UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EFFECTS OF MOTIVATION ON PRODUCTIVITY: THE CASE OF AKIM SOUTH DISTRICT OF GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

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UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

THE EFFECTS OF MOTIVATION ON PRODUCTIVITY: THE CASE OF AKIM SOUTH DISTRICT OF GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

BY

KWABENA DANSO

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

APRIL 2013
DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Name: Kwabena Danso
Candidate's Signature: ........................................      Date:........................................

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Name: Mr. Kankam Boadu
Supervisor's Signature: ...........................................   Date:.....................................
The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of motivation on productivity in Ghana Education Service in the Akim South District of the Ashanti Region. Five research questions guided the study. Quantitative research design was employed. A sample of 160 respondents participated in the study through structured questionnaires, and in-depth interviews. All the respondents were professional teachers from the Asante Akim South District in the Ashanti Region. Sampling was done using the simple and stratified random sampling techniques to select teachers across the selected schools. Data analysis on the other hand was performed using the Statistical Products and Service Solutions (SPSS), version 17 using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Most of the incentives received by the respondents were non-monetary and that the major tangible incentive package available for teacher motivation is salary. In addition, the respondents were dissatisfied with the incentive system and highly demotivated by the incentives because they were non-monetary. It was concluded that teachers are poorly motivated and are dissatisfied with their living and working conditions compared with other professionals. Mass promotion of teachers, lack of career advancement opportunities, poor work environment, inadequate fringe benefits etc for teachers de-motivate teachers for higher productivity. It was recommended that teachers should be actively involved in the design of incentives packages by the GES since they are the beneficiaries of these packages and know best what they need.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was possible because of the support of my supervisor, Mr. Kankam Boadu. I thank him for his advice, guidance and supervision throughout the process of this study. I am particularly grateful for his kindness and patience. I also wish to acknowledge with sincere gratitude many individuals and schools that have helped in making this study possible.
DEDICATION

To my wife, children and family.
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<tr>
<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GES</td>
<td>Ghana Education Service</td>
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<td>GNAT</td>
<td>Ghana National Association of Teacher</td>
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<td>NAGRAT</td>
<td>National Association of Graduate Teachers</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

In almost all over the world, the era of globalisation coupled with stiff competition from business and workers, a clear understanding of human behaviour is an important aspect of management in workplace. In order for managers and workers to work together as an effective and productive unit, the workers must know how to fit into the overall working systems of the organisations. On the other hand, managers must have clear understanding of how they can increase productivity through supporting employees using appropriate organisation strategies and policies.

Besides knowing how human nature dictates an employee’s action, the manager must also be aware of the specific working environment, personalities and motivational forces which drive them. This can be used to determine which actions are necessary to motivate employees for increased productivity. As a result of this, most employers have been prompted to realise human contribution as one of the key factors to an organisation’s success. Thus, employees have been seen as the most valuable assets to enhance productivity which is the hallmark of any business setup or organization (Knight & McCabe, 2003).
Undoubtedly, all levels of employees need some form of satisfaction on their jobs to help improve productivity and as a result, employers have understood why it is important to give prominence to this idea and have also considered what limits an organisation desires to reach. Many are of the view that the objective of an organisation could be achieved through the presence of certain factors. These factors range from favourable working environment, recognition, promotion, and adequate remuneration for employees (Sifleet, 2004).

Certo (2000) postulates that when employees are motivated and they also have the ability, the necessary skills, equipment, supplies and time that enable them to perform better. These efforts, according to Cole (1990), are to improve working conditions so that both management and employees will satisfy their needs. In the light of this, huge sums of money and other resources are spent on fundamental needs of employees, all in an attempt to motivate them to reduce their labour turnover, increase productivity for the business to survive.

Lupton and Bowey (1983) also argue that employers must have levels of reward to attract, motivate and retain the type of employees needed to have an effective organisation. Numerous benefits could be derived when productivity of an organisation increases. As Certo (2000) points out, people will have access to more and better goals and services. Certo further indicates that there is the likelihood of people benefiting. Goods and services will be obtained at lower prices or with lower tax than they otherwise could, and to a generous employer, a strong competitive position will be attained.
It is evident that human resource practitioners are always employing the same old method of motivation and supervisory practices (Mbanefoh, 1982). They tend to forget that people are motivated differently because of the law of individual differences. It would be tempting to think that employee’s objective is a simple one; that is earning of biggest possible salary. Unfortunately, that is not the case as the situation seems but employees are much more realistic about earning potential and seeking equity between what they estimate to be potential i.e. the level of effort they are prepared to suffer and then the earnings (Lewis, Thorn, & Saunders, 2003). Torrington and Hall (1998) on their part are of the view that employees have a number of specific pay objectives to cater for certain things like purchasing power, felt-fairness, relativities and recognition. Employers must therefore take notice as such.

In Ghana, the government has realised the importance attached to increased productivity in both public and private sectors. This has given birth to a number of attempts made to curtail limits on productivity. The Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) governs the relationship between employers and employees, especially on matters concerning industrial relations. Both employers and employees are enlightened on their rights in dealing with each other. This has called for careful consideration on all matters that have bearing on productivity; one of which has been the need to motivate employees to give an output of acceptable quality. This helps to realise the dreams of the organisation which is always central to almost all business activities.
However, more often than not, the most unfortunate incident is that, employees who contribute so much to the success of any business activity have not been given the needed attention as they deserve. Employers adopt various concepts of labour influencing employer-employee relationship and this has portrayed clearly what perception they have about employees. Some employers have been noted for lack of care and attention that employees deserve. Others are usually exploitative, abusive, authoritative, harassing, molesting etc. without taking notice that whatever strategy is in place will attract a corresponding reaction from employees.

As a result of these inadequacies and leadership insensitivities, a whole lot of uncomfortable situations usually arise on the part of employees in the form of mass brain drain across countries. The following issues are also affected as a result of employees’ attitude, performance, employers’ responsibility, corporate image, job satisfaction, organisational and individual commitment, innovation and creativity and in the long run a total stagnation and liquidation. Again, it is common to see employees putting up bad working habits like absenteeism, lateness, pilfering, misappropriation etc. and in some cases industrial action embarked upon by employees to portray their grievances. Those who will often remain in their organisation are also labelled as unproductive or inefficient.

The education system in Ghana has undergone many changes since independence. The last two decades alone have witnessed series of initiatives with the support of some development partners. According to the Ghana Education Service (GES), currently, the teacher demand of the country stands at 270, 000.
The number of teachers on the field now is 190,000, thus the country is in a deficit of 80,000 (GNAT, 2009). While a number of policy reforms and interventions like the capitation grant, school feeding and Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) have improved access to education for the school-age population across the country, instructional quality, student achievement, teacher motivation and retention remain critical challenges. Despite the increase in physical infrastructure (i.e., the number of educational institutions) and improved access to education, the critical issue has always been inadequate resources for the education sectors. Poor teacher motivation and shortage of teachers at all the levels of education is one of the major problems in the sector.

A survey conducted by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) in conjunction with the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT) to determine the rate at which teachers are leaving the profession for other jobs, and the reasons which are storming them to do so revealed that out of 190,000 teachers on the field, 10,000 of them leave annually. The survey further revealed that one-third of them that leave go to the financial institutions and that a few take up study leave with pay, even if they return to teach, they are paid meagre salaries (GNAT, 2009). This clearly depicts the blurred future of the teaching profession in Ghana.

Considering the above background about effect of motivation on productivity, it is therefore worth finding out problems associated with inadequate motivation at workplace with special reference to teachers in Asante Akim South district in the Ashanti Region of Ghana with the sole purpose of
producing quality scholars to serve the nation, but has numerous unfavourable circumstances in the form of strikes and brain drain which usually happens as a result of unmet employees needs.

**Statement of the problem**

Increased productivity is the desire of many employers, but motivating employees who are regarded as one of the ingredients to achieve greater productivity is usually not given the necessary attention in most organisational settings. Many reasons are cited for this insensitive attitude of employers. For example, some management think it is a complete waste of financial resource. Others too are of the view that it is an additional cost of production. To some, the right strategy to adopt is not known. This and many more are the reasons for problems associated with motivation. It is very important to know that the absence of clear understanding of core issues on motivation on the part of management will not only cripple organisational growth but also, the very effort of the government’s attempt to make the educational institution as the engine of economic growth will be retarded.

It is interesting to know that few private institutions have been able to chalk benefits associated with proper employee motivation. This is the result of introduction of comparative higher pay, incentives, a reasonable degree of social interaction at work or in simple terms all the factors that constitute compensation and total reward. One begins to wonder why provision of incentives is abundantly clear that it leads to high productivity yet many a people especially employees
and management do not pay attention to such packages. It still remains a puzzle whether employers in the Ghana Education Service do not know the benefit associated with the provision of incentive packages. It appears that the non-provision of incentives to employers in the Ghana Education Service will lead to massive brain drain to other rewarding sectors of the economy. These issues call for concern hence the study.

**Objectives of the study**

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effect of motivation on productivity in Ghana Education Service. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Explore the type of incentives offered to Junior High Schools teachers in Asante Akim South District of the Ashanti Region of Ghana.
2. Examine the perception of Junior High Schools teachers of the Asante Akim South District on incentive package to teachers.
3. Assess factors that motivate Junior High Schools teachers of the Asante Akim South District.
4. Investigate the effects of motivation on productivity
5. Identify problems associated with motivation of Junior High Schools teachers.
6. Provided recommendation to stakeholders.
Research questions

The study sought to obtain answers to the following research questions based on the specific objectives of the study:

1. What types of incentives are given to Junior High Schools teachers of the Asante Akim South District?
2. What is the perception of teachers about incentive packages?
3. What factors motivate teachers Junior High Schools teachers of the Asante Akim South District?
4. What is the effect of teacher motivation on teacher productivity?
5. What problems are associated with motivation of Junior High School teachers of the Asante Akim South District?

Significance of the study

As studies have revealed, it is critical for teachers to be committed to remain in the classroom in order to improve the quality of education for students, reduce instability of the staff, and decrease the time and cost of recruitment efforts, training and development programs, and retention strategies (Charlotte, 2004). Although research has indicated the factors which cause or motivate a teacher to leave the profession, there is an additional requirement to understand what teachers need or desire in order to feel satisfied with their job and increase the likelihood of productivity due to job commitment.

This study therefore offers the Ghana Education Service, resource practitioners, stakeholders, and policy makers the opportunity to motivate
employees to give out their best so as to increase productivity. It would also bring to light the benefits one can derive from motivating employees to increase productivity. Additionally, it would educate employers on matters of how to understand human nature and to help obtain some information with regard to managing negative attitudes towards motivation for greater productivity. On the academic front, results from the study would add up to the exiting literature on employee motivation especially that regarding teachers.

**Delimitation**

The research on the effect of motivation on productivity should have covered the entire population of teachers in Ashanti Region but the study was limited to only the Ghana Education Service – Asante Akim South District in the Ashanti Region to ensure better coverage and effective work. The study looked at only motivation and its effects on productivity.

**Organisation of the study**

The study is structured into five main chapters. The first chapter provides the introduction. The objectives as well as the research questions of the study are also included in the chapter. The scope of the study is also covered. Chapter Two reviews the related literature to the study.

Chapter Three provides the methodology used to carry out the study. It discusses the study area, research design, research instrument, sampling techniques and methods of analysis. The fourth chapter captures the analysis, presentation and discussion of the findings. Finally, Chapter Five focuses on
summary, conclusions, and recommendation. The chapter summarises the findings of the study and also made recommendations that would help reduce the challenges of employee low productivity.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the opinions that others have on the effect of teacher motivation on productivity. Various views have been gathered by the researcher from books, journals, articles and a host of useful materials to help the researcher have a clear view of the research problem. In other words, under this chapter, a literature review was undertaken that enabled the researcher to demarcate the research problem clearly. The following subsections have been reviewed under this chapter: Definition of motivation; Theories and concept of motivation; Limitations of the theories; Productivity improvement; Job design and job performance; Problems associated with the giving of incentives; and Teacher motivation in Ghana.

Definitions of motivation

Motivation may be referred to as the level of desire of an individual to behave in a certain manner at a certain time. In an organisational context, motivation may refer to the willingness of an individual to respond to organisational requirements in the short run (Boachie-Mensah, 2006). Motivation, according to Armstrong (2003), can be described as goal-directed behaviour.
People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward that satisfies their needs.

Since motivation influences productivity, Allen (1998) advised supervisors to have understanding of what motivates employees to give off their best. Motivation could be defined as a set of energetic forces originating from both within and outside the individual that initiate behaviour, its direction, intensity and duration. This means motivation is about a set of forces that drive people to behave in certain ways. As indicated by Allen (1998), employee motivation is not an easy task as employees respond differently to their organisations practices and their jobs. Allen sees motivation as a set of processes that moves an individual towards a goal and that motivated behaviours are voluntary choices controlled by the individual employees.

Another interesting definition of motivation is seen from Appleby (1980). Appleby defined motivation as the wages, drives and needs of human beings that direct and channel their behaviour. Here, Appleby considers a manager’s task as getting things done through people, therefore expecting them to understand people’s motivation in order to adopt the right strategy to address employees’ needs. However, Cole (1995) described motivation as a term used to describe those processes, both intrinsic and extrinsic, by which individuals seek to satisfy their basic needs, drives and personal goals which trigger human behaviour. Cole (1995) indicates that motivation being defined as both intrinsic and extrinsic concentrates on the process of motivating rather than identifying the triggers. His definition includes the need to satisfy instructive or semi-conscious drives like
hunger, sleep. Cole considers that rational or conscious needs and aspirations like recognition, achievement, self-fulfillment etc are to be given attention by employers.

Skinner and Ivancevich (1992) also defined motivation as that which drives a person’s behaviour towards a goal. It is about the level of effort put forth to pursue a specific goal. Skinner and Ivancevich asserted that reward and punishment are the strategies managers use for motivating employees and even consider motivation as being intrinsic and extrinsic. According to them, employers usually administer extrinsic rewards in the form of praising a committed employee, provision of fringe benefits, recognition. Intrinsic rewards as revealed by Skinner and Ivancevich are self-administered. They include how employees feel about an objective accomplished. Here, attention is being drawn to the fact that behaviour stems from within an individual. The individual makes choices that are directed towards a goal and that which, will help boost the image as well as increase productivity. The manager will in this case understand that individuals have different sets of needs and that what motivates an individual or a group of people might not motivate other people or different group of people. This is as a result of individual differences. It is important to consider the needed characteristic of individual employees before looking at them as a group.

Motivation is the willingness to do something and it is conditioned by this action’s ability to solve some need for the individual. An unsatisfied need creates tension which stimulates drives within the individual. These drives urge individuals to satisfy their goals. A satisfied need leads to a reduction of tension
Decenzo and Robinson (2002) showed that motivated employees are in a state of tension and to relieve this tension employees engage in an activity. They further indicated that the greater the tension the greater the activity to solve their desire. Therefore when employees are seen being serious on an activity, they are driven by a desire to achieve some goal, which they perceive as having value to them.

It can be deduced from all the definitions above that they all have something in common. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are the commonalities. These factors are paramount when talking about motivation and how it is to be approached at the work place. Herzberg (1987) pointed out, intrinsic factors, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement seem to be related to job satisfaction. In Herzberg’ (1987), when those questioned felt good about their work, they attributed these characteristics to themselves.

However, when these same people were dissatisfied, they attributed it to extrinsic factors, such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations and working conditions. To support his argument, Herzberg (1987) said managers must therefore notice that both factors are to be fully considered in order to get employees work to their maximum to increase productivity. Furthermore, mentioned that the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and different from those that lead to job dissatisfaction and that by acting to eliminate factors that can cause job dissatisfaction, one can bring about peace and not motivation.
Theories of motivation

All business establishments are striving to increase productivity through employees’ contribution but as to what should be done to attract employees total commitment to organisational objective has been a bother to many because of the absence of knowledge on this important issue. Some go about it anyhow with others using salary as means of getting employees to increase output. As Certo (2000) pointed out, there is no simple knowledge about motivation and that supervisors need to equip themselves with theories that social scientists have developed. Certo, however, admitted that none of these theories are perfect or have proven explanations of how to get employees to behave in a certain way. But it must however be noted that, they all give supervisors some guidance and even equip them to think of ways to motivate employees.

Motivation theories explain the process of motivating employees and consider individuals attitude towards work. These theories according to Cole (1995) are of two categories; content theories, which focus on the apparent needs, drives and wants of individuals, and the process theories, which concentrate on how individuals make decision about what they perceive to be important to them. Allen (1998) also said content theories have their attention on the assumption that individuals are motivated by the desire to fulfill inner needs, needs that motivate people. On the contrary, process theories according to Allen emphasised on how and why people choose certain behaviours in order to satisfy their goals. Allen further mentioned that these theories focus on external influences or behaviours that people choose to meet their needs. Process theories according to him are
often readily available to supervisors. 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. Taylor (1911) wrote that it is impossible, through any long period of time, to get workmen 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 as influenced by Skinner’s (1974) concept of conditioning the theory that people can be ‘conditioned’ to act in certain ways if they are rewarded for behaving as required.

**Content theories**

**Maslows Hierarchy of Needs**

Maslow (1954) made a comprehensive attempt to classify needs into five main categories. This theory as Maslow proposed is known as needs theory which is best seen as a hierarchy with the most basic need emerging first and the most sophisticated need coming last. What can be deduced from his contribution is that people move up the hierarchy one level at a time with gratified needs loosing their strength and the next level being activated or as basic level needs are satisfied, higher level needs become operative. To buttress this point, it could be said in simple terms that a satisfied need does not become a motivator but the most powerful employee need is the one that has not been satisfied.

Pennington and Edwards (2000) wrote in support of Maslow’s theory and also said that the model is arranged in the following order: Level 1 – Physiological needs as said by Pennington and Edwards are food, water, sleep,
oxygen, warmth, and freedom from pain. These needs according to Maslow are basic human needs that all people should have and according to Allen (1998), organisations can address these needs by paychecks. Level 2 – Safety needs according to Certo (2000), keep individuals free from harm. In other words, they are the desire for security and stability. This according to Certo (2000) might include insurance, medical checkups, and a home in a safe neighbourhood. Level 3 – Social needs include the desire for love, friendship or companionship. People seek to satisfy these needs through sports, teams, parties, and celebrations. To help fulfill social needs employers can show direct concern for employees (Allen, 1998). Level 4 – esteem needs include the need to have the respect for others (prestige), the desire for achievement, for adequacy, for confidence in the face of the world and for independence and freedom, and again the desire for reputation or status defined as respect or esteem from other people, and manifested by recognition, attention, importance or appreciation. For employers to satisfy these needs, they can show employers that their work is very much appreciated.

Level 5 – Self-fulfillment (self-actualisation), the need to develop potentialities and skills to become what one believes one is capable of becoming, that is, a realisation of individuals’ full potential. According to Maslow, when employees are satisfied with all other needs, they will be motivated by self-actualisation needs and will look for meaning to personal growth and will again seek new responsibilities because ‘man is a wanting animal. Thus, unsatisfied need can motivate behaviour and the dominant need is the prime motivator of behaviour. For managers to satisfy employees’ self-actualisation needs, Allen
(1998) proposed that employers should assign tasks that challenge employees mind while drawing on their aptitude and training.

Aldefer’s needs are a modified version of Maslow’s initial idea that individuals have to satisfy lower level needs before moving on to satisfy higher levels. Cole (2004) quoted Aldefer by saying that there are only three sets of needs along a continuum rather than in a hierarchy as proposed by Maslow. These needs according to them are classified as Existence, Relatedness and Growth. This was also supported by Allen (1998) who expanded it and indicated that existence needs are the desire for material and physical well-being which are satisfied with food, water, air, shelter, working condition, pay and fringe benefits. Relatedness on the other hand is the desire to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships that can be established with families, friends, supervisors, subordinates and co-workers. Again, growth needs are the desire to be creative, to make useful and productive contributions and to have opportunities for personal development.

In addition to his assertion, Cole said individuals could move backward and forward along the continuum in order to satisfy each set of needs. To give backing to what Cole indicated, Mullins (2005) wrote that more than one need may be desired at the same time and even concluded that when an employee is frustrated in attempting to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs may reassume more importance. He advised that because Aldefer’s contribution shows that lower-level needs do not have to be satisfied before the higher needs, managers should endeavour to provide other needs that may satisfy employees.
A careful study of Aldefer’s findings revealed that there were some similarities between his research and that of Maslow (Cole, 2004). For example, existence needs correspond to Maslow’s physiological and security needs, the relatedness similar to Maslow’s belonging needs, and growth needs also corresponding to self-actualization needs proposed by Maslow.

![Maslow's needs hierarchy theory](source: Maslow, 1970)

**Figure 1: Maslow’s needs hierarchy theory**

Source: Maslow, 1970

**Limitations of Maslow Theory of Needs**

While a useful guide for assessing the needs of humans, Maslow’s theory has its share of criticisms. While Maslow's hierarchy makes sense from an intuitive standpoint, there is little evidence to support its hierarchical aspect. In fact, there is evidence that contradicts the order of needs specified by the model. For example, some cultures appear to place social needs before any others.
Maslow's hierarchy also has difficulty explaining cases such as the "starving artist" in which a person neglects lower needs in pursuit of higher ones. Also, there is little evidence to suggest that people are motivated to satisfy only one need level at a time, except in situations where there is a conflict between needs (Reid-Cunningham, 2008).

Also, according to Maslow’s model, once a particular need is satisfied, other needs emerge: while food-seeking primarily motivated the chronically hungry man, the chronically gratified man is not motivated by basic needs. Empirical studies show scanty support for the concept of gratification as a direct motivator for human behaviour (Trexler & Schuh, 1964; Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Wofford, 1971; Lawler & Suttle, 1972). Maslow’s theory has only been partially borne out by empirical studies: gratification was supported as an important concept in the motivation of human behaviour, but there was no clear hierarchy or order in which needs appear to become predominant. Studies indicate no support for the gratification mechanism for the emergence of higher-level needs. Two additional studies found evidence to contradict Maslow’s proposition that gratification leads to the prepotency of higher-level needs (Trexler & Schuh, 1964; Wofford, 1971).

Another criticism of Maslow theory is seen by Kuo-Suo (2004). According to Kuo-Suo, Maslow’s esteem and self-actualisation needs are highly personal and individualistic in nature, whereas societies that are collectivistic in nature define esteem and self-actualisation in terms of one’s service to the group,
community, and the whole nation. Therefore, the application of Maslow’s linear approach is limited in cross-cultural settings.

**McGregor’s Theory X and Y**

McGregor’s Theory X & Y considers how managers see themselves in relation to others. McGregor’s concluded that a manager’s view on human nature is based on two sets of assumptions. The first set is basically negative, and it was labeled X; and the second being positive which was also labeled Y (Decuzo & Robbins, 2002). Under Theory X, the manager holds the following assumptions:

1. The average employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will avoid it if they can
2. Because of this dislike of work, employees must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve a desired objective
3. Employees prefer to be directed else they will shirk responsibilities
4. Employees have relatively little ambition but place maximum premium on security above all other factors.

In contrast to what has been discussed above, McGregor listed four assumptions called Theory Y:

1. Employees view work as being natural and they expend their effort as in play or rest
2. Employees will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objective of the organisation.
3. Under proper condition, people learn not only to accept responsibility but also to seek it.

4. Employees are also creative and that any issue on decision making should not be the sole responsibility of those in managerial functions (Mullins, 2005).

Limitations of McGregor’s Theory X and Y

Although McGregor’s Theories X and Y have contributed enormously to the fundamentals of management, there are some weaknesses that cannot be overlooked. Today the theories are seldom used explicitly, largely because the insights provided have been influenced and are incorporated by further generations of management theorists and practitioners. More commonly, workplaces are described as "hard" versus "soft." Taken too literally any such dichotomy including Theory X and Y seems to represent unrealistic extremes. Most employees (and managers) fall somewhere in between these poles. Other critics of Theory X and Theory Y advance that neither of the sets of assumptions on both theories, represent an accurate description of how administrators view people.

It is also claimed that Theory Y is weak because it allegedly weakens the authority of the leader as too much authority is delegated to subordinates. Severe critics refer to Theory Y as "communism" theory (Wofford, 1971). It must be noted however that McGregor’s Theory X and Y are still important terms in the field of management and motivation.
Herzberg Hygiene Theory

Herzberg’s two-factor theory as advanced by authors such as Mullins (2005) and Armstrong (2006) show that employee satisfaction stems from two different sources. According to Mullins and Armstrong, these are hygiene or maintenance factors and motivations or growth factors. Mullins and Armstrong argued that if hygiene factors are available they do not necessarily produce motivation but their absence can create employee dissatisfaction. Examples of these factors are salary, status, job security, working condition, company policy, peer relations and supervision. These are extrinsic to the job and are similar to Maslow’s basic needs as described earlier. The growth factors on the contrary are intrinsic i.e. they are more related to employees feeling of accomplishment or job content rather than the environmental factors or job context. Examples of these factors are: achievement, recognition, advancement, growth possibilities and opportunities. These factors are similar to Maslow’s higher-level needs which in this context help employees to strive to do their best or move employees to superior performance.

Job enrichment is considered as a means of meeting higher level needs in organisations. Therefore to enrich a job, employers can introduce employees to new or more difficult tasks, assign individuals specialised task that enable them to become experts or grant additional authority to employees (Allen, 1998). Certo (2000) in contributing to Hertzberg’s theory asserted that employees are most productive when a combination of desirable hygiene and motivating factors are provided in organisations. Certo (2000) concluded that employers cannot motivate
employees by giving them just increasing pay every year but what matters most is to note that employees will have to be given the opportunity to experience motivating factors such as the ability to learn new skills and to assume responsibility.

In brief, this is to prompt employers that they need to consider a variety of ways to get employees motivated. The motivation-hygiene theory implies that managers must focus their efforts in two areas: ensuring that hygiene factors are sufficient to avoid any employee dissatisfaction, whilst also ensuring that the work is rewarding and challenging enough to motivate employees to work harder.

**Limitations of Herzberg Hygiene Theory**

Herzberg hygiene theory also has its share of criticisms. Critics of Herzberg’s theory argue that the two-factor result is observed because it is natural for people to take credit for satisfaction and to blame dissatisfaction on external factors. This is because people will tend to claim that their own performance and role provides them with satisfaction, whilst blaming any dissatisfaction on factors outside their control, such as salary, managers and colleagues. Furthermore, job satisfaction does not necessarily imply a high level of motivation or productivity.

Also, another weakness is that Herzberg’s methodology was flawed in that the sample size was not representative; so the results cannot be generalised and his conclusions were not representative of even his flawed data. Contrary to what the theory suggests, most people in his sample did not fall into the extremes of orientation towards work he suggested but tended to be on a continuum between
the two. Other weaknesses were that there was no overall measure of satisfaction, inconsistency in the determination of satisfaction and productivity. Also, Herzberg hygiene theory is difficult to apply (Shroff et al., 2007). Despite its weaknesses, Herzberg's theory has been broadly read and its enduring value is that it recognizes that true motivation comes from within a person.

**McClelland’s Three Basic Needs**

McClelland’s Three Basic Needs divide motivation into needs for power, affiliation and needs for achievement. In a popular study, Cole (2004) revealed that everyone appears to have all three needs but in different proportions and that power motivated individuals see almost every situation as an opportunity to seize control or to dominate others. In other words, they like to be in position or status where they can have authority to increase their influence over others than in improving effective work performance. However, Mullins (2005) argued that managers who wish to be effective and successful leaders should exercise the need for power towards organisation and group goals rather than personalising it, which is more of exercising dominance over the people. Pinnington and Edwards (2000) have discussed McClelland’s affiliation theory and indicated that people with high need for affiliation are usually friendly and like to socialize with others and are motivated by being appreciated or accepted by others in the organisation. Pinnington and Edwards argued that employees are most motivated where there is high degree of co-operation or where employers give greater priority to mutual
understanding among the group than a situation where there is competition between individuals.

Pennington and Edward stated again that, people with high need for achievement seek jobs and tasks in which they have personal responsibility and can obtain quick feedback on their progress and attainment. This argument is supported by Millins (2005) and concluded that achievement motivated individuals are usually challenged by opportunities and strive to work harder to achieve a goal without giving attention to money paid to them as an incentive, but to them it serves as a means of gaining feedback on performance.

**Limitations of McClelland’s Three Basic Needs**

There are few but insignificant criticisms on McClelland’s motivational theory. This are usually found in terms of other problems caused by achievement-motivated people especially in leadership positions. Though achievement-motivated people are generally the ones who make things happen and get results, and that this extends to getting results through the organisation of other people and resources, they often demand too much of their staff because they prioritise achieving the goal above the many varied interests and needs of their people, and this if not controlled well will lead to inefficiencies in any organisation (Trexler & Schuh, 1969).
Process theories

Locke’s Goal Theory

Locke’s Goal Theory stated that setting goals for employees lead to greater performance provided the goals are relevant and acceptable to employees. This author according to Mulline (2005) indicated that goal setting is viewed as the most appropriate technique for motivating individuals. Mulline (2005) argued that employees’ effort directed towards a goal as a result of goal difficulty and the extent to which an employee will be committed to achieving it. In addition to this, he said people strive to achieve goals in order to satisfy their emotions and desires. To Mulline, goals guide people’s responses, actions, work-behavior, performance and lead to certain consequences or feedback.

To support what Mullins has indicated, Erez and Zidon (1977) emphasized the need for acceptance of and commitment to goals. Erez and Zidon found that, as long as they are agreed, demanding goals lead to better performance than easy ones. To buttress what Erez and Zidon have said, Erez (1977) also emphasized that feedback must be given the necessary attention. Robertson et al. (1992) in their contribution pointed out that organisational goals inform to achieve particular levels of performance in order to direct and evaluate their actions; while performance feedback as indicated by Erez allows employees to track how well they have done in relation to the goal, so that, if necessary, adjustments in effort, direction or possibly task strategies can be made to enhance productivity. Locke’s goal theory stated that people with difficult goals would perform better...
than those with easier goals. What the theory however warned is that this can best be achieved when:

1. Goals are specific rather than vague
2. Clear time-limits are set for accomplishing objectives
3. Goals are challenging and reachable

According to Locke (1982), the most obvious application of goal theory is in managerial style and that managers ensure that employees accept and remain committed to the goals. This is best achieved when there is atmosphere of trust between managers and subordinates and when supportive supervisory style is used. Non-supportive supervisory styles on the contrary, were found not to motivate employees towards goal achievement. The most important activity according to Pinnington and Edwards (2002) is for managers to give employees support in the form of adequate resources, money, equipment, time and help to increase productivity. Pinnington and Edwards (2002) concluded that goal setting works best when it is combined with good managerial judgement or when both production goals and employees’ developmental goals are given attention.

**Limitations of Locke’s Goal Setting Theory**

Nevertheless, Locke’s goal setting theory has its own share of criticisms. The criticisms were firstly that of goal conflict which arises since individuals has several goals, some of which may be in conflict. For example, working to attain the organisation’s goals could be detrimental to the monetary bonus of a manager if managers are rewarded more for the performance of the people they lead than
for the performance of the overall organisation. Goal conflict undermines performance if it motivates incompatible action tendencies (Locke, Smith, Erez, & Schaffer, 1994). When this occurs, performance will suffer. Also there is the problem of goals and risk which implies that more difficult goals/deadlines can spur riskier behaviors and strategies. Furthermore, personality of the individual can affect the success of whatever goals he/she sets since goal success is largely effected by self-efficacy. Personality thus plays a large role in goal determination and approach.

Adam’s Equity Theory

This considers the perception people have in relation to how they are treated compared with others. This theory states that people will better be motivated if they are treated equitably in comparison with another group of people and de-motivated if they are treated inequitably (Armstrong, 2006). Adams (1965), cited in Pinningtong and Edwards (2000) stated that individuals compare their contribution to the organisational goals and what they receive as return. These contributions according to Pinningtong and Edwards (2000) include effort, skills, training and seniority. Returns on the other hand are pay fringe benefit, recognition, status and promotion. Adam’s equity theory therefore states that employees are not concerned with whatever package they get, but how what they received is compared with what others who are in similar position receive.

To counteract any negative response on the part of employees due to inequity, Jacques (1961) recommended that pay must pass the ‘felt fair’ principle.
To Jacques, employees have standards for what constitute fair payment and that when an individual assesses his or her pay against another employee, that employees pay must be in line with what people believe should be fair rate for that particular job. Armstrong (2006) supports Jacques’ assertion and that it is one of the most common means of determining employee reward and for collective agreement; either between management and trade unions bargaining. Armstrong again said it could be applied in employment contract and for negotiating an individual’s rewards. According to Tyler and Biers (1990), because interpersonal factors are lined to procedural fairness, they advised that the following factors must be given the necessary attention:

1. Employees’ viewpoint must be given maximum consideration
2. Employers’ personal biases towards employees should be suppressed.
3. Applying criteria consistently across employees
4. Provision of early feedback to employees about the outcomes of decisions.
5. Employees should be provided with adequate explanation of any decision made.

The implication of equity theory is that employees are motivated if treated equitably but where the opposite is experienced, there is the likelihood that tension will arise on the part of employees. To reduce any possibility of tension, it is very important for management to strive to address all imbalances in the organisational setting.
Limitations of Adams Equity Theory

Criticisms have however been directed toward both the assumptions and practical application of Equity Theory. Scholars have questioned the simplicity of the model, arguing that a number of demographic and psychological variables affect people's perceptions of fairness and interactions with others. Also, much of the research supporting the basic propositions of equity theory had been conducted in laboratory settings, and thus have questionable applicability to real-world situations (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987). Critics have also argued that people might perceive equity or inequity not only in terms of the specific inputs and outcomes of a relationship, but also in terms of the overarching system that determines those inputs and outputs. Thus, in a business setting, one might feel that his or her compensation is equitable to other employees, but one might view the entire compensation system as unfair (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978).

Skinner’s Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement Theory suggests that people’s behaviour is influenced by the outcome of their past behaviour. Skinner (1971) cited in Certo (2002) maintains that all behaviour is determined to some extent by the rewards or punishments received from previous behaviour, which have the tendency of influencing current actions. In other words, behaviour is largely influenced by external stimuli and that supervisors should concentrate on the relationships between man and the environment. Certo believes that people keep doing things that resulted in an outcome they appreciate, and they avoid doing things that
resulted in an unfavourable outcome and that employers and their supervisors can encourage or discourage any kind of behaviour by the way they respond to it.

To Skinner, a number of strategies could be adopted to attract a desired behaviour. These strategies according to him include positive reinforcement. Some of the positive reinforcers are salary increases, bonus, praise, promotion and freedom from control. These reinforcers are usually provided to encourage workers to produce at a higher level and build good human relations at the workplace. Skinner recommends that this strategy could be provided immediately after an employee performs to satisfaction. Certo says it is the preferred type of behaviour as it increases the likelihood of encouraging higher performance.

Negative reinforcement according to Certo (2000) is one of the ways of discouraging an undesirable behaviour i.e. through responses like criticisms. Cole on his part states that as employers try to influence people’s behaviour, so employees also consider employers response to their contribution to act in a desired manner. For instance if an employee attempts to contribute to a new idea and is met with an unfavourable response then the individual is likely to be discouraged from making further suggestions.

According to Skinner, as reported in Cole (2004), reinforcement theory is not basically concerned with what motivates behaviour or how, and it is not strictly a theory of motivation but it is more of controlling behavior; power over others. Here what he meant was that an employee is affected by the consequence of his own actions at work. For example, when a sales person who performs well is acknowledged for higher sales, the lowest performing sales representative will
receive a prize for rating at the bottom; a form of punishment. Punishment tells a person what to do and what not to do but it does not in any way turn his behaviour in the desired direction. Extinction reinforcement behaviour is not rewarded in any way, but what management does is to adopt a lukewarm attitude i.e. neither saying ‘yes’ nor ‘no’. In simple terms what it means is that a worker receives no answer to his contribution. Here it is assumed that he would quit making suggestions at some point.

Jablonsky and De-Vries (1972) cited in Cole (2004) indicates employers who intend to use reinforcement theory in the work place can use the following guidelines:

1. Desired behaviour should as much as possible be positively reinforced
2. Punishment should not be used as a principal means of achieving an expected outcome.
3. Reinforcement should be provided immediately after the response.
4. Apply positive reinforcement regularly
5. Desired behaviour or performance should be expressed in quantifiable terms.
6. Undesirable behaviour should as far as possible be ignored.
7. Positive and negative factors in the individual’s environment should be assessed.

Cole concludes that the fundamental assumption behind this approach is that, management should be aware that employees are in the workplace to be
controlled but he stressed on the need to create the right condition to promote high performance.

**Limitations of Skinner’s Reinforcement Theory**

The limitations however of skinner’s reinforcement theory cannot be overlooked. Standard definition of behavioural reinforcement has been criticized as circular, since it appears to argue that response strength is increased by reinforcement, and defines reinforcement as something that increases response strength (i.e., response strength is increased by things that increase response strength). However, the correct usage according to Epstein (1982) of reinforcement is that something is a reinforcer because of its effect on behaviour, and not the other way around. It becomes circular if one says that a particular stimulus strengthens behaviour because it is a reinforcer, and does not explain why a stimulus is producing that effect on the behaviour (Epstein, 1982).

**Vroom’s Expectancy Theory**

Expectancy Theory is based on three basic concepts, which must be understood by managers. These concepts according to Vroom (1964) cited in Armstrong (2006) are valence, instrumentality and expectancy. According to him, valence stands for value. Instrumentality on the other hand means the belief that if one does a particular thing it will lead to another. On expectancy, he describes it as the probability that action or effort will lead to an outcome. Vroom’s model further described expectancies based on their strength. Vroom
said maximal strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will be followed by the outcome, while minimal (or zero) strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will not be followed by the outcome.

Kinnard (1998) interpreted Vroom’s theory that, the strength of an employee’s motivation to perform will largely depend on the extent to which he expects the results of his effort to contribute to his expected outcome. Kinnard believes that the expectancies serve as guidelines by which an employee can go about planning to fulfill personal needs. The expectancy model presents managers with a number of clear implications, or how to motivate employees. This means managers should be able to identify rewards valued by each individual by consistently observing their reactions in different situations and by questioning them what actually motivates them, and at what time.

**Productivity improvement**

Gaither (1997) defines productivity as the quantity or volume of major products or service that an organisation provides. Gaither believes that productivity is the amount of work that is produced in an organisation, in terms of how much and how well it is done. Stones and Hague (1980) also define productivity as the function of the output performance of the individual firm compared with other outputs. In other words, productivity indicates the effectiveness of a firm’s overall activities in converting input into output. Decenzo and Robbins (2000) argued that high productivity chalked by an organisation is what makes it thrive, meaning without meeting the targets set by
management, many uncomfortable situations are likely to confront business activities. Decenzo and Robbins indicated that problems in organisation are sure to increase if good products or services are also not offered.

Decenzo and Robbins (2000) showed that so many factors account for higher labour productivity. These factors according to Decenzo and Robbins are capital investment, innovation, learning, and motivation. On capital investment, they advised that employers should provide the latest technologically advanced equipment that will help employees to work smarter but not harder. Again, Decenzo and Robbins touched on innovation, which they believe could be achieved by welcoming ideas from employees who might be endowed with certain ideas which can be tapped by supervisors as Tyler and Bies (1990) proposed. This is because new and creative ideas are the keys to having competitive advantage over competitors. Another important thing to note is that, when employees are involved in matters relating their job, they become very satisfied and stay loyal to their employers (Mulluis, 2005).

Learning on the other hand looks at training issues which in recent times is considered by many employers as very motivating, because of how it exposes employees to different sets of ideas, which in turn equip them with proper skills to be very efficient at work. Decenzo and Robbins (2000) further argued that having all the three factors in place is meaningless unless employee’s attitude to work is turned to the work they are assigned by increasing their morale. To them, productivity is hinged on motivation; therefore, every available means must be pursued to get employees motivated.
Addo (1999) cited Chase and Aquilano (1992) and indicates that introducing incentive plans to motivate employees for greater effort and hence greater output can be encouraged by applying the following techniques:

1. The need to supply new or modern equipment to improve work methods
2. Improving the facilities layout
3. Implementation of effective employee training programme.
4. Promotion of research and development
5. Developing and retaining good quality management and organizational culture.

In addition to what has been discussed above, Addo again cited Delvin (1976) and concluded that for improved productivity in the workplace, employers can establish a procedure time standard and production count for each productive task employees perform. Addo again advised on the need to measure each employee’s performance by comparing to standards set in the organization; but he warned strongly that as employers desire to reach organisational goals and objectives so must employee’s performance be recognised and rewarded. The question to ask is, as so much has been placed on the shoulders of employers to get employees motivated, how can jobs too be designed to increase productivity?

**Job design**

Many writers have considered job design as a means of getting the goals of organisations achieved, and to get employees motivated to enhance productivity. One of these writers is Armstrong, who cited Davis (1996) and
described job design as the function of specifying the work activities of an individual or group in an organisational setting. Armstrong indicated that the objective of this activity is to develop job structures that meet the requirements of the organisation and its technology, and to satisfy the job-holder’s personal and individual requirements. Pennington and Edwards (2000) on their part write that employee’s motivation is concerned with effective design of jobs, and appointing the correct people to do the work. This in simple terms means correctly matching employees with their jobs. These writers are of the view that when this is done, employees see their job as rewarding and satisfying and that idea of forcing, coercing, bribing or tricking employees to work hard to achieve greater productivity will not come to play at all in this sense.

According to Armstrong (2006), the following are the aims of job design:

1. To satisfy the requirements of the organisation for maximum productivity, operational efficiency and for product or service delivery.

2. To satisfy the needs of the employee for interest, challenge and accomplishment.

Armstrong further recommended three conditions for providing intrinsic motivation with regard to job design. First, the individual must have knowledge of the results of his or her work; otherwise, it will be difficult to be emotionally influenced by the outcomes, second, the job must be perceived by employees as requiring them to use their abilities or they must experience responsibility for the results of their contribution to the job done. Third, the employee must experience work as meaningful and not as something unimportant or worthless.
Principles of job design as mentioned by Chase and Aquilano (1995), involves five job characteristics that lead individuals to experience their work as being meaningful, possessing responsibility, and enabling knowledge of results. These five job characteristics are task variety, skill variety, feedback, task identity, and task autonomy. Chase and Aquilano advise that supervisors must adopt the following principles of job design:

**Skill Variety:** To influence skill variety, employers must provide opportunities for people to use a number of skill levels to derive satisfaction.

**Task Variety:** Attempt must be made to give employees optimal variety of task within each job.

**Task identity/significance:** Sets of task should be separated from other sets of tasks by a clear boundary or natural work units must be formed and employers must communicate to employees of the importance of their work.

**Task Autonomy:** This has been described by these authors as the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work. Supervisors must give people responsibility for determining their own working systems.

**Feedback:** To influence feedback, a good relationship must be established and open feedback channels also encouraged. Any feedback provided must be linked up to the job carried out by each individual.

For a complete structure or schedule of jobs, Armstrong (2006) stated that the following approaches to job design can be adopted for employee motivation. In the first place, he recommended job rotation, which is the movement or
switching of employees between jobs involving similar tasks and levels of responsibility. According to him, this is done to reduce monotony and boredom and also creates opportunities to increase employee’s interest. On Job enlargement, he indicated that it is just the allocation of extra task to an existing job, but does not usually involve any extension of responsibility. Again, job enrichment is regarded as “vertical job loading”. To him, this approach involves building motivators like achievement, recognition, job interest etc. into jobs and it is also believed to reduce absenteeism, sickness and other behaviour due to boredom and lack of interest.

Armstrong further recommended self-managing teams or autonomous work groups and high-performance work design as the strategies for intrinsic motivation and for meeting the various motivating characteristics of jobs. On the whole, these strategies allow individuals to seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem solving skills and strive to be creative when confronted with obstacles. As a result, it allows individuals to perform high quality work resulting in increased productivity and for a sustainable competitive advantage.

**Problems associated with giving incentives**

Incentives are one of the most popular and potentially effective forms of benefits available for employees and any organisation at large. Incentive schemes reward those who meet or exceed their targets, and provide a financial or non-financial incentive to encourage hard work. However, while there are numerous
benefits associated with these schemes, there are also significant problems that are created as a result of giving out incentives. Compensation experts suggest a diverse policy that allows managers to use the advantages of a variety of plans while minimising their disadvantages (Ellig, 2007).

Primary amongst these problems is the potential for rifts between employees. If some feel that they are being unfairly treated, this can actually have a negative effect on the productivity of those individuals. Regardless of the increase in productivity achieved by those who are receiving the incentives, this sense of iniquity can reduce the productivity of the lower band of sales people to the extent that you may ultimately see a net loss in sales. Ellig (2007) further backs this point by indicating that such incentive likes” individual incentive plans are known to create friction between management and workers, as the employees seek to maximize profits, whereas the management is concerned about the deteriorating quality “. This in effect unveils some of the problems associated with giving incentives (Haass & Sullivan, 2000).

Secondly, if these schemes are not implemented in a fair and thoughtful way, employees may feel that they are being taken advantage of. For example, administrators should think very carefully if they are considering replacing part of worker’s salary offering with an incentive scheme; employees who don't perform sufficiently well may feel as if they are taking a pay cut if you introduce this sort of arrangement, and this may have a lot of repercussions on the organisation in question. Thirdly, incentives can bring about blackmailing in the workplace as emphasized by Haass and Sullivan who warn that, "The provision of incentives to
curtail offensive behaviour could encourage others to engage in similar activities in the hopes of extracting benefits (Haass & Sullivan, 2000). Moreover, the target group can exploit incentives, creating a "moral hazard," whereby an incentive generates further need for the incentive and the target develops strategies for extracting greater benefits.

Furthermore, the greatest evil that besets incentives like the annual performance bonus according to Sifleet (2004) is its infrequency. It is given yearly, which tends to lessen its usefulness because there are no rewards to motivate the workers through the year. In his book, “Work Measurement and Methods Improvement”, Aft says, “It’s not easy to link it with performance.” The workers focus on what makes them look good in front of their supervisor, instead of targeting profits. For instance, in a school, teachers might focus on maintaining discipline that puts them in limelight, rather than teaching their subject to perfection.

Also, incentives do tend to create entanglement in that they inevitably create invested interests not only within the target group but also the one in charge of recommending who merits an incentive that is the administrator. According to Kohn (1999), an organisation which is accustomed to cash incentive plans suddenly terminates the plan it would create great dissatisfaction among the employees of that organisation. Furthermore, some employees feel robbed or cheated if the cash incentive goes down the next month because they don't know that it is not a mandatory portion of their salary and it is not directly linked to their performance.
In conclusion, incentives do not always guarantee motivation of employees due to the numerous problems associated with it. However, they are a promising but underdeveloped tool for encouraging change, and may help avoid conflict as well as encourage hard work. They are most effective when there are well structured criteria in place for employees that receive incentives and also all employees have equal chance of getting them. Moreover, incentives are most effective when provided incrementally, giving the sender an opportunity to evaluate incremental effectiveness.

**Teacher motivation in Ghana**

Studies have established that pay and benefits, communication motivation, justice and leisure time, all seem to play part to whether employees are satisfied with their jobs or not (Brewer, 2000). However in Ghana, it is widely asserted that low teacher motivation is reflected in deteriorating standards of professional conduct, including serious misbehaviour (in and outside of work), and poor professional performance. Teacher absenteeism is unacceptably high and rising, time on task is low and falling, and teaching practices are characterised by limited effort with heavy reliance on traditional teacher-centred practices.

**Salaries, work and living conditions**

The work and living environment for many teachers is poor, which tends to lower self-esteem and is generally de-motivating. Most of the schools around the country lack basic amenities such as pipe-borne water and electricity, staff
rooms, and toilets. Housing is a major issue for nearly all teachers. For example, in Ghana, the percentage of teachers who are housed increased from only 5 percent in 1988 to 30 per cent in 2012. Its effect was revealed in an interview with, the Gender Coordinator, Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) who declared that sometimes the teachers are posted to certain environments that they find very difficult to integrate themselves. She mentioned particularly that all developments are concentrated in Accra, hence people who live in Accra when they are posted to rural communities find it difficult to live comfortably in such places without internet, electricity, portable water and basic amenities. These poor working conditions coupled with low salaries act to lower morale among teachers and also contributed to the low status of teachers in society (Brewer, 2000).

A survey conducted by GNAT, confirmed that teachers in Ghana generally earn low salaries. Some teachers who participated in that survey reported salaries as low as GH¢74 (US$52) per month. The respondents reported an average monthly salary of GH¢405 (or approximately US$ 287 per month in 2009). The poor working conditions often force teachers to hold multiple jobs which in turn negatively influence the quality of teaching in the classroom. As the working conditions and the status of teachers keep falling, the number of teachers leaving the classrooms for greener pastures rises (GNAT, 2009).

**Empirical review on motivation**

The empirical review of this study covers studies and surveys conducted by other researchers on motivation. On motivation and gender, Bender and
Heywood (2006) reported a negative relationship between motivation and academic women. Their findings are similar to results by Sloane and Ward (2001) who also found a negative relationship although only for women who were under 35 years old, using the general measures of motivation. Bender and Heywood’s (2006) survey conducted among PhD level scientists across academic and non-academic sectors in the United States revealed a negative relationship between motivation and age.

Ellig’s (2007) comparative analytical report in which sixteen countries were involved in a survey on motivation revealed that, regarding the relationship between motivation and people’s education, there seems to be a common trend in the countries included in the survey. The data indicated that the higher the education level, the higher the degree of motivation. Again on motivation and education, Lyodon and Chevalier (2002) were of the view that motivation relied on two hypotheses: firstly, that wages are exogenous in a motivation regression and secondly, that appropriate measures of relative wage can be inferred. In the study, they tested both assumptions using two cohorts of UK University graduates. They found out that controlling for exogeneity the direct wage effect on motivation doubled. Several variables relating to job match quality also impacted on employee motivation. Graduates who get good degrees were highly motivated as do graduates who spend a significant amount of time in job search. Finally, the studies showed that future wage expectations and career aspiration have significant effect on motivation of workers and provide better fit than some ad-hoc measures of relative wages.
Sharma, Mckelvey, Hardy, Epstein and Lomax (2003) studied the motivation of 29 social service workers in an urban child welfare agency using the motivation scale. The motivation scale measures motivation in seven areas of one’s job (i.e. work, supervision, co-worker, pay and promotion, work environment, training and position). Data indicated that the staff was relatively motivated. Again, it was revealed that motivation did not vary by staff position (family worker vs. social workers), and that neither demographic factors nor prior experience are predictors of motivation.

Gigantesco, Picarhi, Chiaia, Balbi and Morosini (2003) reported their studies which involved 196 participants who were clinical mental health staff working in large psychiatric catchment areas in Rome. Most participants were not completely motivated with many aspects of their job. The level of motivation increased with age and it was significantly lowered among hospital-ward staff compared to the outpatient staff.

Albers-Heitner, Lagro-Janssen, Venema, Berghmans, Winkens De Jong and Joore (2010) studied the experience and attitudes of nurse specialists in primary care showed that nurse specialists felt compensated to provide advice and information, offer possible solution and to give attention and guidance to the process of care of people with Urinary Infections (UI). They felt appreciated by patient and felt they offer an added value to the usual care of General Practitioners (GPs). The study again revealed that personal contacts with GPs, availability of enough time, adequate equipment and financial resources are important
preconditions for effective nurse specialist care. Nurses also value continuous education and feedback in daily care for patients with UI.

Motivation has been intrinsically linked to performance. Jones, Jones, Letreille and Sloane (2008) research the relationship between training, motivation and workplace using the British 2004 Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERs). Several measure of performance including absence, quits, financial performance, labour productivity and product quality were analyzed in this research. The research revealed that motivation was positively and significantly associated with the workplace performance on most measures of performance. This confirms the Expectancy Model of motivation which postulates that, performance leads to motivation. Job training (which is likely to lead to job performance) has also been found to be associated positively and significantly with motivation (Pugno & Depedri, 2009).

Judge, Bono, Thoresen and Patton (2001) surveyed motivation and job performance and concluded that there is a positive and significant correlation between motivation and performance. A well motivated worker is likely to have higher job performance which can invariably lead to explaining the positive correlation between motivation and job performance. This can be explained because performance on the job affects self-esteem. The consistency between actual behaviour and self-esteem thus positively enters the determination of motivation.

Pugno and Depedri (2009) survey of empirical results on motivation and job performance however could not make a strong case that motivation and
performance are negatively or positively correlated. The empirical results on motivation and job performance used in the survey showed with negative and positive correlation. Upali and Koichi (2010) study on motivation of some Japanese manufacturing workers identified supportive supervision, co-worker social support and job awareness as three factors that motivate workers. In addition to the significant main effects of supportive supervision and co-worker social support, a significant interaction effect between supportive supervision and job awareness was obtained. This interaction suggests that supportive supervision is very important in motivating workers when workers have low levels of job awareness.

**Summary**

The purpose and objective of literature review in any research work, is to identify and examine the writings that have been made on one’s research topic. It enables the researcher to know the various aspects of a research topic and also, the aspects that adequate research has not been made so far and thus gives a reason and purpose to research into that very aspect that has not been researched. The literature reviewed gives divergent views on motivation and productivity.

This stands to validate the researcher’s interest in determining the level of motivation of teachers. Again, the study stands to test the theories and other dimensions of motivation which have been reviewed to identify their application in the Ghanaian context.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The chapter describes the basic research plan for the study by explaining exactly how the study was conducted. Specifically, the following themes are discussed under the chapter: study area, research design, study population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure, validity and reliability of instruments, ethical issues, and data analysis.

Study area

The area of study is Asante Akim South District in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Asante Akim South District is bounded to the north by Asante Akim North Municipal Assembly, Eastern Region to the east and Amansie East to the west. The district has a population of 96,868 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000) and a professional teacher population of 230 in 2005, 242 in 2006, 258 in 2007, 264 in 2008, and 243 in 2009 (Statistical Data, Asante Akim South District Education Office). The district is one of the most deprived in Ashanti Region in terms of institutional development and road network. The district is selected because it is characterised by poor academic performance and incessant teacher attritions.
Research design

For this study, the cross-sectional design was employed. It is a type of descriptive research that produces a ‘snapshot’ of a population at one or more point in time and concerns with the present status of a phenomenon. Cross-sectional design was used because it is comparatively quick and cheap to conduct and administer. It also enables researchers to identify the proportions of people in particular groups and controls the effects of subjects participating twice (Krejcie & Morgan, 2000).

Although this design has some loopholes such as difficulty in getting respondents to answer questions thoughtfully and honestly, it is considered the best for the study since it deals with interpreting the relationship among variables and describing their relationships (Gay, 1992).

Study population

The target population for this study was made up of professional teachers in Junior High Schools in Asante Akim South District of the Ashanti Region. In all, there were 273 professional teachers in 58 Junior High Schools in the District. The choice of Asante Akim South District is premised on the fact that teachers in Asante Akim South, one of the deprived districts in the country, more often than not complain of lack of incentives as motivational factors in the system resulting in the high rate of teacher attrition in the district.
Sample and sampling procedure

The sample size for the study comprised 160 teachers. In selecting respondents for the study, a sampling frame consisting of a list of 58 Junior High Schools was obtained from the District Education Office at Juaso, the district capital of the Asante Akim South District with a total of 273 professional teachers. All the 58 Junior High Schools were included (census) in the study due to their small size.

To get the sample size for the teachers, a simple random sampling technique using a table of random numbers generated from Microsoft Excel was employed. Through this method, the list of all JHS in the District was obtained from the Asante Akim South District Directorate of Education. This was followed by a list of all teachers in the 58 schools in the District. The next step involved proportional allocation of the sample size among the 58 JHS such that schools with larger population got large sample size whilst schools with smaller population got small sample size. Finally, simple random technique using random numbers generated from Microsoft Excel was employed to select the sample size of 160 teachers. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), for a population of 273, the required sample size to be selected could be 160. This informed the selection of the 160 teachers out of 273 teachers for the study.

Research instrument

The main data collection instrument was the questionnaire. The researcher considered the self-completion of the questionnaire for the fact that, respondents
are teachers hence were be able to read, understand, and complete the questionnaire without the assistance of the researcher. The questionnaire was also constructed in a very simple grammatical construction for easy understanding and completion. It was distributed to respondents at their workplace. The questions were basically in likert scale form. Furthermore, the questionnaire contained both closed and open-ended items though just a few were in open-ended to make data analysis easy.

To make the completion of the questionnaire easy for respondents, it was structured into six parts each part asking question in relation to the research questions. However, the top of the questionnaire contained the project title and confirmed the objectives of the research to respondents. The first part asked questions on personal characteristics of the respondents such as age, gender etc. The second section tackled questions in relation to the perception teachers hold towards incentives. The third part of the questionnaire examined factors that motivate teachers, while the fourth section assessed how motivation affects teachers’ productivity by examining the relationship between motivation and productivity. The final part of the questionnaire centered on the problem associated with the giving of incentives. The questionnaire ended up by expressing appreciation to respondents showing how appreciative the researcher is by spending their busy schedules to respond to the study.
Validity and reliability

An instrument is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure and accurately achieves the purpose for which it was designed (Patten, 2004; Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). Patten (2004) emphasizes that validity is a matter of degree and discussion should focus on how valid a test is, not whether it is valid or not. According to Patten (2004), no test instrument is perfectly valid. The researcher needs some kind of assurance that the instrument being used will result in accurate conclusions (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). These issues were addressed when designing the questionnaire and interview guide. To provide additional content validity of the survey instrument, the researcher formed a focus group of five teachers who provided input and suggestive feedback on the items. Comments from the focus group indicated that the skills listed in the survey were basic/intermediate skills and were appropriate for all teachers to know and be able to do. Some members of the focus group suggested that the survey might be a bit long and that skills could be generalized and consolidated for a more concise survey.

Thus, as part of examining and evaluating the validity and reliability of the questions on the survey instruments, a pilot study was conducted with a small group of teachers from the Juaso Presbyterian JHS in the Asante Akim South District. Conducting a local pilot study allowed the researcher to ask participants for suggestive feedback on the survey and also helped eliminate author bias. Once the pilot survey had been modified as per the teachers’ feedback, the survey instruments were administered.
The internal consistency of the items on the questionnaire was also examined using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. The coefficient alpha of all dimensions in the pre-tested questionnaire was 0.89, an indication that all items in the questionnaire met reasonable standards of internal consistency and reliability as indicated by Nunnally (1970).

**Ethical issues**

McNamara (1994) identifies five ethical concerns to be considered when conducting survey research. These guidelines deal with voluntary participation, no harm to respondents and, anonymity and confidentiality. Each of this guideline was addressed individually with explanations to help eliminate or control any ethical concerns. In other words, to avoid possible harm to respondents, the questionnaire did not include sensitive questions that could cause embarrassment or uncomfortable feelings. The researcher also ensured that respondents’ identity was also protected. This was accomplished by exercising anonymity and confidentiality. A survey is anonymous when a respondent cannot be identified on the basis of a response. A survey is confidential when a response can be identified with a subject, but the researcher promises not to disclose the individual’s identity.

As part of the ethical issues for the research, the researcher made all the prospective respondents know the purpose of the survey and the institution from which the researcher is from. The purpose of the study was provided in the cover letter to the questionnaire indicating a need to identify the effect of motivation on
teachers’ productivity. The questionnaire also explained that the results of the study would be used in a dissertation as partial fulfillment for a master’s degree.

**Data collection procedure**

Each school was contacted separately to arrange the appropriate time to administer the questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents between 1st and 15th September, 2011. The researcher distributed the questionnaires in person in all the schools. This was done in order to (a) explain the goals of the study; (b) direct the teachers’ and students’ attention to their rights during the course of the study; (c) clarify the instructions for answering; and (d) obtain a good responses rate and more accurate data.

The questionnaires were distributed and retrieved that same day in order to ensure validity of the questionnaires. In order to ensure successful collection and sorting of the questionnaires, each questionnaire was given a serial number according to the separate schools.

**Field challenges**

Some of the respondents did not take their time to read the items carefully before completing the copies of the questionnaires. Some respondents also did not follow the instructions. Also, due to the fact that the schools were not located at one place, the researcher had to walk distances to some of the school to establish rapport to administer the questionnaires.
Data analysis

The questionnaire was, pre-coded before administration on the field. In order to obtain quality data, responses were cross-checked on the field. Thus the responses were filtered and cleansed to avoid discrepancies and inconsistencies so as to ensure quality data. However, in handling the open-ended questions, the responses to such questions were categorized into similar themes after which those themes were coded before inputting into the computer programme. The statistical programme used for the analysis was the Statistical Products and Service Solutions (SPSS), version 16 and Microsoft Excel

As part of the data cleansing and editing after inputting the data into to SPSS, descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were calculated to check for data validity. Survey results were measured by category. There were four categories (subscales), representing the five dependent variables. The code for all survey items in the same category were summed together for a composite score per category. This category composite score was used for statistical analysis. Item analysis was conducted to determine the internal consistency and reliability of each individual item as well as each subscale. Cronbach’s Alpha test was also used to calculate internal reliability. Inferential statistics were used to reach conclusions and make generalizations about the characteristics of populations based on data collected from the sample. Correlation, and ANOVA were used to examine significant differences between the motivation and productivity, teachers’ perception of the working environment when grouped by,
gender, or years of teaching experience. The statistical procedures and tests were performed at a 5 percent significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$).
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results that were gathered from the field as well as the implications of the findings obtained. The chapter is organised into two broad sections. The first section discusses the demographic or personal information of respondents, while the second section presents answers to the five research questions which the study sought to answer. In other words, how each research question has been tackled is presented and discussed under this chapter.

The findings gathered from the study are discussed in relation to the empirical and theories reviewed in Chapter Two. Specifically, the types of incentives offered to teachers, the perception of teachers about the incentives, factors that tend to motivate teachers, the relationship between teacher motivation and teacher productivity, as well as the problems associated with the giving out of incentives are discussed in this chapter.

Demographic characteristics

Under the demographic data, variables such as age, gender, educational qualification as well as the length of service with the Ghana Education Service (GES) of respondents are vividly discussed. These variables have been included to help the study relate, determine and perform some associations and
relationships on their effects on teachers’ motivation. Variables like, marital status and religious affiliation which are often included in most social sciences research have been exempted from this study because they researcher considered them to be less relevant to the study. The frequencies procedure was used for analysing the categorical variables; gender, educational qualification, length of service with GES, while descriptive procedure was used for analysing the continuous variable, age.

**Sex of respondents**

As indicated from above, the Sex of respondents have been included and analysed. The results are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1: Sex of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2010

In Table 1, it is observed that of the 160 teachers who responded to study, 52.5 percent were males. Though over fifty percent of the respondents were males, it is also observed that, quite significant proportions of 76 (47.5%) of the respondents were females. In other words, it is deduced from the gender distribution of respondents that, the number of males exceed the females in the
Ghana Education Service unlike in other professions where it is common to find males significantly dominating females.

**Age distribution of respondents**

The second demographic variable of respondents analysed was age. The findings revealed that the average age among the respondents was 33 years. In other words, the least age identified among respondents was 21 years, whereas the maximum age was 60 years. Recoding of the age of respondents showed that, over 50 percent aged 30 and below. Though the maximum age identified was 60, only one respondent was found aged 60 years which means such a respondent could probably be in his pension year, otherwise there is the possibility of having teachers who have passed their pension and are still in the service. Figure 2 shows the graphical age distribution of respondents.

It can therefore be deduced from the age distribution of respondents that, most respondents are in their youthful ages which is critical to a productive working force.
Figure 2: Age distribution of respondents

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Educational qualification

Regarding the educational background of the respondents, 66(41.2%) had a Diploma while 58(36.2%) had a Teachers’ Certificate “A”. Also, 32(20.0%) were First Degree holders with 4(2.5%) having other educational qualifications.
such as Senior High School (SHS) certificates. It is interesting to notice that, none of the respondents held a Second Degree or better. To be recognised as a trained teacher in Ghana, the individual must have attained the minimum certificate in teaching usually referred to as ‘Teachers’ Certificate A’. From the analysis, it can be deduced that almost all the teachers had a minimum of a teacher’s certificate. Despite that majority of the respondents had the minimum qualification to be a teacher, a very large proportion (77.4%) held qualifications lesser than a degree.

Table 2: Relationship between educational background and sex of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Cert ‘A’</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within qualification</td>
<td>44.8%</td>
<td>55.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within qualification</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
<td>56.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within qualification</td>
<td>81.2%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within qualification</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within qualification</td>
<td>52.5%</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2010
From Table 2, it is realised that over fifty percent (55.2%) of respondents who held Teachers’ Certificate ‘A’ (55.2%) were females. This was similar to 56.1 percent who held Diploma educational qualification who were also females. In the column for Graduate for example, it is also observed that, 81.2 percent of the respondents are males. In other words, of the 32 respondents who are graduates, only 6 representing 18.8 percent were females. It is therefore inferred from the results above that, male respondents seem to have a higher educational qualification than that of the females. This could partially be attributed to the maternal features of females limiting them to have equal advancement opportunities like males.

**Religious affiliation of respondents**

Table 3 shows the religious affiliation of respondents. It indicates that the respondents belong to different religion.

**Table 3: Religious affiliation of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork, 2010
The breakdown was as follows: Christianity 105 (65.6%), Islamic 53 (33.1%), and Traditional 2 (1.3%). This shows that majority of the respondents were Christians, followed by Muslims with the Traditionalists forming the minority group in the study area.

**Marital status of respondents**

The researcher also gathered information on the marital status of the respondents. The outcome of their views is presented in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result from Table 4 indicates that 121 (75.6%) respondents were married while 36 (22.5%) were single. It also shows that 2 (1.3%) had divorced.
Length of teaching

The maximum length of service of respondents as obtained from the data gathered was 37 years, while the minimum was less than a year. However, the average length of service obtained was 8 years. Recoding of the length of service of respondents showed that over fifty percent (53.1%) have worked with the GES for less than 5 years. Figure 3 shows the distribution on the length of service of respondents in the GES.

![Figure 3: Length of service with GES](source: Field Survey, 2010)

Types of incentives given to teachers

This section of the chapter tackles research question one; what types of incentives are given to JHS teachers? As part of answering the research question,
the conditions under which respondents work was evaluated since the work environment is an important determining factor of teacher motivation by asking them to rate how they perceived working conditions in the Ghana Education Service on a five point-scale; Very Satisfactory, Satisfactory, Unsatisfactory and Indifferent.

Out of the 160 respondents, 115(71.8%) rated the working conditions in GES as ‘Unsatisfactory’, while 42 (26.2%) rated the conditions as ‘Satisfactory’. Of the remaining three respondents, two were indifferent with the working conditions, while one rated the conditions as ‘Very Satisfactory’. The findings on the conditions of service implied that a significant number of the respondents were not satisfied with the working conditions provided by the GES. This result is similar to Brewer’s (2000) view that the work and living environment for many teachers is poor, which tends to lower self-esteem and is generally de-motivating. Also, the findings support GNAT (2009) view that despite the increase in physical infrastructure (i.e. number of educational institutions), the critical issues has always been inadequate resources for the education sector with the poor teacher motivation (conditions of service).

Further analysis performed using the chi-square test of independence to determine if the satisfaction level of respondent on the working conditions in GES is dependent on their educational qualification revealed that there is no significant relationship between the two variables. In other words, the educational background of respondents does not have any effect on their perception about the conditions of service. The possible implication of this finding is that, staff are
exposed to the same working environment despite their educational background hence it is likely for them to rate the conditions of service in a similar manner as indicated by the findings.

Considering Cole’s (1995) definition of motivation as both intrinsic and extrinsic reward and the fact that a lot of factors go into motivation, the study examined if respondents have received any incentive package. It is interesting to note that, out of the 160 respondents, 142 (89.0%) indicated not to have received any incentive package from the GES, while only 18 (11.0%) had received an incentive. Thus, a significant number of respondents had not received any incentive package from the GES. This is an indication that employees who contribute so much to the success of GES have not been given the needed attention as they deserve. This is not the best since in the view of Ellig (2007), incentives are one of the most popular and potentially effective forms of benefits available for employees, and one of the critical determinants of an employee’s performance/productivity.

To further support this finding, the study examined if there is any correlation between having received an incentive package and years of working with GES. Table 5 shows the output of the Pearson correlation analysis.
Table 5: Correlation between having received incentive package and years of teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yrs. of Teaching</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Received any incentive</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig(2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td>.456</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$r^2 = 0.21$ OR 21%

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Table 5 shows that there is a moderate significant positive correlation ($r = .456, p = .000$) between having received an incentive package and years of teaching with GES. The implication of the above findings is that, the longer respondents stayed and worked with the GES, there is the likelihood of receiving an incentive package. In other words, it could be stated that, one of the factors which probably influences the receiving of an incentive by a teacher in the GES is the number of years of working with GES. This result is further supported by the earlier findings on the length of service of respondents where over 50 percent have a working period of less than five years in GES. That is to say probably, most of the respondents have not received any incentive package due to their short period of serving with GES.

Attempts were also made to find out the type of incentive packages respondents have received from GES. Of the 18 respondents who had received some form of incentive, more than 70 percent (76.5%) received intangible incentives, while just a few proportions (23.5%) have received tangible
incentives. Thus it can be said that, most of the incentives received by respondents were in non-monetary form and that, the major tangible incentive package is salary.

The frequency of giving an incentive package to employees should be based on the achievement of a goal across a specific point in time. Responses gathered showed that, incentive packages are not given out on regular basis.

**Perception of teachers towards incentives**

From management theory, all incentives given should be appreciated by the person receiving the incentive; hence there was the need to find out whether respondents really appreciated the incentive packages given to them as teachers. Thus, this section of the chapter has been devoted for research question two; what is the perception of teachers towards incentives. Results obtained indicated that almost all, 15(83.3%) of the 18 respondents who have received some form of incentives did not appreciate the incentives.

This is an indication that the GES is probably employing the same old methods of motivation which have probably lost value in the sight of employees. According to the Mbanefoh (1982), it is evident that human resource practitioners are always employing the same old method of motivation and supervisory practices. This implied that GES does not have levels of reward to attract, motivate and retain the type of employees needed to have an effective organisation as indicated by Lupton and Bowey (1983). Also, majority of the respondents not appreciating the incentives further implied that the rewards did
not satisfy their needs. According to Armstrong (2003), people are motivated when they receive rewards that satisfy their needs.

However, to further find out the perception of respondents on the incentives packages being received, the study examined if there is any relationship between the type of incentive received and the perception attached to the incentives using the chi-square test of independence. In other words, would the perception of respondents who received tangible incentives differ from those who received intangible incentives? Interestingly, the chi-square result shows a significant relationship. Table 6 shows the results.

Table 6: Relationship between type of incentive and appreciation of the incentive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Incentive</th>
<th>Tangible</th>
<th>Intangible</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appreciation of incentives</td>
<td>Yes Count 3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expt Count</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within do you appreciate the int</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expt Count</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within do you appreciate the incentives</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>86.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expt Count</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%within do u appreciate the int</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
<td>72.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2010
From Table 6, it is observed that, the proportion of respondents who did not appreciate the incentive and have received intangible incentives were 86.7 percent. This was different from those who did not appreciate the incentive and received tangible incentives (13.3%). A similar distribution of the result is seen for those who appreciate the incentive. It is therefore appropriate for the researcher to conclude that, respondents who received intangible incentives were more likely not to appreciate the incentives than those who received tangible. This result is statistically supported by the output of the chi-square analysis ($\chi^2=9.36, p= .000$) and that there is a statistically significant relationship between the type of incentive respondents received and their perception on the incentive.

This finding supports Mbanefoh’s (1982) view that practising teachers are particularly concerned about the late payment of salaries and the non-payment of fringe benefits rather than other non-monetary incentives. It can be deduced from the chi-square output above in Table 6 that probably respondents are not often extensively involved in designing their incentive packages which is very crucial to the acceptance of the package; the end user must always be in the known of the type of incentive.

The researcher was further interested in obtaining the general perception of respondents on the incentive package of GES. As part of this, respondents were asked to rate the packages on a four-point scale; Excellent, Very Good, Good, and Poor. Surprisingly, of the 160 respondents, 124(77.5%) rated the incentives as Poor whereas 28(17.5%) rated it as Good. It is interesting to note that only one
respondent rated the incentives as Excellent. Figure 4 shows the graphical display of the rating.

![Graph showing the general perception of respondents on incentive packages](image)

**Figure 4: General perception of respondents on incentive packages**

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Additionally, it can also be concluded that most respondents did not appreciate the incentive packages given because the packages are not monetary. This goes in line with Taylor’s (1911) theory that workers are motivated mainly by pay, since majority did not appreciate the rewards given to them because they are not in monetary terms. This also puts into doubt Mayo’s (1949) views that workers are not just concerned with money but could be better motivated by having their social needs met whilst at work. To test Taylor’s theory therefore respondents were asked what they suggest could help teachers work harder and achieve their objectives. Their responses are presented in Table 7.
Table 7: Suggestions on motivation to work hard and objectives of GES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Salaries</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotions</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praises</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good working conditions</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>80.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>160</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2010

The responses from the respondents suggest that top on their priority was the need for GES to create a good working condition for its staff. Followed closely were the views of high salaries and promotions. The above responses suggest that although monetary rewards play a major role in motivating staff at the GES, it does play a significant role in achieving the objective of respondents when compared to the good working conditions suggested by majority of the respondents. This therefore suggests that Taylor’s (1911) view may not entirely hold in this scenario but rather Mayo’s (1949) theory of social satisfaction such as good working condition is very paramount.

Factors that motivate teachers for a higher productivity

Employee motivation is a major factor in the success or failure of any organisation. Without a motivated workforce, productivity suffers. Different items motivate individuals and teams separately. This chapter examines available
evidence about key determinants of motivation among teachers and the strategies used in motivating teachers. With increasing emphasis on teacher accountability (Ingvarson, 2002), it is important that teachers are not just produced into the teaching profession but also given the necessary materials to effectively produce a higher output. In view of this, five variables were included in the study for respondents to rank those that will most motivate them for a higher output and productivity. This included; promotion, career development, best teacher award, adequate teaching and learning materials, and increased remunerations. Table 8 shows the manner in which respondents have ranked the five items.

**Table 8: Ranking of motivating factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Development</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best Teacher Awards</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate teaching &amp; learning materials</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase Remuneration</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2010

A critical analysis of the results in Table 8 showed that, ‘Career Development’ will motivate respondents the most. In other words, career development is ranked as the most motivating factor among the five variables. This supports Decenzo and Robbins’ (2000) view that training issues in recent
times is considered by many employers as very motivating, because of how it exposes employees to different sets of ideas, which in turn equip them with proper skills to be very efficient at work.

‘Increase Remuneration’ is ranked as the second motivating factor. It is important to indicate here that ‘Best Teacher Award’ is ranked as the least motivating factor among the five variables. According to GNAT (2010), a few proportional of the teacher population in Ghana takes up study leave with pay. The above ranking therefore means that, if teachers are effectively and adequately equipped with modern methodology of teaching by creating the opportunities for teachers to undertake further studies with pay, teachers are more likely to be highly motivated.

It must be indicated here again that, the fact that increased remuneration was ranked as the second motivating factor and not the first implies that, even though money has been considered as a motivating factor, it is not a very significant motivating factor. This supports Certo’s (2000) view that employers cannot motivate employees by giving them just increasing pay every year but what matters most is to note that employees will have to be given the opportunity to experience motivating factors such as the ability to learn new skills.

The least ranking of the best teacher awards could mean that, the process of selecting teachers for the award is either not transparent and that teachers who are equally qualified for the award are not given the nod. It can therefore be concluded that, to some extent, the strategies which are used in motivating teachers like best teacher awards are not motivating enough.
To further have a deep understanding of the manner in which respondents ranked the five motivating factors, the study examined if there is any differences in the ranking of the five variables based on respondents' age, gender, period of working with GES and academic qualification using the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at a 5 percent significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$). Table 9 shows the output.

**Table 9: ANOVA output for the ranking of motivating factors based on age, gender, period of working with GES and academic qualification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.142</td>
<td>.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period of teaching in GES</td>
<td>2.615</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Qualification</td>
<td>3.396</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2010

From Table 9, it is observed that there is no significance difference ($p>0.05$) in the manner in which respondents ranked the five motivating factors in relations to their age and gender. In other words, the significance level for age ($p=0.339$) and gender ($p=0.742$) are greater than the tested alpha ($p=0.05$). Thus, age and gender of respondents did not have any influence or impact in the manner in which the five variables were ranked. However, that of period of teaching in GES ($p=0.037$) and academic qualification ($p=0.011$) of respondents seem to have
a significant (p<0.05) impact on respondents’ ranking of the five factors in Table 9.

The implication of the above finding is that both males and females, young and old staff ranked the five factors in a similar manner. Since the two variables; period of teaching in GES and academic qualification of respondents proved to have a significant impact on the ranking, a further comparison test was performed to examine which groups within the variables contribute significantly to the differences. For the variable period of working with GES, it was observed from the comparison test that, respondents who have worked with GES for shorter period considered the factor; ‘Career Development’ most as a motivating factor than those who have been in the service for a longer period. This result therefore implies that respondents who have been with GES for a longer period have probably undergone some career development programmes unlike those with a shorter period.

For the variable; academic qualification, it was also noticed that respondents with higher academic qualification such as first degree considered increase in remuneration most as a motivating factor. It is therefore inferred from the ANOVA analysis that, despite the manner in which respondents ranked the five motivating factors in relation to the teaching profession, factors such as academic qualification and period of working with GES play a critical role in the ranking.
Teacher motivation and teacher productivity

This section discusses the benefits of motivation to the employees of GES and also assesses the correlation between motivation and productivity in the GES. Thus answers to research question four; what is the relationship between motivation and productivity in the GES are presented under the section. As part of answering the research question, bivariate and partial correlation analysis were performed to investigate the relation between teacher motivation and productivity. In performing the bivariate correlation, the following variables were correlated; achievement of target and receiving of an incentive. Thus the frequency of achievement of target was used to measure productivity whereas receiving of an incentive was used in measuring motivation. Table 10 shows the output of the bivariate correlation analysis.

Table 10: Association between motivation and productivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Receiving of an incentive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Targets</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving an incentive</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ r^2 = 0.756 \text{ OR } 76\% \]

Source: Field Survey, 2010

From Table 10, it is observed that, a significant strong positive correlation \( r = .870, p = .000 \) exists between teacher motivation and productivity.
This means is that, the more a teacher is motivated; the more likely it is for him/her to achieve his or her targets. The result from Table 10 is an indication that 76% of productivity is accounted by incentives received by respondents. A positive correlation was therefore anticipated between the two variables, since motivation has been proven to have a positive impact on productivity from many literatures. This implied that teacher productivity is hinged on motivation as indicated by Decenzo and Robbins (2000). Therefore, every available means must be pursued to get employees motivated.

However, since the achievement of a target or an objective by an employee could also be attributed to the availability of needed logistics and materials, to statistically test if the relationship observed from above between receiving an incentive and achievement of targets really exist and not caused by any unconsidered phenomenon, a third controlling variable (availability of teaching and learning materials) was introduced into the relationship using partial correlation. The results obtained showed that, controlling the availability of adequate teaching and learning materials reduced the observed positive correlation between receiving of incentives and achievement of targets. What this therefore means is that, receiving of an incentive and achievement of targets highly appears to be positively related because, the needed logistics required to achieve the stated targets are to some extent available and not that, the receiving of an incentive significantly contributes to the achievement of targets.

In other words, the availability of teaching and learning materials to some extent has an influence on the achievement of targets by respondents, confirming
the earlier findings. To further examine the relationship between motivation and productivity, respondents were asked to rate how inadequate motivation affects their outputs. The responses gathered showed that inadequate motivation has a severe effect on respondents’ performance (outputs). About 88 (55.5%) of the respondents indicated that inadequate motivation leads to the poor performance in their teaching activities, 44 (27.1%) were of the view that inadequate motivation makes them perform very poorly on the field, while the remaining 28 (17.4%) were indifferent about the effect of motivation on their performance. The above responses confirm Herzberg’s (1923) empirical work which stipulates that inadequate motivation affects the performance of employees in the performance of their duties. Also, the result is in congruence with Brewer’s (2000) view that in Ghana, it is widely asserted that low teacher motivation is reflected in deteriorating standards of professional conduct, including serious misbehaviour (in and outside of work), and poor professional performance.

Although the motivational packages given to respondents were generally very low and did affect their performance per the responses given by the various respondents, the researcher was interested in knowing whether the respondents receive any motivational packages in terms of praises, promotion, and salary increment when they achieve their objectives or targets. Responses obtained shown that over 70 percent (71.6%) of the respondents have never received any of the above for achieving their objectives or targets. However, it is observed that, motivation in the form of promotions is the most form given to respondents whereas salary increment was recorded as the list form of motivation. This
finding further support the earlier findings where most of the respondents received intangible incentives.

As part of investigating the relationship between motivation and productivity, respondents were also asked to indicate their respective views on the idea that, the more a teacher is motivated, the more productive he/she becomes on a four-point likert scale; Strongly Agreed, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Agree.

The finding of the study suggests that a significant proportion of respondents were really of the view that, the more a teacher is motivated, the more productive he/she becomes. This is attested by the fact that out of the 160 respondents, only 5 percent disagreed that the more a teacher is motivated, the more productive he/she becomes. This indicates that it is essential to have the overall mobilisation of the work force of GES through adopted motivational strategies to attain desired performance levels.

**Problems associated with the giving of incentives**

Every company needs a little extra motivation now and then. Incentive programmes or appreciation programmes can assist employers in helping their employees enjoy their job a bit more. However, when considering an incentive programmes, a strategic reward system must be considered. In view of this, this section is devoted to research question five, what are the challenges associated with the giving of incentives. However, since at the school level, the administrators serve as the Human Resource personnel, in-depth interviews were
conducted with the heads of the various schools in gathering data for problems associated with the giving of incentives.

The analysis gathered in the view of the respondents on giving incentives showed that, 70.6 percent disagreed that the process involved in giving incentives give a lot of problems. However, information gathered from the administrators of the participating schools indicates that, when the incentives are given in a mass form where all teachers are qualified, such packages do not often result in problems. The administrators further stated that when the giving out of the incentive requires a selection process like the best teacher award, some teachers think they have not been treated fairly and that is where the problem of giving out incentives sets in. This also confirms Baalraaj’s (2010) findings that incentives do tend to create entanglement in that they inevitably create invested interests not only within the target group, but also the one in charge of recommending who merits an incentive, that is the administrator.

Also, as part of investigating the problems associated with the giving of incentives, the study further examined if some teachers become jealous of others. Findings showed that, 87 (46.6%) of the respondents were of the view that incentives really breeds jealousy among teachers whereas, 73 (54.4%) disagreed with such views. This finding could also be attributed to one of the reasons why the ‘Best Teacher Award’ was ranked as the least motivating factor for respondents. The study also revealed that, even though the giving of incentives makes some teachers jealous of others, this does not greatly dampen the spirit of other teachers who have not benefited. This finding supports Ellig’s (2007) view
that one of the commonest problems associated with the giving of incentives is
the potential for rifts between employees (in this case teachers) where if some
feel that they are being unfairly treated, this can actually have a negative effect on
the productivity of those individuals.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and makes policy recommendations from the conclusions drawn. The recommendations drawn from the study are meant to address the problems identified and also provide areas that future researchers who are interested in researching on Ghana Education Service can conduct research on.

Summary of research process

The work and living environment for many teachers is poor, which tends to lower their self-esteem and is generally de-motivating. These poor working conditions coupled with low salaries act to lower morale among teachers and also contributed to the low status of teachers in society. There is therefore the need to empirically assess the impact of teacher motivation in Ghana on teacher productivity. Specifically, the study examined the types of incentives offered to teachers, the perception of teachers about the incentives, factors that tend to motivate teachers, the relationship between teacher motivation and teacher productivity, as well as the problems associated with the giving out of incentives.
A total of 160 respondents participated in the study through structured questionnaires, and in-depth interviews. All the respondents were professional teachers from the Asante Akim South District in the Ashanti region. Sampling was done using the simple random and stratified sampling techniques to select teachers across the selected schools. Data analysis on the other hand was performed using the Statistical Products and Service Solutions (SPSS), version 17 using both descriptive and inferential statistics. In all, there were 84 males and 76 females. Analysis from the age of respondents showed that, over 50 percent were aged 30 years and below, almost all the respondents had a minimum educational background of a teachers’ certificate. About 53.1 percent of the respondents have worked with GES for less than five years.

**Findings**

The first objective addressed the types of incentives offered to JHS teachers. The following key findings emerged:

1. Most of the incentives received by respondents were non-monetary and that the major tangible incentive package available for teacher motivation is salary.
2. The longer respondents stayed and work with GES, the greater is the likelihood of receiving an incentive package.
3. Generally, majority of the respondents were dissatisfied with the working conditions provided by the GES.
Objective two examined the perception of JHS teachers about the available incentives, of which the following were the major findings:

1. Almost all the respondents were dissatisfied with the incentive system. They were not highly motivated by the incentives because they were non-monetary.

2. Respondents who received intangible incentives seemed to appreciate the incentive than those who received tangible, though generally, respondents were dissatisfied with the incentives received.

Factors that tend to motivate JHS teachers were explored in objective three with the following key findings:

1. Money was not the major motivating factor for respondents, though it was a significant motivating factor.

2. Career development was ranked as the most motivating factor for respondents followed by increased remuneration, while Best teacher award was ranked as the least motivating factor for respondents.

The fourth objective focused on the relationship between teacher motivation and teacher productivity. The major findings include:

1. A significant strong positive correlation exists between teacher motivation and productivity.

2. Inadequate motivation has negative effect on respondents’ performance (outputs).

The final objective explored the challenges associated with the giving of incentives with the following key findings:
1. The giving of incentives to JHS teachers comes with its associated problems.

2. Jealousy among teachers sets in the potential for rifts between teachers and administrators when the process of selection is not transparent.

Conclusions

Motivation is not completely a new term. What is interesting about it is that it is commonly assumed to be a good thing that goes in influencing individual's behaviour and performance at work. Handling the challenging situation in the class and outside the class makes teachers exhausted, which hinders the success of teachers. Being intrinsically and extrinsically motivated increases job satisfaction. So, motivation has an important role to play in the teaching profession.

Generally, the research findings indicated that, teachers are poorly motivated and are dissatisfied with their living and working conditions. Mass promotion of JHS teachers, lack of career advancement opportunities, poor work environment, inadequate fringe benefits etc for teachers de-motivate teachers for higher productivity. Also, it can be said that monetary reward in itself has not improved teachers’ low esteem and their productivity. Furthermore, it is concluded that, inadequate motivation really affects the productivity of JHS teachers. This is observed from the angle of the low teacher output, high teacher turnover, regular strike actions, poor pupil performance, refusal of teachers to accept postings to rural areas, and irregular attendance and teacher absenteeism,
especially in rural areas. That is to say that, well motivated teachers are more productive and creative.

It is also concluded that there is a bit of discriminatory practices in the giving of incentives to teachers making others become jealous of their colleagues even though this does not significantly affect their passion of teaching. Also, incentives do not always guarantee motivation of employees due to the numerous problems associated with it. However, incentives are most effective when they are well structured and appropriate criteria are put in place for giving out such incentives.

**Recommendations**

Based on the key findings from the study, the following recommendations are worth implementing:

1. The GES should improve school management and opportunities for in-service teacher training, discontinue the practice of mass promotion and link promotion to recognizable professional achievements.

2. Teachers should be actively involved in designing of incentives packages by the GES since they are the beneficiaries of these packages and know best what they need.

3. The need for GES to constitute a regular incentive package for its staff is called for.

4. It is also recommend that, an effective and efficient reward specialist department be created within the administration of every school which
will perform an in-depth evaluation of the rewards system suitable for each teacher.

5. A comprehensive review of the processes involved in the selection of teachers for the best teacher award should be performed to help identify areas of improvement.

6. There should not be any competitive rewards. These can discourage peer interaction and social approval which are important to effective teaching.

**Suggestion for future research**

It is proposed that, a study be conducted to find out the relationship between teacher motivation and student achievement.
REFERENCES


GNAT (2009). *Teacher attrition in Ghana: Results of a questionnaire survey.* Accra: GNAT.


Ingvarson, L. (2002). *Building a learning profession.* Deakin West: ACT, ACE


APPENDIX
THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION ON PRODUCTIVITY
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS IN GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE
ASANTE AKIM SOUTH DISTRICT

The researcher is a student at the University of Cape Coast pursuing a Post Graduate Studies in Human Resource Management. He is researching into the Effect of Motivation on Teachers’ in Ghana Education Service (GES). Your cooperation and support is highly needed in this research project. You are kindly requested to accurately and honestly complete this questionnaire in order to make this project successful.

Information provided will be treated with the strictest confidence and the result of this will not be used in anyway detrimental to your interest.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

SECTION A
PERSONAL INFORMATION

Please tick (✓) the appropriate box.

1. Age (   )

2. Gender
   a. Male (   )
   b. Female (   )
3. What is your qualification?
   a. Teacher Cert ‘A’ ( )
   b. Diploma Cert ( )
   c. Graduate ( )
   d. Post Graduate ( )
   e. Other Specify ( )

4. For how long have you been teaching? ……………………………………………

5. Marital status
   Single ( )
   Married ( )
   Divorced/Separated ( )
   Widowed ( )

6. Religious affiliation
   Christianity ( )
   Islamic ( )
   Traditional ( )

SECTION B
PERCEPTION OF TEACHERS TOWARDS INCENTIVES

7. How do you perceive working conditions in the Ghana Education Service?
   a. Very satisfactory ( )
   b. Satisfactory ( )
   c. Not satisfactory ( )
   d. Indifferent ( )
8. Do you receive any incentives?
   a. Yes ( )
   b. No ( )

9. Which type of incentives is given to teachers?
   a. Tangible ( )
   b. Intangible ( )

10. How many times a year do you receive incentives?
    a. Once ( )
    b. Two times ( )
    c. Three times ( )
    d. Not at all ( )

11. Do you appreciate what is given out as incentives?
    a. Yes ( )
    b. No ( )

12. Give reason(s) for your response
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………..
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………..
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………..
This section looks at the various strategies used in motivating teachers.

Please indicate with a tick (✓) the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements below. Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Agree 3, and Strongly Agree = 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. Promotion is an incentive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Study leave with pay for teachers is an incentive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Best teacher awards are incentives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Adequate teaching and learning materials are incentives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Increase remunerations are incentives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please tick (✓)

18. How would you rate Ghana Education Service’s incentive packages?
   a. Excellent (   )
   b. Very Good (   )
   c. Good (   )
   d. Poor (   )
SECTION C

THE BENEFITS OF INCENTIVES TO EMPLOYEES IN THE

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Agree 3, and Strongly Agree = 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. Teachers involvement in decisions on incentives packages for teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Authorities should develop reward systems which cater for Financial and non financial rewards.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. GES must develop career planning processes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. GES must develop a culture which supports processes of valuing and rewarding teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. GES must provide guidance and counseling services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION D
MOTIVATION AND PRODUCTIVITY

Please indicate with a tick (√) the one you consider appropriate.

24. How do you consider teacher motivation in GES?
   a. Very important (    )
   b. Important (    )
   c. Less important (    )
   d. Not important (    )

25. How does inadequate motivation affect your output?
   a. Very poorly (    )
   b. Poorly (    )
   c. Not different (    )

26. When an objective is achieved, do you receive any of the following?
   a. Praises (    )
   b. Promotion (    )
   c. Salary increment (    )
   d. None of the listed (    )

27. What do you suggest could help teachers in your school work hard to achieve objectives?
   a. High salaries (    )
   b. Promotion (    )
   c. Praises (    )
   d. Good working conditions (    )
   e. Other specify (    )
28. Productivity is as a result of teacher’s motivation?
   a. Strongly Agree (   )
   b. Agree (   )
   c. Strongly Disagree (   )
   d. Disagree (   )

29. How much does the subject you teach affect your performance?
   a. Very much (   )
   b. Not very much (   )
   c. Not at all (   )

30. Do you often meet your objectives in classroom?
   a. Yes (   )
   b. No (   )
   c. Not at all (   )

31. How would you describe the performance level of your institution?
   a. Very High (   )
   b. High (   )
   c. Very Low (   )
   d. Low (   )

32. Good salary, promotion, and good conditions of service help improve performance?
   a. Strongly Agree (   )
   b. Agree (   )
   c. Disagree (   )
   d. Strongly Disagree (   )
33. The more a teacher is motivated the more productive he/she becomes.
   a. Strongly Agree ( )
   b. Agree ( )
   c. Disagree ( )
   d. Strongly Disagree ( )

34. One’s feelings towards motivation in GES affect his/her effort towards performance.
   a. Strongly Agree ( )
   b. Agree ( )
   c. Disagree ( )
   d. Strongly Disagree ( )

35. I work hard to increase productivity because I feel great about motivation in GES
   a. Strongly Agree ( )
   b. Agree ( )
   c. Disagree ( )
   d. Strongly Disagree ( )

36. I perform just what is expected of me.
   a. Strongly Agree ( )
   b. Agree ( )
   c. Disagree ( )
   d. Strongly Disagree ( )
37. My work performance is based on how I feel about motivation.
   a. Strongly Agree ( )
   b. Agree ( )
   c. Disagree ( )
   d. Strongly Disagree ( )

38. If GES shows interest in my personal and career development, it will motivate me to perform better towards productivity.
   a. Strongly Agree ( )
   b. Agree ( )
   c. Disagree ( )
   d. Strongly Disagree ( )
SECTION E

PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH THE GIVING OF INCENTIVES

This section looks at the problems associated with the giving of incentives. Please indicate with a tick ( ), the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

**Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Agree 3, and Strongly Agree = 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39. Incentives give a lot of problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>40. Complacency sets in as a result of incentives</td>
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<td>41. Incentives make some teachers feel jealous of others</td>
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<td>42. Incentives damp on the spirit of other teachers who do not benefit</td>
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<tr>
<td>43. Teachers do not value the incentive given them as motivation</td>
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</table>

44. Suggest measures to improve the incentive packages at GES for teachers. ........................................................................................................................................................................
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