variables selected, such as complexity specificity, formalization, may not be the important ones or the ones which can be used to examine and explain organizational reality. In-fact, technology has also been used as a criterion for classifying organizations, yet single criteria classifications have been dismissed as inadequate because they fail to encompass the complexity and diversity of organizational life.

### 2.22 The Worker Problem of Allegiance and Morale

The term Worker should be understood to apply to and mean any staff in ABB or member associated with activity of the company. It does not include the CEO who is usually referred to as Managing director. The worker is a servant of the organisation and his first allegiance therefore is to the company well-being.

Since the Managing director is charged by the head quarter at Switzerland via Paris and South Africa with the control and administration of affairs of the
country, the workers allegiance is to the government of the day, and he or she should appropriately feel a positive and consistent responsibility to prosecute the interests of the organisation as his employer. This explains why the workers sign an oath of allegiance, oath of loyalty of office and oath of Secrecy. The allegiance and loyalty is the signature appended to the extra copy letter of appointment at the outset of the work agreement.

The worker as defined earlier is part of the machinery of the organisation and exists to put into effect corporate policies. The effectiveness of the management of the day, therefore, depends on the efficiency of the staff and its ability. The worker duty to their manager and their boss concern is to ensure that attitudes and orientation of the employee are in complete accord with the philosophy underlying the organisation policies. This feeling is a common feature of every worker. It agrees with the concept that the worker should not identify his or her self with any dubious practice while in service. The understanding is that policy decision is the responsibility to managing director and the top management cadre.

It must however be stated that the higher the workers plays a vital role in the decision making process the more motivated they are to actualised the organisation objective. Carry out instructions and though it is healthy for workers to be able to appreciate the policy behind his instructions, he ordinarily has no part in making that policy. It is his duty to carry out his responsibilities diligently and the best of his ability. He can make and often does make, suggestions for improvements in method and result, which are welcome, but he
has no part in the formulation of political or administrative policies. His immediate allegiance is to his superior officer, and this loyalty ultimately leads by the normal chain of command to the managing director.

The worker in the more senior position of responsibility, however, has an important role in policy formulation. He or she is usually the staff with long personal experience and expert knowledge, and is able to bring that experience and knowledge to bear on policy matters, which should greatly assist corporate goals and objective. This is particularly the case with such staff as heads of department and their immediate deputies and assistants. They have a normal responsibility of advising their boss over the whole range of their subordinate duties. This advice is not only on the formulation of policy, but also on the execution and effect of any proposed policy.

No leader and certainly not any management staff wants to be seen as being led by the nose by his workers. Sir Charles Arden, a one-time Governor of Gold Coast now Ghana, opine that workers should at all times, study their organisational policies and assist them in carrying them out. I can as well paraphrase his view thus, workers are responsible for major errors of procedure committed by their boss and it is their duty to prevent boss or managing director from committing avoidable errors.

The workers in turn thus; very often you hear “is ashawo work man de do” meaning “it is a thankless job.” It does appear from information gathered in this study that the workers are gradually beginning to feel that theirs is not only a
thankless joy but that their effort is being wasted, because the work is not worth the trouble or care. Such statements and feelings can only be taken as an expression of a lowering of self-confidence or lack of motivation. This situation seems to be on the upward trend and it seems as if it becomes worse with each change and operation of management. The importance or mutual confidence and loyalty between the staff and the management cannot be over emphasized. The workers, I believe holds the key to the effectiveness of the organisation and its ability to manage efficiently the affairs of the staff.

The morale of the workers is, therefore, a matter of the greatest importance to the organisation and all organisations should realize this. As long as members of the staff carry out their duties diligently, loyally, honestly and to the outmost of their capacity, one expects management should give them the full measure of protection.

2.23 Major Development Within the ABB Organisation in Nigeria

The history of ABB goes back to the late nineteenth century, and is a long and illustrious record of innovation and technological leadership in many industries. Having helped countries all over the world to build, develop and maintain their infrastructures, ABB has in recent years gone over from large-scale solutions to alternative energy and the advanced products and technologies in power and automation that constitute its Industrial IT offering.
The name Asea Brown Boveri Ltd. came into existence on 1st April 1988 following the merger of the worldwide operations of two of the largest electrical engineering companies. **Asea AB.** of Sweden and **BBC Brown Boveri & Cie.** of Switzerland each of which had been in existence for more than 100 years.

The company is owned equally by the two parent companies now known as ABB AB, Sweden and ABB AG, Switzerland and its corporate headquarters is in Zurich, Switzerland.

**ABB in Nigeria** – ABB has been established in Nigeria since 1977 formally refer to as BBC prior to the merger of 1988. Its headquarters located in Abuja, and currently have branch offices in Port Harcourt, Lagos and Enugu and various site/project offices located around the country.

**ABB Activities in Nigeria**

There are five ABB group companies operating in Nigeria that provides regular employment to around 900 people. These are:

1. ABB NG Limited
2. ABB Electrical Systems Limited
3. ABB Powerlines Limited
4. ABB Lummus Global Nigeria Limited
5. ABB Vetco Gray Nigeria Limited.

The activities in Nigeria are recently organized into two main divisions, namely:

1. Power Technology
2. Automation Technology
It is important to note that the research work in limited to the first three (3) out of five the (5) group of company.

**ABBNG LIMITED**

Power Technology Division – The Power Technology Division of ABB NG Limited handles the engineering, design, supply, erection and commissioning of outdoor and indoor substations, switchyards and transmission lines for voltages ranging from 330 to 11Kv and provide all after sales support services, ABB NG Limited has been working with small, medium and large industrial concerns in the manufacturing, mining and agricultural sectors to provide solutions and services for their networks from the main intake substations through to their low voltage distribution boards.

From the heaviest transmission lines for the highest voltages down to house services on wooden/concrete poles, ABB designs and builds all overhead lines with same scrupulous care. ABB NG Limited the entire spectrum for power transmission and power distribution including transformers, switchgear, breakers and cables, as well as other products, platforms and technologies for high and medium voltage applications.

Modern techniques, first-rate equipment and trained staff ensure efficient and quality construction. ABB carry out conversion and maintenance work promptly and efficiently. A workshop for the repair of rotating electrical machines was established in 1999.
**Automation Technology Division** – ABB is one of the largest suppliers of automation technology solutions. The customers include the oil and gas, petrochemical, metals, pulp and paper, marine, pharmaceuticals and chemical industries, utilities, manufacturing of customer products and the automotive industry.

Worldwide, ABB Automation Technology employs 54,000 people in 80 manufacturing centres and 50 research and development laboratories. They have sales, service and engineering presence in more than 40 countries.

In Nigeria, the Automation Technologies Division of ABB NG Limited has gained an enviable track record over the last 25 years of being an active partner in the countries quest for development. This is further strengthened by the integration of her local ABB Industry. ABB is a Company dedicated to providing solutions, products, systems and services for existing and new customers.

The products and services provided by the Automation Technology Division include drivers, motors, and power electronic components. Furthermore, instrumentation and control products such as field devices for sensing, controlling and actuating, analysers, metering equipment, control and information systems are available.

ABB provide application expertise, project management and integrated system deliveries to markets such as the petrochemical, and chemical industries,
electrical and water utilities, metals and mining, pulp and paper, marine and automotive industries.

ABB also provide products, software and services for the automation and optimisation of discrete, process and batch manufacturing operations. Key technologies include measurement and control, instrumentation, drives and motors, power electronics and low voltage products, all geared towards one common industrial IT architecture.

**ABB Electrical Systems Limited.** was incorporated on 8th July 1996. It is the local manufacturing unit of ABB. Initially; emphasis was put on the lower range of the Low Voltage Switchgear and Motor Control Centres. Subsequently, by 1997 production for the 11KV Switchgear and the higher range of Low Voltage Switchgear and Motor Control Centres commenced.

The business volume has grown on a steady basis and the company has increased its customer base among Government establishments as well as the private industries. The overall business is subdivided into the following business segments:

1. Medium Voltage Air Insulated Switchgear and other related products.
2. Low Voltage Switchgear and Motor Control Centre

Since the last quarter of 1998 ABB Electrical Systems Ltd. started sales, installation and commissioning of Variable Speed AC Drives. The Spin-off
effects on the economy include the creation of more employment opportunities for Nigerians, saving considerable foreign exchange on importation and above all the transfer of technology and resultant manpower development.

**ABB POWERLINES LIMITED**

Powerlines Limited, the predecessor of the present ABB Powerlines Ltd., was incorporated in Nigeria in 1959. In July 2001 Powerlines Ltd came under the majority control of ABB group in Nigeria, owned 55% by ABB Electrical Systems Ltd and 45% by Nigerian Shareholders. Today, ABB Powerlines Ltd with the backing of ABB’s International activities in power technology is a leader among the Nigerian power engineering and contracting companies.

Field of Activities includes the design, supply and construction of overhead transmission lines from 33KV to 400KV. Telecommunications and GSM installations, with activities such as transport and logistics, site engineering, telephone implementation, radio base station installation, false flooring, flood lighting, etc.

2.24 **The history of ABB structure and employee productivity**

It’s not always easy to tell how companies are organized. Especially the big ones are truly complex. And just when you think you understand things, the companies change their structures for reasons that aren’t always clear to outsiders. Almost daily we can find examples of well-known companies that are tweaking or maybe overhauling their organizations. I will consider a few different examples:
1. Microsoft is a big name in the IT industry. Microsoft has been reorganizing to take advantage of the Internet. After resisting the idea for sometime, Bill Gates recently created a new division in Microsoft completely devoted to the Internet. The new division, which will be responsible for Microsoft’s Explorer browser, works in conjunction with two other units: one focused on consumers and one focused on business systems and desktops. Gates believes that the new structure will help the company focus on key opportunities that take its Windows business forward while becoming a more dominant player on the Internet.

2. Ford Motors meanwhile has been trying to find the right structure for managing its different automotive products. In 1996, Ford created five management teams it referred to rather creatively as the “youthful,” “Family,” “Sporting,” “Expressive,” and “Tough” brand groups. The monikers didn’t work out very well and in 1997 the company scrapped the descriptive labels and reorganized around three main brand groups: the car group, the multipurpose-vehicle group (sport utility vehicles), and the truck groups.

3. Royal Dutch/Shell. The Anglo-Dutch oil and chemicals giant recently put in place a newly reorganized structure that abolishes its former complex matrix of regional, functional, and business-sector organization. In its place, the company has made things simpler by establishing just four overall global businesses: exploration and production, oil products, gas and coal, and chemicals. Each of these businesses, in turn, guides a number of operating companies.

4. Sears has been trying to change its structure to push more decisions down to individual stores. Instead of making key decisions at the very top of the organization, Sears’s CEO, Arthur C. Martinez, has tried over the past few years
to give more autonomy to local managers so that they can provide better customer service. This is a very different approach to organizing for Sears and one that has had both pluses and minuses.

5. Recalling the Boeing and McDonnell Douglas merger in recent time. The two companies have been working tirelessly to reorganize operating to become the world’s largest aerospace company. Phil Condit, chairman and CEO of Boeing has promised that there will be very few layoffs, but the combined organization has 220,000 employees. As a consequence, the top management team has been working to restructure business unit to blend” McDonnell Douglas into the test of the company.

6. Finally ABB group of companies the giant in electrical industry in year 2003 put in place a newly reorganized structure that abolishes its former complex structure of country manager and business-sector organization. In its place, the company has made things more difficult for the middle managers to comprehend. Each departmental head that they regard as resource centre are now responsible for their budgetary, profit making matters. The reporting pattern has changed as at today. Reporting principle is based thus Nigeria – South African – Paris – Switzerland.

Each of these different approaches has different strengths and weaknesses. But truthfully, the examples in these structure probably don’t provide enough information to help one understand why these organizations have done what they did, or to decide which approach is best. Instead, they are meant to highlight a few important issues that I want to cover in this section about how organizations are structured. These issues may say a lot about other company.
They also may influence in part how satisfied and successful the staff will be there.

There are vertical and horizontal dimension of organization structure. The vertical structure includes issues of authority, hierarchy, delegation, and decentralization. The horizontal structure that includes functional, divisional, and matrix forms. More so illustration of the ways that organizations can integrate their structures: coordination by standardization, coordination by plan and coordination by mutual adjustment.

I often describe a firm’s structure by looking at its organization chart. The organization chart depicts the positions in the firm and how they are arranged. The chart provides a picture of the reporting structure (who reports to whom) and the various activities that are carried out by different individuals. Most companies have official organization charts drawn up to give people the information. **Fig 2.24** shows the ABB Ltd organization chart. Note the various kinds of information that are conveyed in a very simple way.
1. The boxes represent different work

2. The titles in the boxes show the work performed by each unit

3. Solid lines showing superior-subordinate connections indicate reporting and authority relationship.

4. The number of horizontal layers in the chart indicates levels of management. All persons or units that are of the same rank and report to the same person are on one level.

Although the organization chart presents some clearly important structural features, there are other design issues related to structure that while not so obvious are no less important.

Two fundamental concepts around which organizations are structured are differentiation and integration. Differentiation means that the organization is comprised of many different units that work on different kinds of tasks, using different skills and work methods. Integration, on the other hand, means that these differentiated units are put back together so that work is coordinated into an overall product.
Differentiation, Several related concepts underlie the idea of structural differentiation. For example, differentiation is created through division of labour and job specialization. Division of labour means the work of the organization is subdivided into smaller tasks. Various individuals and units throughout the organization perform different tasks.

Specialization, in turn, refers to the fact that different people or groups often perform specific parts of the entire task. The two concepts are, of course, closely related. Secretaries and accountants specialize in, and perform, different jobs; similarly, marketing, finance, and human resources tasks are divided among those respective departments. The numerous tasks that must be carried out in an organization make specialization and division of labour necessities.

Differentiation is high when there are many subunits and many kinds of specialists who think differently. Harvard Professors Lawrence and Lorsch found that organizations in complex, dynamic environments (plastics firms, in their study) developed a high degree of differentiation in order to cope with the complex challenges. Companies in simple, stable environments (container companies) had low level of differentiation. Companies in intermediate environments (food companies) had intermediate differentiation.

Integration as organizations differentiate their structures, managers must simultaneously consider issues of integration. Example is the three ABB group of company. All the specialized tasks in an organization cannot be performed
completely independently because the different units are part of the larger organization, some degree of communication and cooperation must exist among them. Integration and its related concept, coordination, refer to the procedures that link the various parts of the organization to achieve the organization’s overall mission.

Integration is achieved through structural mechanisms that enhance collaboration and coordination as exemplify in Fig 2.24. Any job activity that links different work units performs an integrative function. The more highly differentiated the firm, the greater the need for integration among the different units.

Lawrence and Lorsch found that highly differentiated firms were successful if they also had high levels of integration. Organizations are more likely to fail if they exist in complex environments and are highly differentiated, but fail to adequately integrate their activities. The vertical structure is to understand issues such as reporting relationships, authority, responsibility, and the like, I needed to emphasise the vertical dimension of a firm’s structure.

Authority in Organizations, fundamental to the functioning of ABB organization is authority, the legitimate right to make decisions and to tell other people what to do. For example, a boss has the authority to give an order to a subordinate. Authority resides in positions rather than in people. Thus, the job of CEO of a particular division has authority over that division, regardless of how many people come and go in that position and who presently holds it.
In private business enterprises, the owners have ultimate authority. In most small, simply structured companies, the owner also acts as manager. Sometimes the owner hires another person to manage the business and its employees. The owner gives this manager some authority to oversee the operations, but the manager is accountable to, that is, reports and defers to the owner. Thus, the owner still has the ultimate authority.

Traditionally, authority has been the primary means of running an organization. An order that a boss give to a lower-level employee is usually carried out. As this occurs throughout the organization day after day, the organization thus has the potential to move forward toward achieving its goals.

I will discuss the authority structure of the ABB organizations from the top down, beginning with the board of directors.

The Board of Directors; in corporations, the owners are the stockholders. But because there are numerous stockholders, and these individuals generally lack timely information, few are directly involved in managing the organization. Stockholders elect a board of directors to oversee the organization. The board, led by the chair, makes major decisions affecting the organization, subject to corporate charter and bylaw provisions. Boards perform at least three major sets of duties:
(1) Selecting, assessing, rewarding, and perhaps replacing the CEO. In ABB this concept is in line with the above explanation. The CEO is appointed via a general consensus right from the head quarter in Switzerland.

(2) Determine the firm’s strategic direction and reviewing financial performance, and

(3) Assuring ethical, socially responsible and legal conduct. Some top executives are likely to sit on the board (they are called inside directors). Outside members of the board tend to be executives at other companies. The trend in recent years has been toward reducing the number of insiders and increasing the number of outsiders. Today, most companies have a majority of outside directors. Board made up of strong, independent outsiders are more likely to provide different information and perspectives and to prevent big mistakes.

Successful boards tend to be those that are active, critical participants in determining company strategies. Routinely conducts performance evaluations on board members to make certain they are active contributors.

The Chief Executive Officer: The authority officially vested in the board of directors is assigned to a chief executive officer, who occupies the top of the organizational pyramid. The chief executive is personally accountable to the board and to the owner for the organization’s performance. In ABB the CEO is partly refer to as the country manager.
It is estimated that in 15 percent of Fortune 500 corporations, one person holds all three positions of CEO, chair of the board of directors, and president. More commonly, however, one person holds two of those positions, with the CEO serving also as either the chair of the board or the president of the organization. When the CEO is president, the chair may be honorary and may do little more than conduct meetings. In other cases, the chair may be the CEO and the president is second in command.

The Top Management Team: Increasingly, CEOs share their authority with other key members of the top management team. Top management teams are typically comprised of the CEO, president, chief operating officer, chief financial officer, and other key executives. Rather than make critical decisions on their own, CEOs at companies such as ABB, Shell petroleum, Dagotte Nig Ltd, regularly meet with their top management teams to make decisions as a unit.

**Hierarchical Levels**

The CEO occupies the top position and is the senior member of top management. The top managerial level also includes presidents and vice presidents.

These are the strategic managers in charge of the entire organization. The second broad level is middle management. At this level, managers are in charge of plants or departments. The lowest level is made up of lower management and workers. It includes office managers, sales managers, supervisors, and other first-line managers, as well as the employees who report
directly to them. This level is also called the operational level of the organization. Present day name in ABB is profit centre managers.

An authority structure is the glue that holds these levels together. Generally (but not always), people at higher levels have the authority to make decisions and to tell lower-level people what to do. For example, middle managers can give orders to first-line supervisors; first-line supervisors, in turn direct operative-level workers.

In the 1980s, a powerful trend for U.S. businesses was to reduce the number of hierarchical layers. General Electric used to have 29 levels; today, following a major reorganization, it has only 5. Most executives today believe that fewer layers create a more efficient, fast-acting, and cost-effective organization. This also hold true for the subunits of major corporations.

A study of 234 branches of a financial services company found that branches with fewer layers tended to have lighter operating efficiency than branches with more layers.

**Span of Control:**

The number of people under a manager is an important feature of an organization’s structure. The number of subordinates who report directly to an executive or supervisor is called the span of control. The implications of differences in the span of control for the shape of an organization are straightforward. Holding size constant, narrow spans build a tall organization
that has many reporting levels. Wide spans create a flat organization with fewer reporting levels. The span of control can be too narrow or too wide.

The optimal span of control maximizes effectiveness because it is:

1. Narrow enough to permit managers to maintain control over subordinates, but
2. Not so narrow that it leads to over-control and an excessive number of managers who oversee a small number of subordinates.
3. What is the optimal number of subordinates? Five, according to Napoleum. Some managers today still consider five a good number. At one Japanese bank, in contrast, several hundred-branch managers report to the same boss.
4. Actually, the optimal span of control depends on a number of factors. The span should be wide when –
5. the work is clearly defined and unambiguous,
6. Subordinates are highly trained and have access to information,
7. The manager is highly capable and supportive,
8. Jobs are similar and performance measures are comparable, and
9. Subordinates prefer autonomy to close supervisory control. If the opposite conditions exist, a narrow span of control may be more appropriate.

**Organizational Integration**

Although I have covered both the vertical and horizontal dimensions of organizational structure, I have really only focused on structural differentiation.
Because of specialization and the division of labour, different groups of managers and employees develop different orientations. Depending on whether employees are in a functional department or in a divisional group, are line or staff, and so on, they will think and act in ways that are geared toward their particular work units. In short, people working in separate functions, divisions, and business units literally tend to forget about one another. When this happens, it is difficult for managers to combine all their activities into an integrated whole.

There are a variety of approaches available to managers to help them make certain that interdependent units and individuals will work together to achieve a common purpose. Coordination methods include standardization, plans, and mutual adjustment.

**Coordination by Standardization**

When organizations coordinate activities by establishing routines, and standard operating procedures that remain in place over time, we say that work has been standardized. Standardization constrains actions and integrates various units by regulating what people do. People oftentimes know how to act – and know how to interact – because there are standard operating procedures that spell out what they should do. Employee manuals and policies, for example, may explain what actions a manager should take to discipline an employee or deal with an unhappy customer.
Organizations also may rely on rules and regulations to govern how people interact (we call this formalization). Simple policies regarding attendance, dress, and decorum, for example, may help eliminate a good deal of uncertainty at work. But an important assumption underlying both standardization and formalization is that the rules and procedures should apply to most (if not all) situations. These approaches, therefore, are most appropriate in situations that are relatively stable and unchanging.

**Coordination by Plan**

If it is difficult to lay out the exact rules and procedures by which work should be integrated, organizations may provide more latitude by establishing goals and schedules for interdependent units. Coordination by plan does not require the same high degree of stability and optimisation required for coordination by standardization. Interdependent units are free to modify and adapt their actions, as long as they meet the deadlines and targets required for working with others.

**Coordination by Mutual Adjustment**

Ironically, the simplest and most flexible approach to coordination may just be to have interdependent parties to talk to one another. Coordination by mutual adjustment involves feedback and discussions to jointly figure out how to approach problems and devise solutions that are agreeable to everyone. The popularity of teams today is in part due to the fact that they allow for flexible coordination: teams can operate under the principle of mutual adjustment.
But the flexibility of mutual adjustment as a coordination device does not come without some cost. “Hashing out” every issue takes a good deal of time and may not be the most expedient approach for organizing work. Imagine how long it would take to accomplish even the most basic tasks if sub-units had to talk through every situation. At the same time, mutual adjustment can be very effective when problems are novel and cannot be programmed in advance with rules, procedures, or plans. Particularly in crisis situation where rules and procedures don’t apply, mutual adjustment is likely to be the most effective approach to coordination.

2.25 Contemporary Theories of Motivation

2.25.1 Attribution Theory

A more recent approach to the study of motivation is attribution theory. Attribution is the process by which people interpret the perceived causes of behaviour. The initiator of attribution theory is generally recognized as Heider, who suggested that behaviour is determined by a combination of perceived internal forces and external forces.

1. **Internal forces** relate to personal attributes such as ability, skill, and amount of effort or fatigue.

2. **External forces** relate to environmental factors such as organizational rules and policies, the manner of superiors, or the weather.

Behaviour at work may be explained by the locus or control, that is whether the individual perceives outcomes as controlled by themselves, or by external factors. Judgements made about other people will also be influenced strongly by whether the cause is seen as internal or external.
In making attributions and determining whether an internal or external attribution is chosen, Kelley suggests three basic criteria: distinctiveness, consensus and consistency.

1. **Distinctiveness**: how distinctive or different was the behaviour or action in this particular task or situation compared with behaviour or action on other tasks or situations?

2. **Consensus**: is the behaviour or action different from, or in keeping with, that displayed by most other people in the same situation?

3. **Consistency**: is the behaviour or action associated with an enduring personality or motivational characteristic over time, or an unusual one-off situation caused by external factors?

Kelley hypothesized that people attribute behaviour to internal forces or personal factors when they perceive low distinctiveness, low consensus and high consistency. Behaviour is attributed to external forces or environmental factors when people perceived high distinctiveness, high consensus, and low consistency (see Fig 2.25.1).

![Fig 2.25.1 Representation of Attribution theory](image)

An example of these criteria related to a student who fails a mid-sessional examination in a particular subject is given in Table 2.25.1
An additional consideration in the evaluation of task performance within an organizational setting is whether the cause of behaviour was due to ‘stable’ or ‘unstable’ factors.

1. **Stable factors** are ability, or the ease or difficulty of the task.

2. **Unstable factors** are the exertion of effort, or luck.

The combination of internal and external attributions, and stable and unstable characteristics, results in four possible interpretations of a person’s task performance (see Table 2.25.2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal attribution</th>
<th>External attribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stable factor</td>
<td>Ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstable factors</td>
<td>Effort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Stable factor        | Task Difficulty      |
| Unstable factors     | Luck                 |

**Table 2.25.1** Example of criteria in making attribution

**Table 2.25.2** Classification of possible attribution for performance

Employees with an internal control orientation are more likely to believe that they can influence their level of performance through their own abilities, skills or efforts. Employee with an external control orientation are more likely to believe
that their level of performance is determined by external factors beyond their influence.

Studies appear to support the idea that staff with internal control orientation is generally more satisfied with their job, are more likely to be in managerial position, and are more satisfied with a participatory style of management, than staff with an external controlled orientation. As a generalisation it might be implied that internally controlled managers are more effective than those who are externally controlled. However, this does not appear to be always be the case.

People with a high achievement motivation may perceive that their own internal forces, and their ability and effort cause successful performance, rather than by the nature of the task or luck. If members of staff fail to perform well on their tasks they may believe that external factors are the cause, and as a result may reduced the level of future effort. On the other hand if staff performs well but the manager perceives this as due to an easy task or luck, the appropriate recognition and reward may not be given. If the staff perceive that good performance was due to ability and or effort the lack of recognition and reward may well have a de-motivating effect.

2.25.2 Other Reviews

It was necessary at the beginning of this chapter to examine and review early approaches to motivation as a background to understanding contemporary
works and theories on the subjects. For example one may now see instinct, drive, or incentive as precursors of needs theories. The workers have been able to survive almost everything thrown at them.

But it has not been easy for them to ignore the issue of lack of motivation. It is not too much to ask to be treated like human beings. The workers deserve some motivational welfare packages, and should be well trained; and they should, on their own part, think critically and creatively. Thinking creatively and critically would enable them to be rational and logical, and to be more productive.

Let me start by defining again the relevant terms in this discourse motivation, and productivity. We cannot search too far to note the brutalizing effects of poor reward systems on the society. Admittedly, a reward is something that is given in return for some service or attainment. As it relates to employment, it is pay for the job held; pay for the individual's capabilities; and pay for results (Greene, April 1991, p. 63). Appropriate reward often motivates people to perform better.

What is motivation? Motivation, which has variedly been defined, is an inner drive that causes one to act. It has formally been defined as a person's inner state that energizes, sustains, and directs behavior to satisfy a person needs. (Milkovich & Glueck, 1985)

According to Donadio (March 1992), motivation is the art of stimulating someone to action by creating a safe environment in which their motivation can
be unleashed and through providing a reason or incentive for people to produce (Donadio, March 1992, p.40). Employee motivation causes one to abandon its own goals for the goals of the organization. As Mullen (1993) has asked, how can an employee be motivated to abandon its own goals for that of the organizations goals? (p. 6).

Any person who has followed closely the labor history of Nigeria would agree that the real problem facing the workers is that they are under appreciated. Relatively, they are not paid living wages; they are often harassed, used, and discarded. In addition, there is no effective social system to see them through their retirement years. This unfortunate condition has negatively impacted their morale and eventually productivity.

As we all know, humans are goal driven. It has been documented that once a goal is set, behavior aimed toward the goal persists until the goal is reached. But more often than not, a Nigerian worker works all his life without coming close to achieving his life goals. This sad situation is rampant today where an average worker cannot afford to meet his or her family’s basic needs (food, clothing, water, decent shelter, and health care. Addis Ababa, JASPA, 1981, p.22. Sisk & Williams,. 1981, p.317). The lack of all these basic needs have negatively impacted their productivity.

2.26 Improving workers’ productivity
Productivity and commitment to organisation objective, is the basic pre requisite expected form the staff of any organisation. Unfortunately, however, it does appear that such appeals ignore the root of the ‘seeming’ laxity and unfavourable attitudes to work. Even when there has been concern about the human problem in the cause of ones work, it is found that the symptoms are treated instead of the disease.

In the case of productivity, it may be measured at various levels of organizational, unit, product line, or any other level that is logical (Milkovich & Glueck, 1985, p. 175). And productivity can be broken down into three component parts: ability, opportunity, and motivation (Managers, Nov. 1993, p.29). But here, I shall focus on the implication of motivation on productivity.

However, Productivity is the relationship between the amount of one or more inputs and the amount of outputs from a clearly identified process and the most common measure is labor productivity, which is the amount of labor input (such as labor hours or employees) per physical unit of measured output’s. Another measure is materials productivity, in which the amount of output is measured against the amount of physical materials input (Thor 1991, pp.18-19).

Yet another measure of productivity is termed total productivity. Total-factor productivity is the ratio of output to all inputs, not just labour (Soros, Jan. 1998). In other words, total-factor productivity includes all the factors of production. Given Nigerians poor reward systems, the workers productivity has been downright dreadful, has not the society the resources to better motivate and
treat her workers like human beings? In the effort to eliminate low morale on workers?

Low morale is only a symptom of a disease – lack of motivation, which needs a more deep-rooted treatment and cure. Therefore for any organisation to achieve its goals and objective, high-spirited workers are essential. The employee must be motivated to give their best.

I believe that the individual worker takes his monthly pay pocket as of right for ‘attending’ work whether or not he performs well but that he will perform better when the satisfaction he derives from doing so outweighs the discomfort and sacrifices that are involved. I believe that work can be meaningful and satisfying to a given job incumbent only when it elicits and stimulates his inner motivation.

For an organisation to achieve its goals and objectives a high motivational incentive is essential. The workers must be motivated to give their best. The management must be in its bid to attract and retain the required type of manpower to ensure effective execution of its policies and programmes.

Moreover disbursements of money for the payment of salaries and fringe benefits to its workers also important, whether in actual fact, the organisation is getting the desired results from the performance of the workers or the workers are achieving the self-fulfilment required for healthy growth. Organisation ideals
programmes and objectives may exist only on paper unless the staff is willing to contribute their effort and might towards the fulfilments of the assigned tasks.

The individual’s basic human needs, his ability and willingness to perform and his past experience, education, and perceptions of the position he holds affect his performance in the entire system. It is therefore important that all is involved in conduct operations of the organisational goals.

Need to understand the importance of integrating the individual and the organization are two separate systems, each of which attempts to actualise itself, through personalizing (individual) and socializing (organization) processes. In order to achieve the goals of the corporate organisation, therefore, attention must be given to the satisfaction of the needs and expectations of individual workers in the system.

Satisfaction levels greatly affects the level of productivity, and the organisation as a goal-oriented institution should concern itself always with the level of satisfaction experienced by workers in the systems. A measure of an intrinsic job satisfaction must however take into account the aspirations of the workers for only this can gives a true measure of his degree of job involvement.

It is a common view for example that people prefer jobs which challenge their skill and give some measure of decision making and responsibility, and it is therefore understandable that the majority of jobs which offer a routines work-
content is a constant source of frustration to the man who has some craftsmanship and enterprise in his make-up.

ABB is a hierarchical organization comprising of various classes of workers with vastly differing jobs and levels of competence. Each of these groups of workers has a defined role to play in the realization of company objectives and certain factors determine their attitude and commitment to their work, their level of productivity and individual and group morale for effective performance. These factors could be designated motivators. I have always felt that the approach taken in dealing with organizational problems appear over simplified and too global.

The tendency usually is for people to assume that the organization is like a single individual, or that there is a single problem of motivation with a single answer for the entire organization, or that organizational structures and processes could be ignored in dealing with the psychology of the individual. As we shall see in the succeeding chapters, the complex issue and is of very persistent concern – it forms the psychological; basis of organizational effectiveness. For a varied group of officers/workers, it may be wrong to apply a blanket remedy since the needs of all are not the same. What this means is that the management must find ways of motivating the individual staff.

Many studies have been carried out into the types of management behaviour, which appear to result in higher motivation of subordinate managers and non-management personnel, as well as studies to determine whether the
‘techniques’ or types of management behaviour or managers who are successful in motivation can be applied in different situation and different organization. Findings from these studies show that: Subordinate managers and non-management personnel neither are nor well used – that they are not motivated to work at full capacity.

Attempt is made to satisfy subordinate and give insufficient attention to psychological needs; That the unsatisfactory approach to motivation is the main reason that many organization find that they are being forced to give more and more financial rewards, frequently to see performance fall and invariably to see no improvement in morale. As a result, managers complain that all that workers want is money and that they do as little as they can get away with. The demands for money are made, not only by non-management personnel but also by technical and administrative personnel, all of who are organizing themselves (into unions) to make their demands more powerful.

Workers, it is believed, behave like this, apparently pre-occupied with only one thing – more money – because their supervisors do not understand how motivation occurs and do not manage in the correct way to secure the motivation of their subordinates. Other conclusions of these studies show that the subordinates want challenging and interesting work, want to understand their supervisor’s activities, want to participate actively in their planning activities and that if these needs are satisfied, the pre-occupation with money will be reduced and motivation and productivity will be high.
Having identified the problems facing the average worker generally let take a minute to discuss the possible ways to improve their productivity. Employee motivation, which is the main problem, can take many forms. Thus, any productivity improvement programs in Nigeria should include, among other things, the replacement of ineffective and obsolete technologies; replacement of equipment in poor conditions; establishment of good working conditions (good payment system and incentives, job satisfaction, good retirement packages, etc), and the provision of appropriate technical manpower and instructions.

Investment in human development (employees training), and technological modernization are areas that deserve serious attention. This is because, one of the most efficient and effective methods of improving workers productivity is simply to train them in the skills they need to perform their job duties. And without the availability of necessary tools and modern technologies, workers productivity is destined to go south. As Hodgson (March 1993) has recommended, we should educate the workers, test them on the understanding of the materials, and then reward them based on how well they perform (p.83). It is appropriate to point out at this juncture that the only enduring competitive advantage [in this global economy] is a high-quality, well-motivated work force willing to work together as a team to increase productivity Greene (April 1991, p.62).

Taking proper interest in people is another way to improve their productivity. It has been noted that the more you know about an individual - knowing the needs and aspirations - the better you will be able to know how to motivate and
to get the most out of him (Donadio March 1992, p.40). Since workers are not paid well and when due, it is obvious that employers have not taken proper interest in them.

Managers = person in charge of a formal organization or one of its sub-units, Mintzberg 1980, p.100), are responsible for giving directions. Thus, the work climate of any unit or organization is determined, for good or bad, by the work habits of that unit or organization’s manager. For example, if the managers have not shown any concern for their organizations, how would they expect that from the workers? This tends to explain why corruption is endemic in Nigeria. Since both the led and the leaders are corrupt, they do not apparently see corruption as a vice.

Therefore, any motivation programs in organizations would only work if the employees feel confident that management is willing to show good efforts in their use. Anything less could cause mistrust. De-motivation would also set in since workers are willing to put forth additional effort only when they see some kind of gain from it Mullen (Nov/Dec 1993, p.17).

For this, our employers should learn to implement any employment benefits agreement reached with the workers for the mutual benefit of the people and the society. For example the non-implementation of benefits agreed upon between the government and ASUU apparently led to the recent university teachers strike actions. The managers should also desist from playing around with workers wages and salaries. This is a challenge that should be tackled with sincerity at the dawn of the 21st century.
In addition, workers should be allowed to participate in activities and in setting goals and objectives in their organizations. This would help them to develop a sense of owner-ship and pride Donadio (March 1992, p. 40). And as Metz (Jan 1992) has noted, recognition and visibility of the subordinates by management can spur major increase in productivity (p.25).

More importantly, Nigerian society should create appropriate organizational environment and value system that would stimulate the morale and productivity of the work force and leadership. Overtime, a culture of high productivity would be created, not by any other way, but by the behavior of the workers and the leaders. However, it is essential to emphasize that the above prescriptions would work better under a viable democratic political process.

Conclusion

Nigeria has a system that suffers from many deficiencies, this is gradually been transfer to various organization. The most glaring of which is the lack of motivation for her workers. The nation can move forward only if persistent and deliberate efforts are made to correct the deficiencies. Towards this direction, the state should withdraw from the areas of the economy where private individuals could manage, for improved productivity, more jobs, export increase, and sociopolitical stability.
This would in turn increase the nations Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The decline in productivity would result in plants closure, loss of jobs, and increased human misery. As it were, a happy and healthy worker is normally a high productive employee (all things being equal).

Some state governments have not been able to implement the new salary structure approved by the federal government.

Yet some governors from these states have since their inauguration undertaken some wasteful foreign trips without clearing the backlog of pays owed the workers. Even with the full implementation of the new salary structure, Nigerian workers would still be grossly underpaid. Many of them could still be struggling to subsist on less than $1 a day.

Meanwhile, our oil wells are still pumping out well over 1.88 million barrels daily; but the plebes have not been benefiting from the gains. Thus, with good management of the abundant natural resources in the country, we can still put in place effective social security programs for the society. As President Bill Clinton said at a regional conference on social security in Kansas City, Missouri, we still have the chance to fix the roof while the sun is still shining (as cited in Baker & Weisbrot 1999, p.1).
For that, we must change our policies that have not served us well. As Bob Crandell, president of American Airlines, is known to have said, if you always do what you always did, you will always get what you always got (as cited in Sharman, Feb 1991, p.11). And if we want to survive as a nation via the various organizations in this 21st century, we have to understand and apply what works now.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 Methodology Of Research

Various methods of data collection have been used in this study but the main material for the study has been obtained through the use of questionnaire survey technique, refined observations and in-depth interviews. It is also necessary to observe that my inside knowledge of the ABB organization especially my experience in the management class of the company and particularly as the manager LAS department has been beneficial to the study.

3.11 Design of Study

This study is ex-post factor in nature. Furthermore, the study set out to identify problems and make an appraisal.

3.12 Subject Under Study

A cross section of the staff of ABB comprising of 474 subjects drawn from every class and cadre of the organisation was sampled. For the purpose of this study, the workers is divided into three major groups namely:

1. The contract staff,
2. The permanent staff officers on salary grade level 7-18
3. The management staff officer’s on salary grade level 1 -6

Careful analyses of the above data reveal that the ABB staff strength is put at 714 people. Of this number 9% are management staff, 55.5% are permanent staff, the remaining 35.5% are contract staff.
3.13 The Study Population

The entire staff members of staff of ABB groups of company totalling 714 staff constituted the population of this study.

3.14 The sample size

In order to have a more effective sampling of the various groups and cadres, the following numbers were sampled from each group:

1. Management staff 25 samples
2. Permanent staff 294 samples
3. Contract staff 155 samples

Although management staff is only 9% of the entire staff strength, 25 subjects were sampled from the group representing 39% of the management staff. I believe that this group constitutes the leadership of the organisation and their attitude is more likely to and should affect the confidence of the workers.

The 294 sampled were representing Permanent staff of the various cadres in the group such as Messengers, Drivers, and clerical staff, Cleaners, Receptionists, Telephone Operators, Technical Assistants, Technicians and Engineers.

Many of the samples in the junior group did not understand the questionnaire used for the other groups and it became necessary to read and interpret at their
level before they complete the questionnaire. For those who could not read in particular, assisting officials read the questions to them in Pidgin English.

155 samples constitute the contract staff the experience with this group of worker is quite eulogizeable.

However, I intend to use only 100 questionnaires in this research work. Nonetheless, the entire selected sample of 474 respondents will be administered with questionnaires, but, eventually, I shall be making a random selection of 100 questionnaires from the entire sum.

3.15 Instrumentation

The motivational factors and work attitude Questionnaire was used for collecting responses from the subject selected for the study. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on ideas obtained from the work of the questionnaire used for the study consisted of five component parts.

The first parts consisted of questions that make it possible for the bio-data to be collected. This part of the questionnaire was intended to elicit information about the sex, age, and working category and employment duration of the respondents.

The other part of the questionnaire that contained the dependent variables was subdivided into four sections. The first section dealt with familiarity. It contains twelve questions, which were designed to elicit responses from respondents on familiarity dimension and to find out the extent to which this affects their motivation to work.
The second section was made up of nine questions all of which are on concern. The third section on driving force is made up of ten questions. The fourth section on approach to work was made up of eleven questions. There were forty questions on the whole.

3.16 Instrument scoring Scale

The scale of response on the questionnaire was from strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree to Strongly Disagree. The calibrations for the positive items were such that they were scored: 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1. The negatively structured items were scored as follows: 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. The different motivational factors were aggregate and the total for each motivational factor was found. Items on the dependent variables (work approach) were also aggregated and the total computed.

3.17 Validity and Reliability

I adopted a method of checking the validity, reliability and consistency of my instrument and questions by including a few extra questions to those I deemed essential for my study. I used a technique of putting in two roughly equivalent or closely related questions but well separated in the questionnaire. With this, it was possible to measure the consistency of answers. I also adopted the split ballot technique by constructing two parallel forms of questionnaires that I used with equivalent samples of my population.

I was able to determine the effect of different wording of the same questions. The two forms had some of their questions in common, but certain other
questions were worded in different ways in order that the effects of the
differences may be measured. All the end of this exercise, I was able to re-
examine and revise some of the questions and their sequence drawing from the
results of my technique above as well as outside criticisms.

(a) Content validity
In order to ensure that the instrument measures exactly what it is intended to measure,
experts in this area of study were as the pre-test jurors. Their expertise was brought to
bear the questions were relevant, clear and unambiguous. Furthermore, it was to ensure
that the questions had covered all the dimensions of the variables included in the study.
The experts approved the questionnaire used in the study after some modification.

(b) Reliability test
The reliability of the instrument was determined by the responses obtained from 40
respondents who were members of staff of ABB. These 40 respondents were randomly
selected. Since 474 respondents making up 66% of the population of the organisation
was used for the study, the initial 40 respondents who were used for the pre-test were
excluded in the sampling of the 474 respondents used finally for the study.

The split-half method was employed for the reliability test and the correlation
coefficient was established at 0.76. Dividing the questions on the questionnaire
into two halves did the split-half analysis. The old numbered items were used
on the one hand and the even numbered items on the other.
The correlation was done using the data obtained from the odd and even numbered items. The obtained value of 0.79 was then taken as a satisfactory level of reliability, after the correlation coefficient was stepped up to 0.79 using the spearman-Brown formula.

3.18 Pre-testing of the Questionnaire.

Pre-test was carried out to see how the questionnaire would work out and whether changes were necessary before the start of the full-scale study. It afforded me the opportunity of foreseeing the language problem in the questionnaire for the junior grade and therefore led to the modification in language as well as the provision for interpreters to administer the questionnaires when it was finally administered. The people used for the pre-test exercise were similar in grade and characteristics to those who were eventually sampled in the final study.

3.19 Administration of questionnaire

A total of 474 respondents completed and returned the questionnaires. However, 100 filled and returned questionnaires were picked randomly form the bulk for analytical purposes. This is to reduce the workload associated with analysing the heavy data involved. The questionnaires collected from the respondents were used for the analysis.

In designing the questionnaire, I followed the following procedure:

1. Deciding what information should be sought;
2. Deciding what type of questionnaire should be used;
3. First draft of the questionnaire; and
4. Editing the questionnaire and specifying procedures for its use.
Consequently, care was taken to ensure that the information collected on implication of adequate motivation and workers productivity, for example was relevant to the subject under consideration and that the response received to each question was the type elicited.

Herzberg and his research colleagues had put questions to their subjects that required them to state what constituted satisfying or dissatisfying events out of a list of sixteen items. In the end, Herzberg was able to present a list of satisfies and dissatisfies popularly known as his 2 factors Hygiene Theory. This study is closely patterned after the work of Herzberg, and his method has been closely adopted.

Vroom adopted two main models in measuring job satisfaction in his studies. These are the Multiplicative, and the Subtractive. The relationship to motivation, as an amount of an outcome provided, by a work role and the strength of a person. Vroom's model demands the subtraction of scale scored derived from an individual’s reply to questions concerning conditions in his work role (such as the extent he can) from his report concerning the strength of a parallel motivation (the extent he really want to).

This according to vroom would ascertain the level of reward needs (expectations and realities) amongst individual officers, and between levels of officers. Following vroom the attitude questions in the questionnaire attitudes to specific motivational patterns or styles and effect on their productivity towards
the organisation, or some facet thereof. The score for any giver respondent or a
group of them is based on the summation of responses to individual’s
questionnaire items. Finally, the scores were averaged in the various groups
and categories.

In this study, therefore, I have adopted some questions and methods used by
the following: Herzberg and Vroom. In have however modified and combined
them into one study with additional self–drawn questions to make for a valid
and reliable instrument. The end product therefore is mine.

3.20 Statistical Analysis of Data

Two basic simple analytical tools were used in the analysis. Namely, use of simple
percentage and the Chi-Square method of hypothesis testing.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 Analysis of data, representation and results

This chapter analyses the personal data obtained from the respondents that constitute the sample of the study. The population of the study was seven hundred and fourteen (714) staff of the three different company used for the study. See Table 4.0.1.

The sample size was made up of five hundred and eighty (580) unfortunately four hundred and seventy four (474) responded from the three companies. As showed in Table 4.0.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of staff</th>
<th>No of staff</th>
<th>Sampled response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management staff</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent staff</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>74.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract staff</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>61.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>714</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>66.39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.0.1** Respondent population

There were one hundred and forty eight (148) respondents from ABB Nig Ltd, two hundred and eighty one (281) respondents from ABB powerlines, forty five (45) respondents from ABB Electrical system.

These data for the purpose of analysis has been presented in Table 4.0.2. The table typify various responses form the various organisations.
The management, permanent and contract staff are all represented. Hence the first two tables above show the presentation of the respondents in terms of figures. The later part of the presentation will show tables indicating analysis according to hypotheses.

The comprehensive data of the entire staff of the organisations is represented in Table 4.0.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Category of staff</th>
<th>No of staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABB Nig Ltd</td>
<td>Management staff</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Permanent staff</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contract staff</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABB Electrical System</td>
<td>Management staff</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Permanent staff</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contract staff</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABB Powerlines</td>
<td>Management staff</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Permanent staff</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contract staff</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>714</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.0.3 Actual staff strength**
Table 4.0.3 reveals that of the total number of 474 respondents, there were 294 (permanent) experienced staff, which made up 41.2% of the entire population of the three organisation and 155 less experienced (Contract) staff, which made up 21.7%. The entire management staff form 9% of the total population but 3.5% were sample for the research.

This chapter encompasses the presentation of the data that has been gathered via the pre-designed and administered questionnaire, which is the major research tool in this research work. Data will be presented in the form of tables throughout this research work.

However, 100 questionnaires were randomly picked from the returned lot for analysis.

4.1 ANALYSIS OF DATA TABULATION

Q.1. Motivation is important in business.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q.2. It is important that the Chief Executive Officer cooperates with staff.

Table 4.1.2 Question 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.3. Workers put in their best when they are placed on little or no supervision at all.

Table 4.1.3 Question 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.4. It seems that fat salaries are the best tools with which to motivate workers.
Table 4.1.4 Question 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.5 Well-motivated staff has a positive attitude towards work.

Table 4.1.5 Question 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.6. Workers’ welfare should be a paramount issue of concern to top management.

Table 4.1.6 Question 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.7. Hospitals, Staff clubs, Staff quarters etc, are important if a worker must perform well.

Table 4.1.7 Question 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Q.8. Even without motivation, some workers still put in their best.

Table 4.1.8 Question 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.9. Workers will still perform well even if their salary is delayed.

Table 4.1.9 Question 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.10. Only monetary rewards can bring out the best in workers.

Table 4.1.10 Question 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q.11. The organisation of Christmas/Easter/Sallah/End of Year Parties is good and helps to encourage staff performance.

Table 4.1.11 Question 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.12. Inter-Personal relationship between top management and staff should be encouraged.

Table 4.1.12 Question 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.13. Groups that fight for staff welfare within an establishment should be established, promoted and encouraged.

Table 4.1.13 Question 13
Q.14. Recreational facilities are important in every organisation.

Table 4.1.14 Question 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>SA</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21%</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.15. Favouritism on the part of the MD/CEO can contribute too much productivity.

Table 4.1.15 Question 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.16. It is worthwhile to reward good work and excellence.

Table 4.1.16 Question 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q.17. Rewarding good work and excellence can contribute to more excellence and healthy competition.

Table 4.1.17 Question 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.18. Staff work best when working equipment and facilities are adequately provided.

Table 4.1.18 Question 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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Q.19. Receiving credit for work done affects your morale at work.

Table 4.1.19 Question 19

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Q.20. Working attitude is affected by the challenges encountered on the job.

Table 4.1.20 Question 20

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CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Discussion of the Results

This study was intended to investigate whether or not there was a relationship between adequate motivational factors and workers productivity in an Organisation. The variables used to categories the respondents were experience and age. The data generated in this study were analysed and the
findings are discussed under this heading according to the various research questions that were formulated to guide the study.

**Research question one**

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and higher productivity for experienced staff of ABB?

The three motivational factors each revealed no relationship with attitude to work for all experienced staff. This result corroborates the findings of the study conducted by Child, in which the researcher used 448 garment factory workers in Atlanta, Georgia; it was observed that thrust tended to be the most important motivational factor to the respondents.

This was because 54% of all the respondents, rated thrust to be the most important motivational factor that tended to affect their attitude to work. Societal differences between the settings of the two studies, might have been responsible for the two set of motivational factors that were rated as being most important in both studies.

**Research question two**

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and workers productivity for experienced staff in each organisation of ABB?

The three motivational factors all recorded no significant relationships with approach to work among experienced staff of ABB Nig Ltd. This result corroborates the findings of
a study conducted by Morse at the survey Research Centre of the university of Michigan.

580 selected workers from various food factories all over the United States of America were used for the survey on employee morale. The workers were intensively interviewed and according to the report, intrinsic job satisfaction was measures by an index that summarized the answers to four questions, which were:

How well do you like the sort of work you are doing? Does your job give you a chance to do the things you feel you do best? Do you get any feeling of accomplishment from the work you are doing? How do you feel about your work, does it rate as an important job with you?

In the study, employees were grouped into four classes on the basis of job level. The groupings were high-level management, semi-supervisory, varied clerical and repetitious clerical. In the high-level management cadre, most of whom were experienced; only 7% fell into the category of those who had high intrinsic job satisfaction. This was against 41% for those who were doing varied clerical works.

The results suggest that the greater satisfaction found among varied clerical staff were not wholly a function of wages and conditions of work. It was stated in the survey that people derive satisfaction in the expression of their skills, in interesting and challenging work and a sense of accomplishment from the successful performance of tasks.
This part of the report agrees with the findings of this study. On the other hand, the results of this study do not agree with the findings in the survey conducted by Hyme and Katz. In the survey, it was discovered that 68% of the 634 respondents used in the survey agreed with the point that predictors such as money, concern and thrust affect their feelings to work.

This is contrary to the finding of the study, which revealed that there was no significant relationship between adequate motivational factors and work productivity. The findings of this study also do not agree with the findings of a study conducted by Adams. In the study, which was carried out using 823 shoe factory workers in New Orleans, it was discovered that variation in wages affected the productivity and quality of work produced by 68% of the workers. This meant that approach to work was significantly related to familiarity unlike in this study were there was no such significant relationship.

Adams and Jackson also conducted another study using 965 toy factory workers to find out whether wage differentials for various reasons affected workers work quality. Again it was discovered that it did. This was because 79% of the respondents indicated so. This finding however does not corroborate the findings of this study. From the findings of this study, it would appear that the prevailing economic situation in Nigeria does not seem to have significantly affected the relationship between motivational factors and worker behaviour for experienced staff of ABB.

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and workers productivity for experienced staff in each organisation of ABB? (ABB Electrical system)
This result corroborates the findings of a series of studies carried out by Allport. In these series of studies, it was established that in as much as it is possible to predict trends that could lead to confirming behaviour when an individual is acting alone, when that individual becomes part of a group the behaviour becomes more difficult to predict. This may be responsible for the result of this study, which dealt with a group.

In the in-depth analysis of the results obtained from this study, it was observed that the respondents rated concern that is not having a relationship with approach to work higher than both familiarity and driving force.

This result can be said to have a relationship with the path-goal approach to motivation as shown by Tolman. It is stated in this approach that if productivity is perceived as a path to attaining goals, then an individual who is shown some consideration will produce at a higher level. However provided that the pathway is free from blockages.

In addition, this finding tends to tally with Vroom’s assumption of the expectancy theory as states by Koontz. The assumption states that, sense of value varies between individuals at different times and in various places. Furthermore, it says that part of a managers job, is to design an environment for performance, necessarily taking into account the differences that exist in various situations.

By implication, it can be seen that the environment that takes cognisance of consideration, as an important motivational factor will be best suited for the improved worker productivity.
On the other hand, after a thorough review of available literature, Brayfield and Crocket came to the conclusion that there was relatively limited evidence of any appreciable correlation between motivational factors such as consideration and attitude to work. This view runs contrary to the finding of this study in which concern was rated higher than relationship. From the literature reviewed, it would appear that there is a lack of consensus opinion among writers as to the effect of motivational factors on attitude to work.

The findings of this study, agree with those of Anderson and Warkov. In the study, which was conducted using 736 high school teachers all over the United States of America, it was discovered that organizational size tended to affect functional complexity. The respondents however did agree that motivational factors generally did not affect their attitude to work. This was because only 34% said that their attitude to work was primarily determined by motivational factors such as wages.

Another study, which had similar findings with the results of this study, was the study conducted by Andres and Henry. In the study, which used 738 autoworkers as its sample, it was discovered that there was only 36% increase in productivity when wages were increased when management style and the general organizational climate basically remained unchanged.

This means that change in wages and some other motivational factors, did not affect work productivity for majority of the staff. The implication of these findings is that it would appear that other motivational factors other than monetary incentive and
intimacy affect the worker behaviour. This view is also expressed by the outcome of this study.

In another study by Andres it was discovered that the type of organization in which the workers found themselves affected achievement motives and subsequent advancement. Those who found themselves in autocratic oriented organizations tended to have lower achievement motives because according to the study, they felt alienated.

Those who were in “democratic” (this is the common reference language of the administration of the past CEO) oriented organizations tended to have higher achievement motives. This meant that motivational factors affected the approach to work. For this reason, the finding of the Andres study does agree with the findings of this study. Differences in societal values and individual dispositions, which could be affected by society, could be responsible for the difference in results of the two studies.

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and workers productivity for experienced staff in each organisation of ABB? (ABB Powerlines Limited).

This was because the results produced by this study showed that there was no significant relationship between the three motivational factors and manner to work. This result tends to agree with the findings of the study conducted by Aram, Morgan and Esbeck.

This is because among 838 high school teachers who were used for the study in Kentucky, only 42% stated that their orientation to work was affected by such
motivational factors as interpersonal relations with other members of staff. This means that less than half of the respondents agreed that such motivational factors had any role to play on their work productivity.

In spite of the fact that there is no significant relationship between the motivational factors and stance to work, intimacy recorded that highest coefficient of 0.523 among the three motivational factors.

This tends to agree with the findings of a study conducted by Locke and Bryan in which auto factory workers in Detroit were used. It was discovered in the study that majority of the respondents (56%) stated that their attitude to work was more affected by the democratic nature of management which permits participatory decision making more than consideration. This situation could arise because if employees have a sense of belonging, they would tend to be more committed to the attachment of organizational goals.

The findings of the study by Litterer do not corroborate the findings from this study, which state that there is no significant relationship between motivational factors and attitude to work. In the study by Litterer, in which 520 steel factory staff in the United States of America were used, the major finding was that majority of the respondents (83%) stated that consideration tended to affect their attitude to work more than other motivational factors such as intimacy and thrust.
Cultural and economic differences that exist between the two settings where the two studies were carried out may have been responsible for the variation in the two sets of results that were obtained from the studies under focus.

Atkinson submitted in one of his write ups that based on an experiment that was performed in which 698 confectionary factory workers in New Jersey were used, it was discovered that motives, expectancies, fantasies and incentives all tended to affect productivity of individuals in work situations.

This view is however not in agreement with the findings in this study. Certain extraneous factors, which are known, may be responsible for the slight differences in results.

Barker in his study also came up with findings that tended to contradict the findings of this study. In that it was states in the discussion of the study, that the environment from which individuals were drawn and as such from which they have formed their values largely affects their disposition. This may account for the difference in the results that were obtained in this study and those that were carried out in the United States of America, which has a different social and cultural setting.

In the study by Barker, it was discovered that black and white Americans reacted either differently in some cases or at various levels to the issue of introducing or withdrawing motivational factors from work settings. In this study however, there are issues of race differences. The treatment melted on expatiate are in variances to that of Nigerian.
Is there any relationship between motivational factors and workers productivity for experienced staff in each organisation of ABB? (ABB Limited)

The findings of the study as it concerns experienced staff of ABB Nig Ltd reveals that non of the motivational factors was significantly related to worker productivity. It also reveals that consideration is the motivational factor that has the highest coefficient of the three motivational factors.

The finding from this study agrees with the results obtained from another study carried out by Lawler and porter in Detroit. In the study, 350 autoworkers were asked their views regarding management compensation as a motivational factor. Only 32% of the respondents reacted to the fact that it affected worker productivity. The other 68% were either indifferent or reacted negatively.

In another study by Lyons it was discovered that lack of role clarity could lead to a situation where a no significant relationship would emerge between motivational factors and workers productivity. This was the case among pittsbur steel workers who were used for the study. It was discovered that lack of role clarity for newly promoted supervisors tended to make them feel indifferent as regards being motivated to produce improved results.

On the other hands, in a study by Lewicki in which 498 university staff were used in the United States of America, it discovered that most of the respondents who were used for the study (74%) indicated that both cooperative and exploitative relationships tended to
affect their interpersonal relations with their colleagues. This subsequently affected their productivity.

The implication of this, is that organizational climate affected their attitude to work. This finding does not agree with the results obtained in this study. This is because there was no significant relationship between motivational factors and implication to work in this study but in the study conducted by Lewicki, there was a significant relationship between cooperative and exploitative relationships and approach to work.

One other interesting part of the result obtained in this study, was the part that revealed that concern was the motivational factor that had the greatest coefficient of the three motivational factors. This view according to Davis was because employee oriented supervisors tend to get better productivity, motivated staff and create better worker satisfaction. The argument is that the more considerate, supportive or employee oriented the supervisor is, the greater will be the extent to which subordinates will strive to do their jobs well.

Likert also asserts that the supervisor who obtains the highest productivity is usually that one who is supportive, friendly and helpful rather than hostile, in addition to treating people in a sensitive and considerate. These reasons could be the reasons for which the respondents selected concern over and above familiarity and thrust in being the motivational factor that was ranked highest as creating adequate motivation by experienced staff of ABB Nig Ltd.
One reason which might have been responsible for the result obtained from this study is the fact that the economic recession and the slogan from the government about deregulation which became manifest in present Obasanjo democratic tenure since 1999, made it increasingly imperative for Nigerians to look for means of improving their earnings. Economic recessions which bring high rates of inflation in their trail tend to affect salary earners most.

Incidentally, the private organisation workers are less paid when compared to their counterparts in the Oil industries. The desire for ABB workers such as those used in this study to see enhanced earnings, which would be in line with the high inflationary trends in Nigeria, to be one of the major implications of adequate motivation and workers productivity, cannot be ruled out.

Maslow in the hierarchy of needs theory contended that needs is categorized starting with biological needs. In a modern economy, the fulfilments of the basic needs of survival cost money. By implication, the higher the rate of inflation in an economy where wages are relatively constant, the more difficult it becomes for such category of workers to survive. For this reason, chances are that motivational factors such as familiarity, concern will become secondary in determining individual approach to work, when compared to money.

The overall results of this study do not seem to agree with the highlights of the study carried out by kasarda. In that study which was conducted in the United States of America, 750 high school teachers were used. Their views on approach to work and productivity were sort, and it was observed that 63% of the respondents stated that their
approach to work and their productivity was most affected by the extent to which concern was shown them by the school authority and their fellow teachers. Interestingly, 348 of the respondents were teachers who had been teaching for less than ten years.

The over riding factors that may have been responsible for the difference in the results of both studies under focus comparison may be the level of development of the Nigerian and American societies. While the American society is highly developed, the Nigerian society is not.

Furthermore, the standard of living is higher in America than in Nigeria but paradoxically the cost of living as it concerns the basic requirements is higher in Nigeria when the pay structure is taken into consideration. It should be noted that with the level of inflation in Nigeria, money means a lot to the average worker who has no social security to fall back on in the advent of being unemployed.

Another reason that might be responsible for the different results in the two studies is the extended family problem, which Nigerians have to contend with. This problem puts additions financial pressure on the average Nigerian worker. This makes the financial aspect of motivation the most important factor to the Nigerian worker, which may not necessarily be with the American worker.

For this reason, while things like vacations abroad will serve as motivators for the American worker, subsidizing the prices of food stuffs will matter more to
the Nigerian worker, especially the experienced and older ones. This is most likely because of the family responsibilities that rest on them.

**Research Question Three**

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and attitude to work of less experienced staff in ABB?

The finding from this study as it relates to research question three, showed that there are motivational factors in relation to workers productivity for all less experienced staff. The finding of this study corroborates the findings contained in the study conducted by Dachler and Hullin in which 400 auto factory workers were used in Chicago.

The major finding of that study was that 57% of the respondent’s in spite of the recent pay rise they received, indicated that none of motivational factors has no implication on their work productivity. It was observed in this study that in spite of the fact that none of the motivational factors has affected the worker, management concern had a higher coefficient.

In another study by Freeman in which 242 electronic worker were used, it was observed that 73% of all the respondents indicated that familiarity was the motivational factor that most affected their work productivity. Incidentally, the finding does not agree with the finding of this study, which showed that closeness had the lowest coefficient of −0.525. The working environment and may be the nature of business and society may have been responsible for the lack of uniformity in the obtained results.
Research Question four

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and approach to work of less experienced staff in each of the three ABB organisation?

The finding of this research question as it relates to ABB Electrical system agrees with the findings of the studies carried out by George and Bishop. The researchers succeeded in providing evidence to the effect that a positive relationship exists between the amount of consideration shown by supervisors for their subordinates and level productivity in a life insurance company.

Twelve work sections with high productivity and twelve with low productivity were selected for the study. The behaviour of supervisors in these two sets of work sections were assessed by means of interviews with both supervisions and subordinates. The result showed an appreciable difference in the amount of consideration that low and high productivity supervisors showed their subordinates.

The highly productive supervisors were typically characterized as "employee centred." This was because they tended to describe as most important the human relations aspects of the job. On the other hand, the supervisors in charge of low productivity work groups were typically characterized as "production centred." This was because they tended to consider their subordinates primarily as people to get the work done.
In a bid to determine the generality of the finding, George and Bishop carried out a second investigation among railroad workers. The research design was similar, but the setting was different in a number of ways. For instance, the worker studied were manual Labourers instead of clerical employees. In terms of age, the subjects were basically middle aged instead of young people who were just school lever. In addition, the subjects were men instead of girls.

Despite these differences, there was a marked similarity in the results obtained from both studies. This makes the findings from both studies similar to the one in this study. The man in the high productivity group, more frequently described their supervisors as taking personal interest in them, being helpful in training them for better jobs and being less positive than men in low productivity sections.

Another study conducted by Bass, produced findings that were similar to the result of this study. In the study 530 University academic members of staff in the U.S.A. were used. It was discoverer from that study that a correlation of 29 was obtained for consideration on a rank order performance rating. In replications of this study two years later suing 530 non-academic staff, a correlation of 32 was obtained for consideration.

On the other hand, the correlation between performance and driving force in the two studies were –09 and .01 respectively. These results show that both academic and non-academic staffs in American universities rate concern highly as motivational factors that influences approach to work. This is the same
result that this study has produced in spite of the economic, social and cultural differences, which characterized the two different settings in which both studies, were set.

Another view, which supports the finding from this study, is that from Evan who argued that motivational factors such as management/employee relations and interpersonal relations tend to affect both approach to work and productivity.

In another study by Freeman, it was discovered that there was a reduction in productivity because there was some degree of incompatibility between the formal informal organizations. This showed that there was a significant relationship between motivational factors such as concern to work, as is also the case in the study. What the finding in Freeman’s work reveals, is that the various motivational factor could affect productivity either positively or negatively.

It is the positive effects of the various motivational factors on worker that the organisation is supposedly attempting to work on by setting the machinery in motion by reviewing conditions of service on two-year basis including the retirement age of staff. The importance of the effect of adequate motivation factors on worker cannot be over-emphasized whether the issue is looking at it from the psychological, sociological and economic point of view.

The study conducted by Opsahl and Dannette showed that financial compensation tended to highly affect approach to work. This meant that both
familiarity and concern were rated as being motivational factors that affected approach to work of 72% of the 680 workers of a battery company that were used for the study in Indiana, U.S.A. The finding of that study, agree with the finding of the study to the extent that both familiarity and concern are important motivational factors.

The finding from this study however do not seem to agree with the finding from the study conducted by Patchen. It was discovered in the study that 47% of the 630 workers of an air fright company in the U.S.A. indicated that being involved in certain corporate decisions which is under thrust, was more important to them than the kind of treatment they receive form management when they cannot come to work. The totality of all it finding tend to say that there is no consensus as regards which motivational factor should be given prominence of others in terms of bringing about improved worker productivity.

The results of the study as it concerned contract staff of ABB Electrical System, show that there is no relationship between motivational factors and attitude to work. In spite of this result, familiarity recorded the highest coefficient among the three motivational factors in terms of affecting approach to work,

The findings of this study tend to tally with those of a study conducted by Levine and Butler 40 among coal miners in the United States. It was observed from the study in which two methods of assessing approach to work, that more miners (57%) agreed that their approach to work was affected more by group decisions than by management heretics.
This means that motivational factors such as familiarity; concern and driving force did not matter to the miners as motivational factors. The most important factor was peer by Leavtt on the effect of certain communication patterns on group performance among 684 plastic industry worker, showed that 64% of the workers indicated that the direct and indirect patterns of communication between two groups did not produce any significant difference in terms of group performance of tasks presented to them.

From the studies that have been cited, it reveals that fact that placing emphasis on the well known conventional motivational factors may not necessarily produce the desired result among groups at all times Management and indeed employers of labour should recognize the importance of such factor as peer group influence. It is very necessary for the success of management to deal with such informal organizations such as the peer group with the formal organization itself.

Going by the highly democratic nature of corporate organisational staff, it might be a bit difficult to receive an excellent result but then opinion leaders still exist in such company. Such leaders should be effectively used for the benefit of the individual and the organisation. The frequent confrontational attitude of organisation toward such bodies as Union Leader denies the organisation the ability to peacefully resolve a good number of issues which are plaguing ABB in Nigeria.
The findings of some studies however disagree with the finding of this study. An example of one of such studies is the study carried out by Lieberman. In the study, factory workers from and supervisors were made to swap roles. At the end of the study, it was discovered that the group of workers from which ‘temporary supervisors were appointed tended to show a better understanding of work situations and their work performance improve.

This goes to show that a better understanding of motivational factor could lead to an improved approach to work. In this study however, it was discovered that no significant relationship was recorded. It should be noted that there were no manipulations however. The carrying out of such studies using staff of ABB in Nigeria might bring about some interesting and valuable revelations.

The result obtained for Contract staff of ABB Electrical system showed that there was no significant relationship between the motivational factors and approach to work. The finding of this hypothesis conformed to the view expressed by Litwin and Stringer. The view expressed was to the effect that organization climate might not necessarily influence motivation of workers. This is because there has to be an amalgam of motivational factors for there to be a chance of motivational factors affecting approach to work. By implication, none of the motivational factor either in this study or in the views expressed so to make much of an impact on approach to work.

In another study carried out by Macaulay, it was discovered that the nature of contractual obligations did not seem to affect approach to work. This is because there was no significant difference recorded in the work output of
permanent members of staff and part-time staff. This means that non-contractual relations in business do not really play any special role in terms of motivation. This is the dilemma of contract staff of ABB

Mann and Dewnt 45 in their study, which was carried out In the U.S.A. using auto factory workers, discovered that the role of the supervisors affects approach to work and subsequently productivity. This was because supervisor found himself or herself in between satisfying both management and the workers that the workers present some of their actions. The result was that there was low motivation and as such poor attitude to work.

This seems to agree with the results of this study in spite of the characteristics difference of the two setting where both studies were carried out. The relative age similarities of respondent from both studies might have played a role in the outcome of the results. This is because most of the sample of the U.S.A. based study were basically new members of the staff which by implication meant that a sizable number were inexperienced.

A number of other studies show that there is a significant relationship between motivational factors and approach to work. One of such studies is the one carried out by porter et al. In the study in which 624 psychiatric technicians were used all over the United States of America, it was discovered that motivational factors such as concern and familiarity in particular were rated by 69% of the respondents to be responsible for their being satisfied with their job.
On the other hand 73% of such technicians who left their previous jobs attributed their departure to lack of adequate motivation to remain on the jobs. This shows that these categories of workers seem to be sensitive to the use of motivational factors as a means of influencing their approach to work. There is a possibility that the peculiar nature of the profession may be responsible for such an attitude since demand is high. Other studies while came up with contrary results to the ones obtained from this study include those by Freeman and bass.

The results obtained from Contract staff of ABB Power Lines showed that there was a significant relationship between motivational factors and approach to work. In addition, it was revealed that concern was the motivational factor that made the most significant impact on approach to work. The results of this study agree with those of Katzell and Yankelovich.

This is because 52% of the 380 non-supervisory employees in the food processing industry in the United States of American opined that consideration of the needs of the employees was the bridge that linked motivation, productivity and job satisfaction. In another study by Katona and Morgan, it was observed that one of the highest causes of industrial mobility in Michigan was the fact that worker were always in search of work situations in which better working conductions such as automation were given prominence. By implication for certain categories of worker motivational factors are regarded as important factors, which affect approach to work.
The finding of another study by Ronan corroborates the finding of this study. This is because it was reported the study that lack of concern or an inadequate display of concern was the highest cause of resignations among bankers in New York. The study was conducted over a period of ten years. Other issues such as income, familiarity and driving force were rated lower than concern.

The growing and balanced American economy at the time of the study may have played a key role in the outcome of the study under review. This is because the motivational factors, which are highly rated in a buoyant economy, may not necessarily be the factors that would matter in a depressed economy. In Nigeria situation were salaries of employee are fixed.

Another study by Saleh, Lee and Prien however produced a result that does not agree with the result of this study. This is because it was discovered that 263 of the inexperienced nurses who left their jobs did so not because of lack of concern, but because their job schedules were clashing too frequently with their social lives. The information was collected through exit point questionnaires, which the nurses had to fill.

From the cited Literature, it can be seen that a combination of societal values and individual differences determine which motivational factors are most important to certain categories of staff. The Nigerian labour set up is not particularly any different from what obtains globally and as such the issue of which motivational factor is most important for all categories of staff cannot be exclusively discussed.
Experienced staff of ABB produced result that showed that a relationship existed between the motivational factors used in the study and approach to work. It was also observed that familiarity and driving force contributed more to the significant relationship than concern. The result of this study corroborates the result of the study carried out by more. In that study, it was discovered that the ‘unclear’ merit annual increment system adopted by the Pepsi Company in American tended to affect the attitude to work of 61% of the 280 workers who were used for the study.

This meant that the workers were sensitive to wage distribution particular as it affects peers within the work situation. The issues is not whether merit in cerements are justified or not but the fact that a proper and effective channel of communication has to be maintained between the workers and management. This will help to reduce tension in the work place and will help to bring about better understanding between the workers, union and management.

Issues to which worker are sensitive about should always be treated with caution so as to help to bring about improved relations between management and workers. It will also help to bring about better approach to work among staff.

Another study, which produced result that tends to tally with the ones produced in this study, is the study that was conducted by Schefler, Lawler and Hachman. In that study, it was observed that workers approach towards their jobs changed significantly after
participating in the development of pay incentive plans. Samples were drawn from the construction, mining and food industries and on each occasion, the obtained result from the post experiment interviews were the same? This shows that involvement of employees in the decision making process by management would help to create better understanding and improved productivity on the part of staff.

One significant aspect of the findings off this study was the fact that intimacy made the greatest contribution to the significant relationship between the motivational factors and approach to work. This aspect of the result agrees with the observations made by Locke and Bryan. This observation was to the effect that intimacy as motivational factors played a dominant role among 53% of the 680 workers who were used for the study. Majority of the respondents held that view that intimacy was a factor in the formation of specific approach to work. Incidentally, most of the respondents were young and new entrants into the labour market.

From the finding in this study, it was discovered that driving force also contributed to the significant relationship that was observed between the motivational factor and attitude to work. This observation is in agreement with the finding of the study conducted by Hulin. In that study in which 362 high school teachers were used, it was discovered that 57% of the teachers who left the profession over a period of five years, stated that driving force was the least of the motivational factors that was responsible for attrition.

The result of the study may have been influenced by the fact that union participation on the part of staff has not been hampered in any way. In addition the open door policy
maintained in the organisation encouraged staff to seek and obtain answers on issues that concerned them without hindrance. This openness in the nature of management adopted in the organisation helps to reduce suspicion and help to build a good approach to work.

**Research Question Five**

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and approach to work of old members of staff in the entire ABB organisation?

The result obtained from old members of staff, showed that there was no significant relationship between the motivational factors and approach to work. A further breakdown of the result shows that while intimacy and concern did not record significant relationships with approach to work, driving force recorded significant relationship. This result might have been influenced by the age of the respondents who may have felt more concerned about issues that touch on self-respect more than any other factor.

This may have been responsible for the high rating recorded by driving force over intimacy and concern. Kilpatrick, Cummings and Jennings who stated that 62% of the federal civil servants in the U.S.A., who were used for the study, contended that they tended to regard driving force as a good predictor to approach to work support this view. It was reported that all occupations within the civil service structure rated self-determination highly among the elements that define the ideal job.
The general result of the study which showed a non significant relationship between motivational factors and approach to work may have been so because the respondents were not young and for most of them, time was running out in a depressed economy where salaries that are paid to the active labour force is not enough for fulfilling all the financial obligations of workers.

This may have led to a high degree of disenchantment among this category of workers. The point must be made here that for the old, experienced and almost retiring average workers under the present dispensation, there is nothing to be happy about. Save for the total retirement benefit accrue to the staff.

The finding of the study is not corroborating the findings of the study carried out by Student. This is because the batter study revealed that consideration of the view and feeling of workers by supervisors in a meat processing factors in Birmingham, Alabama tended to affect the work group performance of the staff. It was observed that workers who were exposed to better supervisor treatment tended to perform better than those workers who were not treated with much or any consideration. What this means is that it is possible for certain psychological and physiological factors including age, to affect the disposition of the worker as an individual or the member of a group behave towards his work.

**Research Question Six**

Is there any relationship between motivational factors and attitude to work of young members of staff in all the ABB Organisation?
The result obtained for all young members of the staff, showed that there was a significant relationship between the motivational factors and approach to work. It was also observed that intimacy and concern were responsible for the significant relationship.

The finding of this study, agree with those of studies conducted by Moore, Ronna and George and Bishop. The young age factor may have been responsible for the significant result. This is because, for this category of staff, the hope of a brighter occupational and economic future is regarded as the basis for their continued stay on the job. The ever increasing hope for better jobs, no matter how much of an illusion such cases may be tend to make young workers sensitive to the going on within the working environment. The notion that they have join a multinational company play a greater influence.

The continuous comparism that tends to take place between young workers who were mates but now engaged in various fields of endeavour also tends to make such category of workers very sensitive. It is this sensitivity that is translated in the significant relationship that exists between motivational factors and approach to work.

The issue of intimacy being an important motivational factor that contributed significantly to approach to work, this view is supported in the study by Misumi. In that study, an attempt was made to find out motivational predictors and their ranking among Japanese workers in small size enterprises. It was discovered that 51% of the 637 workers who where used for the study, indicated that the intimacy was the predictor that mattered most to them in terms of sustaining good human relationships in the work place. In another study by Misumi and
shirakachi, it was discovered that 47% of the 539 respondents stated that the supervisory behaviour that affected their productivity and morale most was that aspect that touches on intimacy.

Another motivational factor that made an impact on the finding of this study was concern. From the studies of bass, kasarda, it appears that consideration is one motivational factor that transcends any variables that might be used in any study. The fact that it touches on the concept of self-preservation may be responsible for relative general acceptability.

5.1 Test of Hypotheses

A number of hypotheses were stated in chapter one. However, I shall for the sake of simplicity and direction test and proof only two of these hypotheses. Motivation as we have seen from preceding discussions in chapter two is an extremely large subject in human resource management.

The two hypotheses we shall be testing are:

**Hypothesis 1. (Item 1.5.1)**

There is no significant relationship between motivational factors and work productivity for experienced staff of ABB.

**Hypothesis 2. (Item 1.5.4)**

Monetary incentives and rewards exert a stronger influence on workers than any other form of motivational incentives.
We shall employ the Chi-Square ($X^2$) analytical method to analyse and test the hypotheses as stated above.

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(Of - Ef)^2}{Ef}$$

Where $X^2$ = Chi-Square  
Of = Observed frequency  
Ef = Expected frequency  
$\sum$ = Summation (Addicts on sign)

To prove these hypotheses, we shall select relevant questions from the questionnaire following the corresponding data in chapter four.

To prove hypothesis 1: We shall use questions 5 and 8 on the questionnaire. Question 5 states thus: **Well-motivated staffs have a positive attitude towards work.**

Question 8 states thus: **Even without motivation some workers still put in their best.**

The data/figures reached/got by these questions shall be tabulated into a contingency table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1.1 Question 5&8 test of hypotheses contingency table
The next logical step is to calculate \( E_f \) (Expected frequencies) for the already Observed frequencies (\( O_f \)) labelled 1, 2, ..., 10 in an italic formant in the table.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
  \text{UD} & 13 & 3 \\
  \text{D} & 10 & 4 \\
  \text{SD} & 9 & 5 \\
  \text{TOTAL} & 100 & 100 & 200 \\
\end{array}
\]

Calculating the expected frequencies:

\[
\begin{align*}
E_1 &= \frac{79 \times 100}{200} = 39.8 \\
E_4 &= \frac{24 \times 100}{200} = 12 \\
E_7 &= \frac{51 \times 100}{200} = 25.5 \\
E_2 &= \frac{51 \times 100}{200} = 25.5 \\
E_5 &= \frac{30 \times 100}{200} = 15 \\
E_8 &= \frac{16 \times 100}{200} = 8 \\
E_3 &= \frac{16 \times 100}{200} = 8 \\
E_6 &= \frac{79 \times 100}{200} = 39.8 \\
E_{10} &= \frac{30 \times 100}{200} = 15
\end{align*}
\]

Applying the formula

\[
X^2 = \sum \frac{(O_f - E_f)^2}{E_f}
\]

\[
X^2 = \frac{(46 - 39.5)^2}{39.8} + \frac{(22 - 25.5)^2}{25.5} + \frac{(13 - 8)^2}{8} + \frac{(10 - 12)^2}{12} + \frac{(9 - 15)^2}{15} + \frac{(33 - 39.5)^2}{39.8} \\
+ \frac{(29 - 25.5)^2}{25.5} + \frac{(3 - 8)^2}{8} + \frac{(14 - 12)^2}{12} + \frac{(21 - 15)^2}{15}
\]

\[
= 1.07 + 0.48 + 3.13 + 0.33 + 2.40 + 1.07 + 0.48 + 3.13 + 0.33 + 2.40
\]

\[
X^2 = 14.82
\]
The next step is to calculate df (degrees of freedom).  
\[ df = (r - 1) (c - 1) \]
where \( r \) = number of rows and \( c \) = number of columns. Where our contingency table, \( r = 5 \) and \( c = 2 \).  
\[ df = (5 - 1) (2 - 1) \]
\[ = 4 \times 1 \]
\[ = 4. \]

Assuming a 5% level of significance, when \( df = 4 \), the value of \( X^2 \) from the table of critical values = \( 9.49 \).

**DECISION:**

Because the calculated value of \( X^2 \) (14.82) exceeds or is greater than the critical value of \( X^2 \) (9.49), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative, which would state that there is a significant relationship between motivational factors and work productivity for experienced staff of ABB.

This significant relationship is supported by Vroom in his work “work and motivation” (1964) He believed that there is considerable evidence that performance or productivity increases given adequate reward. This underlying belief is hinged on his expectancy theory as it is sometime called. According to him people will be motivated to do certain thing to achieve particular goals. If they know or expect that certain action on their part will help them achieve certain goal.

Further more this assumption support that workers will be motivated to perform a particular task not because of its involving and challenging nature or because
of its ability to grant firm recognition, responsibility and self actualisation as contest by Herzberg (1959) Mergrofor (1960) and Mc Chellan (1961)

Hypothesis 2

For the sake of proving hypothesis 2, we shall consider questions 4 and 10.

Question 4 states thus: **Fat salaries are the best tools with which to motivate workers.**

Question 10 states thus: **Only monetary rewards can bring out the best in workers.**

As it has been already stated, hypothesis two states thus:- **Monetary incentives and rewards exert a stronger influence on workers than any other form of motivational factor.**

Tabulating the data/figures of these questions shall take us to the contingency table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OPTIONS</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>6 1</td>
<td>5 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>28 2</td>
<td>7 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UD</td>
<td>8 3</td>
<td>3 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>22 4</td>
<td>38 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>36 5</td>
<td>47 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Once again, we'll calculate the Expected frequencies (Ef) of the boxes labelled 1,2,3..10.

\[
\begin{align*}
E_1 &= \frac{(11 \times 100)^2}{200} = 5.5 \\
E_5 &= \frac{(83 \times 100)^2}{200} = 41.5 \\
E_9 &= \frac{(60 \times 100)^2}{200} = 30 \\
E_2 &= \frac{(35 \times 100)^2}{200} = 17.5 \\
E_6 &= \frac{(11 \times 100)^2}{200} = 5.5 \\
E_{10} &= \frac{(83 \times 100)^2}{200} = 41.5 \\
E_3 &= \frac{(11 \times 100)^2}{200} = 5.5 \\
E_7 &= \frac{(35 \times 100)^2}{200} = 17.5 \\
E_4 &= \frac{(60 \times 100)}{200} = 30 \\
E_8 &= \frac{(11 \times 100)}{200} = 5.5
\end{align*}
\]

**Applying the formula**
\[
X^2 = \sum \frac{(O_f - E_f)^2}{E_f}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
X^2 &= \frac{(6 - 5.5)^2}{5.5} + \frac{(28 - 17.5)^2}{17.5} + \frac{(8 - 5.5)^2}{5.5} + \frac{(22 - 30)^2}{30} + \frac{(36 - 41.5)^2}{41.5} + \frac{(5 - 5.5)^2}{5.5} + \\
&\frac{(7 - 17.5)^2}{17.5} + \frac{(3 - 5.5)^2}{5.5} + \frac{(38 - 30)^2}{30} + \frac{(43 - 41.5)^2}{41.5}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
= 0.05 + 6.3 + 1.14 + 2.13 + 0.73 + 0.05 + 6.3 + 1.14 + 2.13 + 0.73
\]

\[
X^2 = 20.7
\]

Next, we'll calculate df. Also, \(r = 5\) and \(C = 2\) in contingency table 22... df = (5-1) (2-1) = 4.

Assuming a level of significance of 5% (0.05), when df = 4, the corresponding value of \(X^2\) on the critical table of \(X^2\) values = 9.49.
DECISION:
Because the calculated value of $X^2 (20.7)$ exceeds the critical value of $X^2 (9.49)$, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative. As such, we conclude that monetary incentives and rewards do not exert stronger influence on workers than any other form of motivational factor.

In practice and the basic principle of practical management merit pay has been contended that it does not motivate, it could reinforce high performance extinguished low performance increase instrumentalities, safety needs achieve equity and so forth. The reason it does not work has to do with implementation and the manner of practice that violate the principle. Often performance measures are not valid or accurate. The budget is usually small with out much flexibility. Managers are reluctant to give small raises that are insulting or lower than the cost of living increase. And they don’t want to make enemies or be accused of favoring their friends.

5.2 Summary
In this chapter, an attempt was made to present and interpret the obtained results based on the data collected. It was found that concern was the motivational factor that mattered most, to the majority of the respondents used for the study.

Familiarity was rated second generally for most of the respondents. It was rated over concern in some cases.

The study however revealed the fact that driving force did not carry as much weight as concern and driving force in terms of affecting the approach to work of the respondents.
The study hopes to show the effect of the above stated variables on the behaviour of the workers in ABB. In so doing, this study takes a close look at the organization of the ABB in Nigeria and its performance in terms of the stated objectives. In particular, the study examines the effects of adequate motivational factors other than money in the effective functioning of the organisation and offers suggestions for improvement. Management come and go, but the workers remains and in fact remains always the continuing link and force.

Twenty-five years of ABB establishment in Nigeria plus the notion of the indispensability of the workers. The workers are viewed with suspicion and he or she has to be careful in carrying out his or her duties to avoid being branded a ‘saboteur’ a word that gained currency in the present management.

With these ills gaining grounds in the organisation, an urgent appraisal is needed in order to find a remedy and cure to save the company from collapse if care is not taken. The situation has even become more critical with the advent of different daily negative publication sample is that of February 19 2004 front page “Power and Watch”

The new objective the organisation is to bring the company in Nigeria to a manageable size and conserve funds while on the other hand the exercise is aimed at ‘cleansing’ the organisation. Cleansing it of redundant staff, old and
ineffective worker, and corrupt and undisciplined worker. In the process, it is probable that some of the best crops in the organisation are being removed.

While the system is assumable being overhauled, the system would now appear to have totally lost some of the ‘ingredients’ that made it unique and notable among which is the easy at specking the Nigeria business language.

The union rule demand that a worker who is found to have committed an offence must first be queried and given a chance to defend himself. Thereafter his defence is referred to the human resources (HR) department, which in turn recommends to the management what action should be taken. The HR Department is then required if any disciplinary measure is going to be involved to process the case of the verdict. And where an offence requires an investigation, this is usually carried out before the query stage.

With the new administration, however, these procedures would appear to be unnecessarily ceremonies and so it may be possible in the near future to dismiss a staff by a radio or verbal announcement and the worker might hear it for the first time from such a source just like others would.

Even where a staff have been retired compulsorily not that he or she have committed any offence, such a staff are not given the ‘respect’ or call it ‘benefits’ of having the information before it becomes public. It is my contention that a letter of purpose might have been served and greater satisfaction
achieved. If organisation adopted a method of informing the staff and letting them know that their going should be seen as a sacrifice for the organisation.

CHAPTER SIX

6.3 Lessons From the Study

This study was carried out as a result of the seeming general clamour that there was no real motivational incentive for the staff of ABB, a slogan that was coined and gained currency prior to the change of the former country manager and the general purge of the entire management system.

Hitherto, workers preferred the organisation because of the security of employment. However, the new administration in place purge struck a blow on
the entire strategic positioning of the company stance worldwide. This introduced an element of uncertainty for the old staff, which would appear to have persisted through the years and through the administration of the various succeeding management.

The current general reaction from members of the management concurs and in particular the workers is a lack of faith in the job, a dampened spirit and a feeling of frustration. Under such an atmosphere or with such a frame of mind, workers can certainly not give their best. (Low Productivity)

As if the change of the country manager was not enough, the present management dealt a further blow on the financial management. This is regarded as a threat to the security of the employee status. Two-dimensional approached could be interpreted.

First it affected the security of the wages as the salary that has never be delayed since the introduction of the company in Nigeria has become uncertainty. The application or execution of the stringent measure led to a lower expensing on running cost, which ordinarily favour the management and the share holders.

Under such a parlous financial state of affairs salaries which ordinarily were taken for granted by workers acquired such importance as employee now struggled to survive at the mercy of friends, relations etc. consequently work was occasionally paralysed in few department due these changes.
This study was started and carried out on the premise that money (salary) or financial incentive being a right of the worker is taken for granted and that certain other factors would be need to adequately motivate or satisfy the workers. Such factors include job security, recognition etc. the new element of irregular or nor payment of salaries in the organisation which became current after the study was conceived and started, however, tended to slightly alter the findings of this study with a little tilt towards the importance of financial reward.

This position not withstanding, it was possible to establish the importance of other factors in building the attitude of the workers.

The findings of the study for example indicate that the work security is seen as sacrosanct in the past and the continuous juggling with this security is gradually breeding a new attitude in the workers, resulting in fear, tension, anxiety and frustration with their attendant effect – low productivity. The rate at which workers are changing job is alarming.

Even if the organisation is able to pay salaries regularly, it is not enough to ginger the high spirit expected for effective implementation of the newly introduced programmes. The management will need to pay some attention to these other factor, which the data of this study have shown to be important.

Another important finding of this study is the fact that the workers wants a management or leadership by consultation, but whether the style of leadership
is ‘Tells’, ‘Sells’, ‘Joins’ or ‘Consults’, a feature of such a leadership if it is to command effective followership should have a clear communication channels.

Every human being wants recognition and respect and the ABB employee is no different in fact the worker seems to want and need it more. The findings of this study point to the need for the leaders of the ABB to recognize this. A recognition or appreciation of an effort made or a good job done is likely to produce even better job apart from making a happier and more satisfied worker. But if when the work is well done, it attracts no comment but whereas the slightest mistake is condemned (negative stroking) then the likelihood is that more dissatisfied workers with less zeal or productivity for the job will be produced.

6.4 Overview of the Study and Implication for Management

An attempt has been made in this study to trace the history of the concept of motivation and define the word. Various theories were examined and the experience is that the level of understanding concerning work motivation has increased considerably in the past several decades.

The study suggests that there is a sizeable discrepancy between actual practices of some the more advanced theories of motivation. The reasons for such discrepancy can be traced to differences in organizational setting and culture even Nigeria a peculiar sample. The study also suggests that no one statement about motivation at work can apply at all times or to all circumstances.
The study would tend to show however that the creation of a stimulating, productive and satisfying work environment could be beneficial for both the management and workers if honest concern is shown for all parties involved. It is my belief that the managers have a greater role to play in this arrangement for improvement. One of the most important lessons form this study is perhaps the fact that managers must get personally involved and take active part in managing motivational processes at work, if they really wish to improve performance and productivity.

There is no shorter cut to it than getting the management committed to its success. As a first step, managers at various departments should examine themselves and be clear in their minds what they want, and what their own roles should be in the organizational setting. Furthermore, managers should be sensitive to variation in employee's need, abilities and traits and not applying a blanket treatment, not nepotisms or sectionalism to any.

People are different they differ widely in their education, background, personal attitude and expectation. These differences should be taken into consideration in selecting the best way to motivate subordinates. An approach that is successful with employees who want their work to be challenging and free from close supervision for example will be considerably different from the approach that is equally successful with employees, who want to be told exactly what they are supposed to do each day and who want to avoid responsibility for any mistakes that they make.
Another area of concern is the nature of the job or the work itself. The findings of this study suggest that the management must seek to provide employees with jobs that offer greater challenge, diversity, and opportunities for personal need satisfaction, only few workers may not mind the job. It is also necessary that managers should seek to explain to the employee his role (Job description) a defined schedule of duties.

If the worker does not understand his duty, how can he perform? Understanding his task will increase the likelihood of improving his performance eventually lead to high productivity. Another major area of concern is the work climate. The management should ensure that the climate within the work group is conducive to greater task accomplishment. Personality clashes, distrust and unnecessary wrangling must be removes for effective running of the organisation.

The findings also point to the need for management to monitor the behaviour of their employees on a continuing basis as a deliberate policy and practice, and to use such information as a motivational barometer to identify potential trouble or problem spots. This should not be on abhorring basis rather it should be continuous.

Organisational knowledge and understanding of the behavioural data so provided will place it in a position of strength while dealing with the problems rather than acting out of ignorance and uncertainty. Oloko (1977) in his study of staff at ‘Muddy water’ advocates for a research system where the workers say
what their wants and need are, stressing that it is on the basis of data provided by this type of research that we can begin to lay the foundation for a realistic reward system that will effectively motivate workers to dependably apply productive effort in both private (ABB) and public sectors (Government) of our economy (Nigeria) and society.

It would appear that a key factor in motivating employees is to involve them in the processes aimed at attaining organizational effectiveness because without their co-operation and support a great deal of managerial energy may be wasted.

6.5 Conclusion and Recommendations

This study reveals that the workers motivational processes in ABB have undergone tremendous change since the organisation was established. Some of this change was essential for its growth and to make it adjust to the changing economic and socio-political evolution of the country.

However, the employee in more recent months seems to have undergone a trauma the major traumatic experience is linked with the treat of retrenchment of workers. Reason been due to the new global positioning processes and implementation of same management style establish in Europe in Nigeria as well as the new common practice of organisation castigation of management personnel who are not in any position to defend themselves.
The seeming loss of one of the most cherished and envied hallmarks of the organisation job security and the uncertainties about wages and salaries would appear to have greatly affected the workers morale. Under such a condition, workers cannot give their best and expected return or output from the job. The management would now need to take an urgent step to look into the problem if the employee is to achieve her stated objectives.

Immediate steps should be taken by management to make workers re-establish confidence in the new administrative system so as to restore or raise the morale of the employee. The CEO, in his address to the Senior Management officers of the organisation or 2\textsuperscript{nd} march, 2004 at the farewell dinner programme for the former CEO which I was privileged to be present, gave the assurance that there would be no more pruning of the workers and that workers should co operate to move the organisation forward. It is hoped that this reassurance from the CEO will make the employee more productive.

But this will certainly not be enough solution to the issue of adequate motivation. The level of commitment required of the workers calls for more positive solution. And based on the findings of this study, the following suggestions are offered for the future improvement of the employee welfares:

6.5.1 The management should as a matter of urgency stop the announcement of retrenchment or the company be sold off which are not a result of disciplinary action following a gross misconduct;
6.5.2 In disciplining officers, the sure processes should be followed and the officers should be given a hearing and opportunity to defend any accusations of wrong doing;

6.5.3 The disgraceful manner top management staff is disengage from officer duty should be discourage. They should be allowed to resign their appointment rather than the ongoing redundancy.

6.5.4 There should be more consultation between the management and the managers in the one hand, and the managers and the workers on the other. The use of the internal memo as the channel of resolving crisis or communicating grievances with the staff by the line managers should be discontinued;

6.5.5 Staff development to enhance productivity and promote self fulfilment should be encouraged as a matter of deliberate policy;

6.5.6 The managers should de-emphasize seniority and emphasize merit and hard-work as yardstick for promotion;

6.5.7 There should be a review of the reporting system and reporting staff should be inducted in the act of reporting to make the grading in the reports more uniform;

6.5.8 There should be a searchlight on the leadership style in the organisation and efforts should be made to promote only productive and effective workers. If this is to be achieved, appointment to leadership positions in the organisation should weigh more towards capability of the staff that have attained the basic conditions, rather than on brotherly relationship or god father;
6.5.9 The CEO should establish an adequate motivational Unit in the country whose main function will be to monitor and promote morale-boosting activities in the organisation. Such a Unit should carry out studies on the welfare of the workers compare to similar organisation, and make available their findings a data for planning and implementation of reward system in the organisation in Nigeria;

6.5.10 In deploying workers or assigning responsibilities to them, cognisance should be taken of their expertise, strengths or weaknesses so as to make the job meaningful for the staff and at the same time same enable them achieve greater productivity;

6.5.11 There should be more delegation of power at all levels of the organisation and a more towards decentralization. There is at the moment too much centralization with its attendant problems;

6.5.12 Efforts should also be geared at work enrichment for the staff in the various cadres, and more opportunity for decision-making should be given to supervisors.

6.5.13 There is need to fish out talents for reward to serve as incentive to them, and create an aspiration for others to aim at;

6.5.14 The organisation should encourage initiative and creativity by allowing for some flexibility in application of rules and regulation. Too much rigidity in applying the rules may constitute a set back in the modern growth of the organisation and dampen initiative and creativity.
6.5.15 The management should strive at introducing staff bus; cafeteria building so as to provide better and suitable relax environment, and create a work climate that can promote efficiency and productivity.

Finally, it is believed that if the management makes positive effort at implementing these suggestions, ‘life’ will certainly return to the company and the organisation will regain its cherished traditions. The self-esteem will be heightened and the workers will work with a strong sense of mission and dedication to duty so that they can effectively assist in the management of our scarce resources for the attainment of organisational ‘s policies, objectives and programmes.

6.6 Implications for Further Research

The implications for further research on the implication of adequate motivation on workers productivity in an organisation in practical terms could be made more manifest for the following reasons.

6.6.1 The extension of this study to all the ABB group of company in Nigeria thereby using a larger sample to see if it will replicate the findings of this study.

6.6.2 A comparative study of selected similar organisation employees in terms of determining the implication of adequate motivation on workers in relation to various predictors.

6.6.3 Carrying out a similar study to this, as the post primacy level to find out what the responses would be.
6.6.4 Carrying out a similar study to this using a privately own company to find out what their responses would be.

6.6.5 Carrying out a similar study to this, using other foreign owned organisation to find out whether similar results will be obtained.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a Doctorate Degree Student of St Clements University, Australia. I am carrying out a study on the topic: THE IMPLICATION OF ADEQUATE MOTIVATION ON WORKERS’ PRODUCTIVITY IN AN ORGANISATION.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect relevant data to compliment this research work. Your accurate response and cooperation is highly solicited.

Each data you supply will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you.

PART I

1. Name:.................................................................................................................................
2. Sex: Male [ ] Female[ ]
3. Age:....................................................
4. Qualification:
   Primary [ ]
   W.A.S.C/Equivalent [ ]
   OND [ ]
   BSc/HND [ ]
   MBA/MSc [ ]
5. Staff Category:
   Management [ ]
   Senior [ ]
   Junior [ ]
   Contract [ ]
### PART II

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<th>UD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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</thead>
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<td>1.</td>
<td>Motivation is important in business.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>It is important that the Chief Executive Officer cooperates with Staff.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Workers put in their best when they are placed on little or no supervision at all.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Fat salaries are the best tools with which to motivate workers.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Well-motivated staffs have a positive attitude towards work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Workers’ welfare should be a paramount issue of concern to top management.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Hospitals, staff clubs, staff quarters etc are important if a worker must perform well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Even without motivation, some workers still put in their best.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Workers will still perform well even if their salary is delayed.</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Only monetary rewards can bring out the best in workers.</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>The organisation of Christmas/Easter/Sallah/ End of</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Year Parties is good and helps to encourage staff performance.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Inter-personal relationship between top Management and staff should be encouraged.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Groups that fight for staff welfare within an Establishment should be established, promoted and encouraged.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Recreational facilities are important in every organisation.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Favouritism on the part of the CEO/MD can contribute to much productivity</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>It is worthwhile to reward good work and excellence.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Rewarding good work and excellence can contribute to more excellence and healthy competition.</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Staff work best when working equipment and facilities are adequately provided.</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Receiving credit for work done affects your morale at work.</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>Working attitude is affected by the challenges encountered on the job.</td>
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