UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND PRODUCTIVITY IN THREE ORGANISATIONS IN ACCRA

DICKSON ADJEI-SEFA

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EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND PRODUCTIVITY IN
THREE ORGANISATIONS IN ACCRA

BY

DICKSON ADJEI-SEFA

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE CENTRE FOR DEVELOPMENT
STUDIES OF THE 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 2007
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.

Candidate’s Signature: ____________________________ Date: 22-08-2007

Name: DICKSON ADJEI-SEFA

Supervisor’s Declaration

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

Supervisor’s Signature: ____________________________ Date: 25-08-2007

Name: MR. JOSEPH BOATENG AGYENIM
Policy makers in the country see the private sector as the engine of growth. It is the pivot around which our quest for the middle-income status revolves. However, productivity is generally low in Ghana mainly because employees are poorly motivated. The study, therefore, assessed the perception of employees on the relationship between motivation and productivity in some selected private organisations in Accra.

Both primary data comprising field survey and secondary data mainly obtained from available journals, newsletters, books and newspapers were employed to investigate the set objectives of the study. For reason of convenience, three private organisations namely Poly Products Ltd, Pipes and Plastics Ltd and Peace FM were selected for the study. Quotas of respondents were allotted to the various organisations based on their population.

The study revealed that, like the public sector, the Ghanaian Private organisations are bedevilled with poor condition of service that has occasioned the general low productivity in the country. From the study it came out that Ghanaian employees, generally, regardless of occupation or position are basically motivated to work by salaries and bonuses than other issues like achievement and promotion.

Based on the findings, it is recommended among others that employees should be fairly compensated for the wealth they help to create. They should also be made part owners of the organisation.
I would like to express my profound gratitude and thanks to various personalities whose immense contributions and support have made this study a reality. In the first place, I wish to acknowledge the contribution of my supervisor Mr. J. Boateng Agyenim for the meticulous and painstaking supervision and all the Lecturers at the CDS, University of Cape Coast, for their support and guidance.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Since time immemorial, groups of people have been organized to work together towards planned goals. Their efforts were coordinated and controlled to achieve desired outcome.

History is replete with examples of great achievements made by the ancient people through their management skills. Productivity was achieved in many endeavours of the ancient people. The Egyptians built the pyramids, the Chinese built the Great Walls of China and the Mesopotamians also had special management skills to irrigate their land. The Great pyramid is 75,600 square feet at the base, 480 feet high and contains over 2 million blocks of stones each weighing 2.5 tons. All these were done with no computers, electronic calculators or modern building materials.

The concepts of productivity and division of labour were accepted by Plato (427-347BC). Productivity is the mainstay of every organisation. It has currently become the everyday word. Since the Second World War, governments, politicians, academics and business executives have all stressed the importance of productivity because of the relationship it has with the general economic health of a nation.
Within the corporate universe also there is a lot of concern for productivity because it is considered as the main indicator of efficiency when comparisons are made with competitors in world markets. Governments also place high premium on the concept of productivity because of its relation with standard of living, inflation and economic growth. (Craig 1972 cited on accel-team.com).

There is no doubt that motivation serves as catalyst for good performance or productivity. The current wind of globalisation demands that organisations adopt strategies to be able to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. This could be achieved mainly through highly motivated workforce and good organisational environment. Essentially, there is a gap between employees’ actual state and some desired state in the organizational world. Management can achieve productivity only when this gap is bridged. Motivation, basically, is one of the means to bridge this and effect productive outcome. It is about inducing workers in a specific way towards organizational goals. The motivation system must be tailored to suit the organisation. What motivation looks or feels like in one organisation may significantly differ in another; what motivates a person may not motivate another. (Ringwood as cited on mercerhr.com).

Productivity would not be achieved only through financial and non-financial rewards. Other factors like good working environment, efficient leadership, effective communication and ergonomics play prominent role to ensure organisational growth. These factors and productivity are mutually causative. Employees need to be paid fairly. Their workplaces should be
ideally resourced and suited to their needs and business activities. They should also be effectively led.

Human beings are complex beings whose conduct and behaviour are influenced by many factors. Our reaction to situations differs from person to person. Some people are motivated by monetary rewards, others by recognition, status and praise while others are also motivated by the combination of both monetary and non-monetary rewards. (Cole, 1996). This is where the complexity in Human nature comes to fore.

It is, therefore, very important that managers make conscious efforts to understand how employees can be motivated in a given situation. On the account of this Schein, as quoted in Cole (1996), categorized man into rational economic-man, social-man and self-actualising man. According Schein (Cole 1996), rational economic man implies that people are interested in economic gains; they go to work for money and will work harder for more money. The social man implies that people work more effectively if their social needs are met. The concept of self actualisation also suggests that people seriously look for challenge and personal growth in their work; they see work as an opportunity to enrich their lives.

Statement of the problem

In Ghana it has become a sort of ritual to hear of workers of various organisations laying down their tools to demand either increment in salaries/allowances or better condition of service or both. A classic case in point here is the University Teachers' Association of Ghana (UTAG) strike in
1995 which disrupted academic activities for nine months (one academic year). It is also not uncommon to realise that workers are persuaded to go back to work when their demands are not fully met. In such situations, workers do not give off their best. They adopt nonchalant attitude towards their work and low productivity is achieved as a result. President J. A. Kufuor in his 2003 state of the nation address stated that workers pretend to be working and employers also pretend to be paying workers.

This scenario serves as a catalysing factor for the phenomenon of the brain-drain which is a major bane of the nation. Over the years, a great number of Ghana’s human capital has left the shores of the country by reason of lack of job satisfaction or poor working conditions. For instance, 198, 328, 450, 520 and 480 nurses left the country in 1998, 1999, 2000, 2002 and 2003 respectively. (Ghana Health Service Report, 2004). As for the situation in respect of doctors and pharmacists the least said about it the better. Also, in 2005 hardly a month passed without a group of workers going on strike. The numerous strikes also constitute a serious bane on the economy as they affect the productivity of the nation. A quintessential example is the industrial action embarked upon by staff of Tema Oil Refinery in September 2005 which culminated in the exodus of some of the employees including fourteen key technicians to countries likes Oman and Qatar where the pasture is greener. With the exit of the technicians productivity was greatly affected as some strategic plants had to be shut down for some time.

A great chunk of Ghanaian workforce believe that their conditions of service are nothing to write home about. Conversely, some employers think that Ghanaian workers are lazy and do not work hard to increase productivity.
This kind of chicken and egg situation is what we have to contend with. This situation if not properly addressed could make our much touted and cherished dream of achieving a middle income status by 2020 a mirage. In Ghana, the private sector is regarded as the engine of growth. It is also the pivot around which our quest for middle income status revolves. However, like the public sector the private organisations appear not have a meaningful motivation policy in place. President J. A. Kufuor, on the account of that has, on several occasions, suggested a nationwide debate on living wage and other compensation issues for Ghanaian workers. Therefore the extent to which motivation correlates with productivity in the private sector is what the study seeks to explore. The study would also look at how the private organisations motivate their employees to improve productivity.

Objectives of the study

The general objective of this study is to determine employees' perception on motivation and productivity within private organisations.

The specific objectives seek to:

➢ identify the forms of motivation in the private organisations.

➢ examine the effects of motivational factors on employees performance.

➢ assess employees' views on what motivates them to work.

➢ assess the extent of job satisfaction among employees.

➢ determine to what extent organisational environment affects productivity.

➢ make recommendations for productivity increases in organisations.
Research questions

In line with the purpose of this study the following questions would be addressed.

❖ What kinds of motivation exist in the organisations?

❖ How frequent are employees motivated as a way to boost their morale to work hard.

❖ How does motivation affect productivity in the organisations?

❖ What additional strategies could be employed by management to influence productivity?

Significance of the study

Generally, productivity is low in Ghana. Lack of job satisfaction due to inadequate motivation and poor conditions of service occasion this situation. This state of affair does not augur well for economic growth and our quest for middle income status. The study will, therefore, be significant in making an informed policy formulation and implementation which would motivate the Ghanaian workforce to achieve high productivity which the nation is in dire need of. Also, it will provide guide for potential investors who would like to set up new companies in Ghana. Furthermore, it will serve as a reference material for researchers who would like to research into similar areas.
The major limitation of the study was financial constraints. Inadequate and limited financial resources were used to conduct the study for which reason the sample size of the private organisations was affected. Also, there was general reticence by some employers to provide some information. Employers failed to provide information on their annual profits. Respondents preferred to take part in the study only under strict anonymity. The employers failed to provide information on their annual profit because they consider such information as strategic and confidential and therefore should not be revealed to outsiders. Probably, employers consider annual profit as classified information because of tax and labour negotiation reasons.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, various perspectives of the concepts of productivity and motivation have been reviewed.

Organisational productivity

The mid-nineteenth century saw a period of great change, otherwise referred to by some scholars as the great transformation, in the economy of Europe and America. The industrial revolution brought about mass-production which replaced handicrafts: factory workers replaced artisans and machines replaced hand tools.

Traditionally, the employee/employer relationship was characterised by suspicion. There was the belief that the employee sought to get big pay for little work done while the employer also tried to benefit from the labour of the employee with little pay. In order to solve this conflict of interest and achieve higher productivity, Frederick Taylor propounded the concept of Scientific Management. However, Hardy (1990) argued that the scientific management reduced work to carrying out simplified routines that any robot or well-trained animal could do. With the problem associated with the scientific management,
there was the need to fashion out a better way of organising work so that employees would be highly motivated to bring about the desired level of productivity.

Iyaniwura and Osoba (1983) define productivity as the quantitative relationship between output and input. Thus the relationship between output of goods and services and inputs used in producing them such as land, capital and labour or all factors combined. Inputs used can be hours of labour, units of capital and quantities of raw materials compared with the consequent output. Other writers like Currie go a step further to elaborate that “productivity is the quantitative relationship between what we produce and the resources we use” (Currie 1972, as quoted from accel-team.com).

This definition is less controversial and enjoys general acceptability because of two reasons. In the first place, the definition suggests that productivity is conceived in the context of an organisation, an industry or an economy as a whole. Secondly, irrespective of the type of production, economic or political system this definition is relevant as long as the basic concept is the relationship between the quantity and the quality of goods and services produced and the quantity of resources used to produce them (Prokopenko, 1987). According to Asare-Bediako (2002), it is an indication of how efficiently an organisation uses its resources (inputs) to produce its output. By way of illustration, Amadi (1991) pictured productivity ratio as kilometres driven per gallon of petrol where petrol is the input and kilometres covered constitute the output. However, input measure of petrol should not only be used to determine the efficiency of the car’s performance. Other
important factors like speed, the engine's efficiency, and the fuel's efficiency are equally important in determining the input index.

NECA (1991) observes that it is common in productivity studies to lay emphasis on labour productivity. Worker productivity is the value of goods and services produced in a period of time divided by hours of labour used to produce them. Improving productivity means making efforts to get more out of what is put in.

Productivity can be improved or increased by achieving more output from the same input or by achieving the same from less input. For business and industrial organisations productivity is very vital because it brings out the difference between success and failure.

Production is not the same as productivity. Production refers to an increase in output over a given period of time. ILO(1962) explains that increasing productivity means making more efficient use of all types of resources in employment, of using them to produce as many goods and services as possible at the lowest possible real cost. Output include all goods and services which satisfy wants not only industrial and agricultural products but the services of doctors, teachers, those engaged in shops offices and transport undertakings. Therefore apart from the physical and the tangible aspect, productivity can also be deduced from turnover, profit or even the rate at which objectives are achieved. Inputs could also include the efforts and sacrifices of those who contribute to production. However, efforts and sacrifices are not statistically measurable. The attitude of employees toward higher productivity is influenced by what they expect to get out of it. Workers believe that they should have share in the benefits of higher productivity.
Quinn, as quoted by Steers and Porter (1975), argued that three major perspectives complicate the concept of productivity. Economists view productivity as more yields to society from present resources and that efficient resource use is paramount. To the Administrator he is concerned with organisational effectiveness rather than with society at large and maximum resource utilisation of the economist. The industrial engineer also focuses more on those factors, which are more operational and quantifiable. Steers and Porter (1975) think that the level of productivity in an organisation largely depends on workers’ performance and technical factors such as the quality of equipment utilised for production, quality of raw materials and the adoption of right methods.

Measurement of productivity

Productivity measurement is the quantification of both the output and input resources of a production system. The intent is to come up with a quantified monitoring index and to ensure productivity improvement. While productivity can be given a simple definition as the ratio between input and output how it can be measured still remains controversial. Conceptually, measuring productivity may not be difficult. In practice, however, the measurement of both input and output brings out the problem of aggregation. For example the issue of how to aggregate different products, which do not have constant quality or features, should be addressed before output could be measured. Krugman (1990), perhaps, wanted to emphasise the difficulty in productivity measurement when he asserted that “productivity is not everything, but in the long run it is almost everything”. (p.9).
In an attempt to measure productivity, attention is given to a single factor measurement and it is again common to see emphasis placed on labour input because of the following reasons:

(i) Labour is regarded as the most important factor of production

(ii) Labour is the most easily quantifiable factor of production

(iii) Labour is the only factor of production that the manager has conscious control over its contribution to production. It should be noted, however, that productivity is more of a complex mix involving science, research, technology, labour and management among other interrelated influences.

Productivity can be measured in different ways. For example in a factory it may be measured based on the number of hours it takes to produce a product while in the service sector productivity may be measured based on revenue generated by an employee divided by his or her salary. In the world of business, productivity is generally measured by the amount of goods and services produced the inputs, which were used in production.

(Themanager.org).

Measuring productivity in the service sector is quite difficult. A secretary or receptionist who fails to deliver vital information to the appropriate manager or misplaces files very often can be said to be unproductive. Also there are countless cases of patient persisting to see a particular doctor by reason of his efficiency and kind disposition. Furthermore, if the orientation of the company is to make profit productivity can be obtained from the dividends declared at end of the year. One can also
determine or quantify the number of items produced in a given period and productivity could be determined when related to inputs.

In as much as motivation can correlate productivity to a large extent, in certain situations they have little relationship. For example, a highly placed well paid employee with little or no complaint against the organisation could be unproductive if he should join a powerful clique, within the workplace, whose agenda is to oppose management by reducing productivity. On the other hand, issues like widespread unemployment could induce an unsatisfied worker to be productive if he sees that low performance could lead to loss of scarce job. Also a very cohesive work group that is very productive could influence dissatisfied members to conform to the group norm or risk losing social acceptance (Steers and Porter, 1975).

Efficiency and effectiveness

Efficiency means producing high-quality goods in the shortest possible time. It denotes the ability to make a change in the productivity ratio. Also, effectiveness refers more to the production of results. In the private sector for example, effectiveness could mean making profit and preserving future market share. (Scott, 1983). In measuring productivity, standard hours are compared to productive hours. This gives a perfect example of measuring efficiency as they give index of labour productivity as well as how well labour is being utilised. According to Scott (1983), efficiency and effectiveness are measures of performance just as productivity is equally a measure of performance.
Those who champion efficiency measurement take into consideration those inputs and output which can either be converted into monetary sum or those that can be quantified in other ways. The less quantifiable but essential ingredients of successful organisation are left out. Normally, productivity and efficiency do not take into consideration certain issues relating to how people work. It is very clear that issues such as initiative, flexibility, co-operation and adaptability are not factored in the measurement of input. An individual employee in his bid to achieve his target can refuse to cooperate with his colleagues. In the end he may maximize individual efficiency but not that of the entire organisation. To check such situation, Bowey et al (1982) cited on accel-team.com, have offered the concept of effectiveness as a vital dimension of productivity and failure to take it into action can produce false assessment of the actual performance.

Factors affecting productivity

Large market size for America is repeatedly cited among factors, which account for high productivity in America. Productivity is also influenced by stability of markets. A highly unstable market requires constant changes in the rate of production. A period of depression or political instability is characterised by not only low production but by low productivity as well. (ILO, 1962).

Again taxation has considerable adverse effect on productivity of a company. For example high or heavy rates of tax could leave an organisation with little means to operate. Apart from the mode of high tax, the mode of assessment in certain instances could discourage productivity. (ILO, 1962).
In 1999, survey by an American firm Incentive Federation revealed that using merchandise and incentive travel to motivate can be highly effective and cost-efficient. The first phase of the study, conducted in 1997 reported that $22.8 billion was spent by US businesses on incentive travel and merchandise in 1996 to motivate consumers, employees and dealers. "People issues" are at the heart of many corporate entities. Even in the world of high technological advancement with robots and unmanned factories, the issue of motivating employees for high performance can make or break an organisation.

Motivation

Motivating employees for high productivity is not a new phenomenon. The pioneering work in the field of management mainly was concerned with motivation. Within the organisational setting, motivation concerns dealing with employees in such a way that they exert a great deal of effort on their job; thus getting employees to work hard. In this sense, motivation is not what the employee does to the employees. It is the urge that comes from the employee (Rue and Byars, 2001). The employer has to create the condition that would bring out motivation.

A sample of various definitions indicates how the term has been loosely used. Jones, quoted by Steers and Porter (1975), defines it as how behaviour gets started, energised, sustained, directed, stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organisation while all these are going on. Motivation has to do with a set of independent/dependent variable relationships that explains the direction, amplitude and persistence of an
individual's behaviour holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill and understanding of the task and the constraints operating in the environment (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

Cole (2002) defines motivation as a process in which people choose between alternative forms of behaviour in order to achieve personal goals. These individual goals can be tangible such as monetary rewards and intangible in the form of self esteem or job satisfaction. The same author in his 1996 edition defined motivation as the term used to describe those processes both instinctive and rational by which people seek to satisfy the basic drives, perceived needs and personal goals which trigger human behaviour. Motivation is also conceived as the intensity of a person’s desire to engage in some activity (Dessler, 1999).

A cursory look at these definitions shows that they have three common denominators which can be said to characterise the concept of motivation. That is when one talks of motivation one is basically concerned with the following.

(a) What energises human behaviour
(b) What directs or channels such behaviour
(c) How this behaviour is maintained or sustained

Each of the three components represents an important factor for our understanding of human behaviour in workplace. Frustration among employees with unrewarding jobs can lead to aggressive, regressive fixated or withdrawn behaviour (Mullins, 1996), all of which may harm a firm’s productivity. A lack of motivation increases the rate of absenteeism – which
is generally highest among workers doing mundane and repetitive jobs (Cully et al. 1999) – and the rate of employee turnover.

Theories of motivation

Various theories regarding human behaviour in an organisation have been propounded by prominent behaviourists notably Douglas McGregor (Theory X and Y, 1960) Frederick Herzberg (2 hierarchy of needs, 1957), Abraham Maslow (needs theory, 1954) Elton Mayor (Hawthorne Experiments 1927-32), Clayton Alderfer (ERG, 1972) and B.F. Skinner (Reinforcement theory, 1974). The list, however, is by no means exhaustive.

Traditional motivation theory

The earliest attempt to study compensation and reward systems in relation to productivity dates back to F.W Taylor’s scientific management in the early 1900’s. According to Rue & Byars (2001), most reward systems were not tailored to motivate employees for high productivity. Taylor introduced the use of piece-rate incentive system for blue-collar workers. He thought this system was the most efficient way to simultaneously maximize both productivity and worker income. He again thought that output would fall if a highly productive employee realised that he is receiving the same reward as those who are producing less. Taylor therefore fashioned out a reward system which compensated employees according to their production. This motivation theory is based on the assumption that there is high correlation between money and productivity. The scientific management principles, in
fact, had their roots in the concept of "economic man" with the assumption that money is the primary motivator and that employees will work harder and produce more if they are adequately rewarded. In spite of the fact that scientific management still remains the mother of management concepts, Hardy (1990) argues that it was too mechanistic and reduced workers to robots.

Maslow’s theory

The need Hierarchy theory assumes that employees can be motivated to satisfy a variety of needs and money can directly or indirectly satisfy only some of the needs (Rue and Byars, 2001). Maslow (1954) gave a hierarchical order of needs. These are physiological needs, safety and security needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualisation. Physiological needs include the need for food, water, shelter and clothing. Basically, these needs are required by the human body in order to sustain life. Safety needs include protection against danger, threat and deprivation of any sort. Employees want employers to guarantee their safety. Chronic favouritism, discrimination and obnoxious organisational policies jeopardize the safety of employees. (Rue and Byars, 2001). With the social needs, individuals seek affection and belonging. These needs can be satisfied by associating with others or being accepted on to a group.

The next level of needs concerns esteem needs including self esteem and esteem of others. Maslow believes that all people want others to hold them in high esteem. The highest in the hierarchy is the self-actualisation
needs; the need of people is operated at the optimum level reaching their full potential of their abilities and interest.

Maslow (1954) contended that at any point in time only one level of need occupies a person’s attention. He viewed human needs as operating on a number of different levels from the basic need to satisfy hunger up to the higher level need to achieve self-fulfilment (Cole, 2002). Thus people begin with lower need and move up the need hierarchy one level of need at a time. By this theory, until the physiological needs are completely satisfied, they inhibit all other needs. As the physiological needs are met, the next on the order which is the safety needs become, at that moment, the primary motivator. The process goes on until the last on the hierarchy is satisfied. For example it is only when an individual is in need of Oxygen that it can have a motivating effect on his behaviour.

![Maslow's hierarchy of needs](https://erl.ucc.edu.gh/jspui)

*Figure 1: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs*

While Maslow's hierarchy makes sense intuitively, there is not much evidence to support its strict adherence. Variations can occur depending on individuals' experience, culture, upbringing, and even religion. Certain cultures appear to place social needs before other needs. There are also cases of the "Starving artist" who neglect physical needs in pursuit of aesthetic or spiritual needs. (Rue and Byars, 2001). Also, among the Hindu believers, some live ascetic life, denying themselves physiological needs, some in reclusive life all in search of spiritual growth.

Again, it is pertinent to note that under different situations, a person's need could move back and forth. For example, difficult economic times may influence physiological needs while high-order needs could be influenced by good economic conditions.

Furthermore, there is little evidence to support the fact that people are motivated to satisfy exclusively one level of need at a time. It is also not always the case that a need should be satisfied before another one emerges. It is very possible to be motivated by physical need and social need at the same time, just as one could have need for social and esteem need concomitantly. Steers and Porter (1975) argue that individuals possess in varying strength, at the same time, a variety of needs. For example, an individual could have a high need for income and strong desire for affection at the same time. Also, by reason of our individual differences, two people may have the same need but could use different methods to satisfy the need.

Despite the above limitations, Maslow's need hierarchy has remained the fundamental reference point for many organizations. The logic of the need
hierarchy is still in vogue. Most compensation systems are hierarchy designed to satisfy lower need physical and safety need before the high order needs.

The ERG theory

In view of the limitations of Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs Clayton Alderfer (1972) came out with what is termed the ERG theory, Like the Maslow’s theory the ERG describes needs in a hierarchical form. The ERG has three level of needs; Existence, Relatedness and Growth. Alderfer argues that the middle levels of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs overlap and so he rectified the problem by reducing the needs to be mapped to those of Maslow’s as follows.

- Existence – Physiological and safety needs.
- Relatedness – Social and Esteem needs
- Growth – Self actualisation needs

Just like the Maslow’s model, Alderfer’s theory is hierarchical. Existence needs have priority over relatedness, which also have priority over growth. However, ERG theory differs from Maslow’s in three areas.

He argued that people’s needs should be arranged along a continuum rather than in a hierarchy (Cole, 2002). ERG theory allows for different levels of needs to be pursued concurrently, a situation, not possible with Maslow’s theory.

- The ERG theory allows the order of needs to be different for different people.
The ERG model acknowledges what is called frustration-regression principle. The principle means that if a higher level of need remains unfulfilled; one could regress to lower levels that appear easier to be satisfied.

Thus, although the ERG presents a model of progressive needs, the hierarchical dimension is not rigid. With flexibility the theory can explain observed behaviour for example the situation of the “starving artist” who could place growth needs above existence needs.

The need theories notwithstanding their importance are also criticised on the grounds that they fail to take into account differences in personality: some needs may be more important to certain individuals than to others. Cultural differences may also have an effect; workers in Asian countries may be strongly motivated by a loyalty to an organisation, whereas in western societies, which are more individualistic, self-fulfilment is of greater importance (Mullins, 1996).

**Herzberg’s theory**

Fredrick Herzberg (1957) motivation theory has received general acceptance by management scholars. The theory is named several as the motivator-hygiene theory, the dual-factor theory and the motivation-maintenance theory. Herzberg (1957) argued that genuine motivation takes place when both motivator and hygiene factors go together.

According to Dessler (1999), Herzberg’s two-factor motivation categorized Maslow’s hierarchy into lower level (physiological, safety, social)
and higher level (ego, self-actualisation) sets of needs. In his view hygiene factors (factors outside the job itself like working conditions, salaries and supervision) may improve job satisfaction but not necessarily employee motivation. However, job content, job design otherwise called motivators that are intrinsic to the work (such as achievement, recognition, responsibilities and more challenge) tend to actually motivate employees. Cole (2002) indicates motivators are closely connected to the job while hygiene is connected to the environment. Using a vehicle as an example, he illustrates that the hygiene factors can be considered as filling up petrol tank. The car would not move if there is no fuel but refuelling alone does not set the car in motion. For forward movement, the electrics must be switched on, the starter operated and this is akin to the effect created by the motivators.

Herzberg, furthermore, proposed job enrichment as a way of solving motivation problems. Contrary to job enlargement (just adding jobs of similar type) and job rotation (rotating job assigning) job enrichment deals with upgrading the job as a result of adding more motivation factors like increase responsibly, recognition, advancement and growth.

The preference-expectancy theory

This theory is based on the assumption that people tend to increase pleasure and decrease displeasure. In the view of Victor vroom, cited in Rue and Byars (2001) workers are motivated to work if:

(a) they are of the opinion that their effort would be rewarded

(b) they value the reward to be offered.
Thus, people live in the expectation borne out of experience that increased effort would bring about increased reward. It should be pointed out that employee’s expectations are perceptions which do not always reflect reality. Employees could work hard with the belief that higher performance could bring handsome reward but higher performance does not necessarily bring out reward. Again concerning the issue of value that employees place on reward that are given some employers assume erroneously that employees will value whatever reward that is given. Given that this is true, it should be emphasized that some rewards would be considered more valuable than others.

Some critics also believe that the theory has many unanswered questions, they argue that the theory is overly rational but human beings often do not always act that rationally as the theory seem to suggest. Impulsive and expressive behaviour are also ignored.

Reinforcement theory

The Reinforcement theory also has relationship with the learning theory by B. F Skinner. In motivation reinforcement implies that a particular conduct or behaviour is influenced by a preceding behaviour. To greater extent, a present behaviour is the result of a reward or punishment received from an earlier conduct which in effect has reinforced the current action.

For example if employees receive pay increase or bonus wherever they increase production, they are likely to work hard to increase production in expectation of another pay increase. Also, an innovative employee is likely, to
be discouraged and frustrated if his efforts to introduce new ideas are constantly impeded by harsh criticisms or apathetic management.

Cole (2002) believes, such negative reinforcement would eventually discourage him from further suggestion and could even serve as springboard for him to leave the organisation. Conversely, positive reinforcement is a reward which could be in a form of praise or bonus that an employee receives as a result of good performance or desired behaviour. Extinction could also be an effective device in work place. With extinction, the positive reinforcement such as praise, a pat on the shoulder or bonus would be withheld so that overtime the undesired behaviour disappears. Behaviour management experts (according to Dessler) believe that it is better to use positive reinforcement. It is best to focus on improving desirable behaviour rather than decreasing undesirable one.

**Theory X and Y**

Another approach to motivation developed by Douglas McGregor (1960) is the set of two opposing theories of X and Y. The theory X sees employees as Lazy or unwilling to work unless motivated by negative factors like threats and effective supervision. For theory Y employees are willing to work and would perform well but are well motivated by incentive, responsibility and ownership of their work.
According to Steers and Porter (1975), the basic building blocks of a generalised model of motivation are: Behaviour, Goals, and Some form of feedback.

Basically, in their view, individuals possess in varying strength a plethora of needs, desires and expectations. For example an employee could have a high need for additional income, strong desire for affiliation or an expectation that increased effort on the job would lead to promotion.

The presence of needs, desires or expectation generally creates a state of disequilibrium within individuals which they try to reduce and there is an anticipation or belief that certain actions will lead to the initiation of action which brings up a series of cues either within the individuals or from their external environment which feeds information back to the individuals concerning the impact of their behaviour. The feedback would inform them to modify or cease their present behaviour or reassure them of the appropriateness of their present course of action. This example could clarify this process. People who have high need for affiliation may try to increase their interactions, they may at some point in time feel they have enough friends and may direct their energies towards other goals. On the other hand, consistent negative feedback would inform them that their behaviour is not successful for goal attainment and eventually they have to modify the behaviour.

However, this simple straightforward and general model of motivational process could not pass the litmus test of certain scholars. Dunnette and Kirchner (1965) identified four complications of the general
motivational process. In their view, motives can only be inferred; they cannot be seen.

For instance, when we observe employees engaging in overtime, we really do not know whether they are doing it because of the extra income they receive or just because they enjoy the work. In such a situation it is difficult to infer because any single act may express several motives. Motives could also appear in disguised forms. Moreover, several motives may be expressed in different ways. Lastly, cultural and individual differences also significantly affect the way certain motives are expressed.

Another complication of the general motivational process is seen by the dynamic nature of motives. It is a fact that any individual worker at anytime has a host of needs, desires and expectations. These could change or be in conflict with each other and therefore it becomes very difficult to measure them with certainty. For example, the desire to go on leave would conflict with the desire to have the allowance in lieu of leave.

Thirdly, there are differences among individual (workers) concerning how they select certain motives over others and the intensity with which they pursue their motives. A salesperson who has a strong need for achievement would try to satisfy this by one monumental sale and diverts his attention to other desires. Another salesperson, however, could be motivated and spurred on by the big sales to increase his achievement and even try bigger sales subsequently. The last exception to the general motivational process centres on the impact of goal attainment on subsequent motives and behaviour. Skinner expresses another view, which is akin to Maslow's need conception, as cited in Steers and Porter. Skinner thought that intensity of certain needs
such as hunger, thirst and sex is generally reduced upon gratification and other needs come to the forefront as primary motivating factors.

The exception here is that the attainment of certain other goals may lead to an increase in the intensity of some needs. As postulated by Herzberg (1957) giving a worker a pay raise does not satisfy the desire for more money for long time; it may even heighten the desire. Equally, as the French adage goes “plus on a plus on a besoin” (the more we have, the more we want), promoting an employee to a new and more challenging position may intensify the drive to work harder in anticipation of future promotion. That is why the gratification of certain needs, desire and expectation may at times lead individuals to shift their focus of attention towards different motives, at times such gratification can rather serve to increase the strength of the motive.

By reason of individual personality make up, different methods should be applied in motivating employees. But, this is where many managers make mistake. Some expect all the employees to be motivated by the same factors. People work hard for different reasons and those employees have varied expectations from their job.

The Hawthorne studies

The Hawthorne experiments were carried out at the Western Electric Company in Chicago, USA spanning the period of 1927 – 1932. The experiments were carried in different stages. The initial stage of the chain of experiments was conducted by the company's own staff notably Pennock and Dickson whose primary concern was studying people especially in respect of
their social relationship at work. At the subsequent stages, Professor Elton Mayo of Industrial Research Department at Harvard Business School was invited by Western Electric Company to assist the staff of the company.

The first stage of the experiment was the study on the effects of lighting on output. Two groups of equal performance were selected for the study. One of them had no variations in its level of lighting whilst the other had many variations in the lighting levels from better to worse. The amazing outcome was that the output of both groups increased. Clearly, one would not be far from right to deduce that other factors other than physical conditions were at work in this particular situation.

The second stage was called the Relay Assembly Text Room. Here the researchers had the objective of getting close and more detail study of effects of changes in physical condition on productivity. A group of women were isolated from the main group. During the period of the study they were observed to see the effects of changes on working conditions especially rest periods, meal break etc. It was realised that regardless of the working condition (whether improved or worsened), productivity increased. This form of behaviour is what is called the “Hawthorne effect”. That also explains that possibly the women were responding not to the changes but rather to the attention of the researchers and considered themselves as special group.

The next was an interview programme to ascertain employee attitude towards working conditions, jobs and supervision. Over 20,000 people were interviewed. The findings brought to fore the importance of relationship with people and laid the foundation for later developments in understanding employee motivation at work.
The fourth stage of the studies was called the Bank Wiring Observation Room. In this study a group of men on bank wiring were segregated to an observation room where their working conditions were just the same as the main wiring room. Soon the group started setting their own standards of work and work behaviour. This obviously shows that informal groups play a key role in work place productivity.

The final stage was in the form of personnel counselling which allowed employees to discuss their work related problems. This resulted in significant improvement in relationship between employees and supervisors and employee management relations.

In the first place, the studies revealed that man is a gregarious being and that social relations at work is just as important as monetary incentives or good physical working condition. Supervisors and Managers should, therefore, be aware of these social needs and cater for them. This will bring about harmonious working relationship between employees and management.

Following the Hawthorne Studies the concept of social man dominated the works of social researches with greater emphasis on employee’s social need rather than the needs of task. Adherents of this school of thought contended that group forces and social relations essentially motivated people in workplaces. Financial motivation was seen as not very important.

Views on financial motivation

Beginning in the early 1960s, the role of money in motivation re-emerged. Behaviour scientists argued that any comprehensive theory of work
motivation must take into account the role of financial compensation practices.

Like the early scientific management theorists, contemporary scholars view money as a key factor in motivation.

Cole (1996) states that the concept of rational Economic-man propounded by Edgar Schein has its roots in the economic theories of Adam Smith. This theory postulates that the pursuit of self-interest and maximization of financial gains are the prime motivators of man. This implies that employees are essentially motivated to work by financial reward. They would give of their best only if they are adequately rewarded financially.

In the view of Dessler (1999), pay for performance is the first thing that comes to mind when most people think about motivating employees. Pay for performance or piecework pay refers to any compensation method that ties pay to the quality or quantity of work an employee produces. Vroom’s expectancy approach talks about motivation as depending on employee seeing the link between performance and reward.

Furthermore, according to a research into the ‘affluent worker’ by Goldthorpe et al, as cited in Armstrong (2003), pay was the dominant factor in choice of employer and consideration of pay was very powerful in binding people to their present job. Money provides the means to achieve many desires. It is a powerful force because it is linked directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of many needs. It can clearly satisfy all types of needs; from the basic need for survival to self-actualization needs. Money can set a person apart from his fellows and can buy him things they cannot to build up his prestige (Armstrong, 2003).
Therefore to say that we live in financially motivated world is to state the obvious. No amount of non-financial rewards, or work environment, or human relations can compensate for insufficient or lack of monetary reward. If the reward is adequate, good management practices and public relations will motivate the worker to put in extra efforts. According to Drucker (1974) “there is not one shred of evidence for the alleged turning away from material rewards ... Anti materialism is a myth, no matter how much it is extolled”. (p. 41).

Much as financial reward can contribute significantly to employee motivation and performance, it is believed that the effectiveness of each reward depends on the underlying motivations of employees themselves. For example a young salesman would likely be more interested in bonuses and commissions than basic salary and than pension schemes. However, in the manufacturing environment employees would value their basic salary and be interested in long term benefit like pension schemes, health and life insurance.

Non financial motivation

In an article by Bob Nelson (Fed. Or /online mag), Paul M. Cook, founder and CEO of Raychem Corporation based in Menlo Park, California, had this belief:

The most important factor is individual recognition ... more important than salaries, bonuses or promotions. Most people, whether they are engineers, business managers or machine operators, want to be creative. They want to be identified with the success of their profession.
and their organisation. They want to contribute to giving society more comfort, better health, and more excitement. And their greatest reward is receiving acknowledgement that they did contribute to making something meaningful happen.

To illustrate the power of recognition on individual behaviour, Daniel Boye, Vice President and treasurer of Diamond fibre products Inc. in Thordike, Massachusetts, tells a story in the Harvard Business Review March April 1987 article. The story relates the impact on employee when she was presented with nylon and a cotton jacket as special recognition. The employee had this to say: “My employer gave me this for doing a job. It’s the first time in the 18 years I’ve been there they’ve recognized the things I do everyday”. (p.11). This shows the extent to which recognition rather than monetary reward can boost employees esteem and performance. Being recognized for a job well done (not necessarily financially) makes a lot of sense in terms of motivation. Immediate recognition can be a powerful reinforcer. Some organisation, therefore, formalize the commonsense of saying “Thank you for a job well done”. As the saying goes; appreciation is like an insurance policy; you have to keep renewing it. For a praise to be effective, and genuine, it should be specific and offered at the time the good work is done. Praise could energise a person and motivate him.

Again, Linda Honold as quoted by Anne Smith and Gordon Culp (themanager.org) in an article motivation: what works and what doesn’t stated that “money is what helps people to get sleep at night, not what gets them up in the morning. Success and accomplishment are what really motivates people.” Since time immemorial, organisations use incentive pay or bonus to
motivate staff but these do not have long lasting effect; they produce just short term motivation, they are extensive motivation and therefore, as soon as rewards are needed or punishment disappears so does motivation. True motivation comes internally. People work hard because they like what they are doing, get committed to it and they see concrete result. Thus, their personal goals are aligned with demands and objectives of the organisation.

Management experts Tom Peters as cited by Anne Smith and Gordon Culp argues that there could be a member of staff who has never done any sales for his organisation but could be for example a leader of a social group or a deacon of his church raising thousand of dollars for the church: Thus each and every individual has internal values and goals that will genuinely motivate them. Management guru Drucker (1974) again points out that:

Merit raises always are introduced as reward for exceptional performance. In no time at all they become a right. To deny a merit raise or grant only a small one becomes a punishment. The increasing demand for material reward rapidly is destroying their usefulness as incentives and managerial tools. (p. 52)

Furthermore, cash rewards seem to have a de-motivating effect in certain situations. Bob Nelson sharing the viewpoint of Cecil Hill, corporate manager of improvement programme at Hughes Aircraft co. in “National productivity Review” explained that cash awards in his organisation were counter productive as it tended to reduce team work.
Eight years of research into Watson Wyatt's Human Capital Index has consistently found a strong correlation between Human Resource programme design and productivity.

Figure 2: Translating human capital strategy into superior financial performance and productivity.


Figure 2 shows the model used to link human capital strategy to superior financial performance and productivity. A programme is only as effective as its communication and implementation. A well-designed and effectively communicated human capital strategy will boost both employee commitment and employee engagement. These in turn will reduce turnover risk and enhance productivity.
Pendleton, Logue and Yates (2001) argue that owning shares will provide employees with financial incentives that will make them more committed to the organisation and more motivated at work. If the company is more profitable, employees will gain financially through dividend payments and an increased share price. Greater motivation will have a direct effect on improving productivity through greater effort and possibly innovation.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The study area and target population

The study was limited to the Accra Metropolis. It focused mainly on the manufacturing sector. However, in order to give a balanced perspective a service provider was added. The following organizations were selected for the study:

i. Poly Products Ltd
ii. Pipe and Plastic Ltd
iii. Peace FM

These organizations were purposively selected. Initially, there was data problem as certain organisations were reluctant to provide data. Poly Products Ltd and Pipe and Plastic Ltd were selected out of convenience because both management and staff were co-operative and ready to provide relevant data for the study. Furthermore, these organisations were chosen because the researcher’s target population was medium scale enterprises. In the case of the service provider Peace FM was purposively selected because within the relatively short period of existence, it has been able to carve a niche for itself as leader in the broadcasting industry; many radio presenters have
left their stations to join Peace FM. They also provide the benchmark for other radio stations as others copy most of their programmes.

Profile of the companies under study

Poly Products is part of the Poly group of companies and its core business includes the manufacturing of polytanks, polythene sacks, carrier bags and other packaging materials. It is a private firm in Accra wholly owned by some Indians. It has a workforce of about five hundred people. Pipe and Plastics Ltd is also a PVC Pipe and plastic related manufacturing firm wholly owned by some Lebanese entrepreneurs. It has staff strength of about two hundred and fifty employees. While each of the above organizations has been in business for more than fifteen years, Peace F.M is just five years old. Peace F.M is part of the Despite group of companies with a staff strength of about forty workers. Giving the short time of its existence and the pace at which Peace F.M is moving one would not be far from right to predict that it would be a pacesetter and leader in the Broadcasting industry.

Sampling technique

The sampling frame for the study was mainly Ghana Business Directory obtained from Ghana Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The sampling technique was done with several sample procedures. For the first stage two private organisations in the manufacturing sector and a service provider were purposively selected. This is because they were cooperative and ready to provide relevant data during the recognisance survey unlike the other
organisations which were uncompromising. The service provider was added in order to obtain a balanced view for the study. In the next stage, the respondents in the organisations were selected based on the quota system.

Respondents were selected and interviewed taken into account the population of the organisations as outlined below:

**Table 1: Respondents from the organisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PEACE F.M</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIPE &amp; PLASTIC LTD</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POLY PRODUCTS LTD</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2005).

Again within each organisation respondents were stratified into ranks; junior level, middle level and senior level. This was also done to enable the researcher get a balanced view of the employees. At Peace FM the General Manager and the Chief News Editor were interviewed. Two marketing officers and two presenters also responded to the questionnaires representing the middle rank and four junior staff responded to the questionnaires. The junior and middle ranks were given the higher quota because they have the larger number of employees and usually these types of employees are mostly affected by company policies. In the same vein the senior rank had very small number because they constitute the small group. People in managing position who invariably are the employers were interviewed in order to give a balanced view of the study. Also management personnel are the decision makers and would be able to explain why particular motivation policy exists or not. The
same stratified procedure was employed for the employees at Poly Products and Pipe and Plastic Ltd as outlined below: As was the case at Peace FM, the five and seven senior officers at Pipe & Plastic and Poly-Products Ltd respectively were purposively selected. Those in the middle and junior levels in the said organisations were, however, randomly selected.

**Table 2: Ranks of Employment at Pipe and Plastic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Level</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Level</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Level</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Table 3: Ranks of Employees at Poly Product**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Level</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Level</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Level</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In fact there was no strict policy on gender equality. For example at Peace FM there was no female respondent from senior management position. Many employees were contacted for the study but since male population far outstripped their female counterparts in all the ranks there were more male respondents than female.
Furthermore, of the sixty respondents 23.3% (14) were in management position, 35% (21) in middle level and the remaining 41.7% (25) in the junior rank. In order to ensure gender balance about 31% of females were included in the study.

There was 100% return rate of the questionnaire. Questionnaires were self-administered and due to persistent calls and reminders they were filled and the researcher was able retrieve all the 60 questionnaires despite some delays. Approximately 10% of the total workforce in the organisations was used for the sample. Taking in consideration the busy work schedule of the employees, it was difficult to get large number of employees at any given time and that was why a bigger sample size was not used. The sample is fairly representative because respondents were chosen from the three major categories (junior, middle and senior levels) in the organisations taking into consideration the population of each class.

Data collection methods

Both quantitative and qualitative data were used in the study. Both primary and secondary data were also used. Primary data were collected through field survey in the area of study using structured questionnaire and one-on-one interview with key informants and stakeholders in the labour industry (AGI and ICU officials).

Secondary data was also collected through the review of existing literature mainly management books, article and newspaper reports. Employees especially those in the Junior and middle ranks were very frank
and co-operative as they provided all the information needed. Some stakeholders such as ICU Officials also warmly answered the questions. Questionnaires were given to employees. In few cases those who had lost the questionnaires were interviewed. In certain cases also, some senior employees who by reason of their busy schedule would not have time or could forget the questionnaire spared some time for one-on-one short interview.

Data collection instruments.

Two main data collection techniques were employed in the research. With the primary data, questionnaires were designed purposely for the sample organisations. The secondary data comprise literature on management and other relevant topics as well as article and newspaper reports. In addition, two ICU and AGI Officials were also contacted for their views on labour issues in the country using interview guide. The questionnaires contained close ended and open-ended questions. The questionnaires were administered personally on one-on-one basis to sixty respondents. Employees who did not want the questionnaires because of lack of time or their inability to fill them were interviewed. Observation of the organisations' activities was also incorporated in the research. The researcher visited each organisation twice and interacted with some of the staff. Employees' attitude to work and their interaction with management were observed.

Data management and analysis

Questionnaires were pre-coded before administered on the field. In order to obtain quality data, responses were cross-checked on the field. Thus
the responses were filtered and cleaned to avoid discrepancies and inconsistencies so as to ensure the quality of data collected. Responses provided to open-ended questions were also coded before inputting into computer programme. Data were inputted into the computer using SPSS programme and analysed using the same programme. Figures, Graphs, and Charts were used to present some of the results. A simple bi-variate analysis was used. This was in the form of simple frequency analysis and cross-tabulation so as to determine the correlation between key variables.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data that was collected from the field. Issues discussed in this chapter include socio-demographic characteristics, motivation and productivity of employees at workplace.

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

Sex distribution

Of the total number of 60 respondents, 68.3% (41) were males while the remaining 31.7% (19) were females as indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This means that about two out of every three employees are males in the organisations studied. Despite the fact that women are in the majority, formal employment is skewed towards men. This could probably be that the employers are gender bias. It could also be the case that more females prefer to work in the informal sector than their male counterparts. Another plausible reason for the imbalance in the sex distribution could be attributed to the fact that many more females lack the qualification for the type of employment.

Educational background

From the study, 40% (24) of the employees had SSS/O Level education while a paltry 10% of the workers had Post – Graduate Education.

Table 5: Educational background of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSS/ O' Level</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post SSS/A' Level</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HND/Graduate</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From the study it was revealed that about 60% (35) of respondents were educated to the pre-tertiary level while 31.7% (19) and 10% (6) of the respondents were educated to graduate and post-graduate levels respectively.
Since the study was conducted mainly in the manufacturing sector it is not unusual to have the bulk of the workforce, predominantly factory and plant workers, educated below tertiary level. It is also not uncommon to have the greater chunk of employee in the junior staff in many organisations.

Ranks

The various ranks of the respondents were as follow: employees in junior level were 41.7% (25), those in the middle level 35% (21) and Senior Staff formed 23.3% (14). See Table 6.

Table 6: Ranks of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Level</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Level</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Level</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is also realized that males again dominated in age cohort, educational background and rank of employees as revealed by Tables 7-9.

Sex–age cross-tabulation

The cross-tabulation below shows that males dominated in all the age cohorts. The pattern of the distribution suggests that the 20 – 30 age cohort
of the sample respondents. There were no significant differences in the responses given by both sexes. However, it was all a male affair when it came to the question of rejection of new job offer. In fact, the 6.7% of the respondents, who would reject new job offer because they would not want to make "fresh start" were males above 50 years.

Table 7: Sex-age cross tabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>SEX 20 - 30</th>
<th>30 - 40</th>
<th>40 - 50</th>
<th>50 - 60</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Sex - education cross-tabulation

From the Table 8 it is evident that males again dominated at all levels of the educational ladder. This may explain why there are fewer females at the work place. These workers required some expertise which many females may lack. In Ghana, many females are employed in the informal sector and this may account for the imbalance. Perhaps, some employers prefer more male employees with the erroneous belief that males work harder.
Table 8: Sex-education cross tabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Background</th>
<th>SSS/O’ Level</th>
<th>Post Level</th>
<th>SS/A Graduate</th>
<th>HND/ Post Graduate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Sex -rank cross tabulation

From the Table 9 it could be seen that males again dominated their female counterparts at all levels of rank. It could also be seen that male/female ratio is about 2:1 at all levels of the ranks.

Table 9: Sex-rank cross tabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior Level</td>
<td>Middle Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 indicates that employees who have worked between seven to ten years formed majority with 36.7% (60), those with ten years or more experience were 13.3% of respondents and those who have worked less than a year were just 5%.

Table 10: Work experience of employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 3 yrs</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6 yrs</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 10 yrs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 yrs or more</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From the data on work experience, it can be said that a good number of employees in the organizations remained in their jobs for a considerable long time which is good for the advancement of the objectives of the organization; their experiences and expertise could significantly benefit the firms. What cannot be said with certainty is whether the employees are satisfied with their jobs or not, whether they are motivated for which reason they remain at post for long or not.

On the contrary, the turbulent situation at the labour market could petrify employees to acquiesce to the conditions at their workplace even if they are not satisfied. Some employees at Poly Product Ltd and Pipe and
What makes employees happy at workplace

The study revealed that 60% (36) of respondents indicated cordial relations among staff as what makes them happy at workplace. 21.7% (13) also think that good salary makes them happy. The nature of job also came up with 11.7% (7) and good work environment was mentioned by 6.7% (4) of the respondents as presented in Table II below.

A recent trend in employment which is highly recommended to employers is flexible working policy such as flexible time and “family-friendly” attitudes like permitting employees to work from home or to work during convenient hours. This has clear motivational benefits: in a recent survey, 50% of managers believed that family-friendly policies resulted in “happier staff” – and some noted that the policies also reduced employee turnover and absenteeism (Cully, et al 1999).

However, Hong et al (1995) listed “flexible working time” among the benefits that had the least impact upon employee’s performance. It is possible that this discrepancy – between a British study and Taiwanese one, is due to cultural differences. Perhaps, Britain being our colonial master and having influenced us in many ways the British situation may perfectly reflect in Ghana.
Table 11: What makes employees happy at workplace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What makes employees happy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cordial relations among staff</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good salary</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Job</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good work environment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The data presented goes to buttress the view that financial reward, though important, is not an overriding factor in motivating employees to work hard. In fact money alone will not be sufficient to motivate employees. Even there are situations money would not be needed to induce high performance. For example, highly motivated people like (the late) Mother Theresa and her volunteers worked extremely hard yet their motivation obviously had no link with any financial motive. Clearly, such motivation and selfless devotion to duty comes intuitively.

The study further revealed that among several motivational factors substantial number of respondents indicated that good salary and bonus are very important and thus have much more motivating effect on them than other issues like promotion, achievement and recognition. Of the 60 respondents, 78.3% (47) of the respondents consider good salary as very important while 50% (30) consider recognition and praise as less important as presented by the table 12-14 and figures 4-6.
From Table 12, only 38.3% (23) consider sales commission as very important while 33.3% (20) also think that commission is less important. As a matter of fact, such viewpoint depends upon several factors such as the age of respondent, the job description and even the industry itself. For example a young salesman would consider commission more important than an employee who is getting ready for retirement. Employees in certain industries such as the insurance industry also could consider commission as very important.

Table 12: Views on commission

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commission</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Respondents' view on bonus

It is evident from figure 4 that 51.7% (31) of respondents believe that bonus is a very strong motivator. These employees think that employers should periodically provide a “thank you” package for the wealth they help to create in the organisation. In a study by Hong et al (1995), the three types of benefits that were found to have greater impact on workers’ performance were
end-of-year bonuses, dividends and pensions. These benefits had a strong effect upon employees' perceived levels of motivation. Refer to figure 4.

![Bar chart showing views on bonus](image)

**Figure 4: Views on bonus**

Source: Field data, (2005)

Respondents’ view on promotions

Figure 5 also shows that about 46.6% (28) of respondents do not need promotion as motivation policy. Only 16.7% (10) of the employees think promotion would motivate them. Refer to figure 5.
Figure 5: Views on promotion


Respondents’ view on good salary

The study further confirmed the popular and traditional notion that money is a very important factor of motivation. Almost all the respondents would like their employers to offer good salary as against just 3.3% of the respondents who do not care about it. See figure 6.
Furthermore, the respondents' view is in line with the outcome of the research by Goldthorpe et al as cited in Armstrong (2003) which indicated pay as the dominant factor in the choice of employer and a very powerful force that binds people to their job. Money provides the means to achieve many desires.

It is a powerful force because it is linked directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of many needs. It can clearly satisfy all types of needs; from the basic need for survival to self-actualisation needs.

Generally, employees in Ghana, like any developing country, are poor whose main concerns are what to eat or wear (physical needs) as explained in Maslow's theory of needs. So just about 10% or 20% pay rise could motivate them to work for higher productivity which organizations and the nation as whole so much desire. To buttress the financial motivation view management expert Peter Drucker (1974) said "there is not one shred of evidence for the
alleged turning away from material rewards.....Anti-materialism is a myth no matter how much it is extolled" (p.58).

Views on recognition and praise

Again like promotion, recognition and praise do not bother half of the employees. To such employees programmes like best worker awards are not their priority. See Table 13.

Table 13: Views on recognition and praise

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recognition &amp; praise</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Proponents of ‘reinforcement theories’ of motivation argue that it is particularly important for managers to recognise and reward employees who perform well. Such recognition also helps individuals to fulfil the higher needs in Maslow and Alderfer’s hierarchies, providing workers with self-esteem and a sense of accomplishment.

An experiment by Graen, (Mullins, 1996) in which workers were induced to perform better in their jobs either by verbal recognition of good work or by a pay increase, found that performance was improved more
significantly by the 'intrinsic' reward of verbal recognition than by the 'extrinsic' reward of additional money.

In an article by Bob Nelson (Fed.org/onlinemag), Paul M. Cook, founder and CEO of Raychem Corporation based in Menlo Park, California, had this belief:

The most important factor is individual recognition ... more important than salaries, bonuses or promotions. Most people, whether they are engineers, business managers or machine operators, want to be creative. They want to be identified with the success of their profession and their organisation. They want to contribute to giving society more comfort, better health, and more excitement. And their greatest reward is receiving acknowledgement that they did contribute to making something meaningful happen.

Respondents' view on achievement

A lot more respondents 61.7% do not also consider achievement as important motivation at their workplace. Only 5% support the view that achievement can propel employee to work hard. See Table 14.
Furthermore, from the study it is evident that contrary to Herzberg’s hygiene and motivator’s theories, organizations mainly go in for incentive pay and bonus packages to reward staff. Herzberg believes such reward schemes provide short term and superficial solution; they do not provide lasting motivation. In his view, salaries and bonus can avoid or lead to satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1957) what most respondents found less motivating like achievement and recognition are rather true and lasting motivation. There are instances where people have left their high paying, relatively secure job for a less certain but considerably more fulfilling endeavours.

From the Tables 12-14 and Figures 4-6, it can be said that the thinking of most respondents goes to support Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs. To a great number of the employees, Physical needs (good salary to be able buy food, clothing and shelter) are priority. To a greater extend, it is axiomatic that physical needs takes predominate position in a person’s life but there are
instances that other needs such as esteem or self actualisation needs take dominant position, relegating other needs to the periphery.

Scholars like Clayton Alderfer (1972) also hold the view that, it is simplistic for Maslow to consider motivation in a continuum. Examples abound of very rich people who do not have physical needs like house. Equally, there are others who have no money for food but try to create the impression that they are not poor. Such people can borrow dress for social activities or buy expensive mobile phones as status symbol.

Perhaps, the general low-income level of Ghanaians accounted for the respondents' adherence to financial motivation. Obviously, in a country where strike actions by all kinds of workers are ritual because the take-home pay cannot actually take them home, one cannot begrudge the respondents for their view.

Again from the study, respondents were quite unanimous in their desire to accept a new job. Table 15 shows that a substantial number of employees of both sexes are not satisfied with their jobs and therefore welcome new job opportunities.
Table 15: Sex - new job offer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Willingness to accept new job offer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The study further revealed that 60% (36) of the respondents cited good salary and incentive issues as the issues that would influence them to leave the current job for a new one. Only a few would not accept any new offer irrespective of its trappings. Such employees were mostly quite advanced in years and would not like to make 'a fresh start'. Refer to figure 7.
It was again realized that management's response to employee demand for better condition of service was generally not satisfactory. A good number of respondents 53.3% (32) said management's response during such times were negative; the usual 'no money' syndrome. See Table 16.
Table 16: Management’s response to demand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Management’s Response to Demands</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands are met half-way</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The picture from Table 16, engenders the situation where workers pretend to be working while employers also pretend to be paying. The trickling down effect of this attitude is low productivity in the organization and the country as a whole. Even when demands are met employers adopt nonchalant or fire fighting approaches and as a result the problem surges up sooner than later. The poor response to employees’ demand influences them to work lackadaisically which does not auger well for productivity. In all 33.3% (20) intimated that occasionally, their demands are met half-way.

The study further revealed the dire consequences of inadequate motivation on productivity of organizations. About 67.0% (40) of the employees said inadequate motivation reduces their commitment to work and 23.3% (14) also said it could slow down production as indicated by the table 17 below. The annual ritual of strikes in the country are said to be occasioned mainly by poor response to employees’ demands and non implementation of
agreed policies by management. In September, 2005 some key technicians of Tema Oil Refinery, citing negative response to their demand, unceremoniously left the company. Their exit seriously affected the operations of the organisation as some strategic plants had to be shut down.

Table 17: How inadequate motivation affects work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of inadequate motivation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduces commitment to work</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow down production</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwillingness to work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Again 61.7% (37) of the respondents justified their belief that Ghanaian workers are not adequately motivated by citing low salary. Of the total respondents, 30.0% (18) also think that by reason of our numerous complaints we are not well-motivated to give our best. Employers, on the other hand, like McGregor (1960) believe workers in Ghana are generally lazy and do not work hard to increase productivity. Without employees organizations are mere piles of papers, pieces of machines and furniture. As the Human Resources constitute the most important asset, organizations should do all they can to treat their employees fairly and adequately motivate them to give their best.
strongly agree that employee motivation is a sine qua non for the success of the organizations. From literature the role motivation plays in influencing performance is incontrovertible. This is particularly true of workers who are “deeply involved with their work” Mullins (1996). Studies have revealed that high employee motivation is linked to both organisation’s excellence and profitability. As indicated by Pendleton et al (2001) when employees are provided with financial incentives such as share ownership they invariably become more committed to the organisation and work hard to improve productivity. See table 18.

Table 18: Employee motivation and organizational productivity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee motivation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Important</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A very plausible reason for lack of motivation and low productivity in most organizations is revealed in the study that 55% (33) of respondents receive nothing when production targets are met. This does not boost the morale of employees to give of their best. “We work for over 12 hours a day...
but we receive only a meagre salary. We are not paid any bonus at the end of the year even when production targets are met," reiterated, an employee of Pipes and Plastics Ltd.

Furthermore, one striking revelation of the study is that a large chunk of respondents (69%) believe that punctuality to work is the hallmark of a highly motivated employee. Only 3.3% (2) also think that motivated employees scarcely complain. While such views could be true in some cases, it would be palpably erroneous to entertain them in the face of mounting unemployment and difficulties at the labour market. Highly motivated employees consider themselves as shareholders and therefore work hard to increase stockholder value of the organisation.

![Figure 8: Characteristics of highly motivated employee](https://erl.ucc.edu.gh/jspui)


Further to the above, respondents unanimously said they meet their production targets. From the study, 66.7% (40) cited hard work as the reason
meeting production target. See Table 19.

Table 19: Reasons for meeting production target

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for meeting target</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hard work</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilful workforce</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The study further revealed that a lot of respondents do not understand the concept of productivity. They confuse productivity with issues such as production, meeting production target or producing more. Productivity, however, goes beyond just production, or producing more. Scholars like Iyaniwura and Osoba (1983) see productivity as the quantitative relationship between what is produced and the resources used in production. Asare-Bediako (2002) also explained productivity as how efficiently an organisation uses its resources to produce goods and services.

However, the orientation of a person determines his perception of productivity. As indicated by Quinn in Steers and Porter (1975) three perspectives complicate people’s view on what the concept means. He argues that an administrator is concerned with organisational effectiveness while the economist would be interested in maximum resource utilisation. The industrial engineer also focuses on factors which are more operational and quantifiable.
organisation largely depends on workers' performance and technical factors such as the quality of equipment utilised, the quality of raw materials and the adoption of right methods for production.

Table 20: Productivity level in organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Productivity level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The study also revealed that most of the employees are disenchanted about impartial treatment they go through. About sixty-eight percent of the employees think that there is favouritism at the workplace, which does not create congenial work environment. Favouritism stifles the commitment of aggrieved workers.

At the Poly Products, some employees disclosed that their expatriate colleagues (mostly Asians) do not respect them. They do not treat the Ghanaians with decorum and management, either do not care or seem to provide tacit approval. Again at the Pipes and Plastics Company, some employees said that, at times promotion is not based on seniority or experience. Some said a ‘darling boy’ of the people at the top could be
promoted over a senior or experienced employee, which creates discrimination and jealousy at workplace. The danger in this situation as depicted by Table 21 is that the aggrieved employees do not complain overtly for fear of incurring the wrath of their bosses; some only complain to colleagues.

Table 21: Reaction to favouritism at workplace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reaction to favouritism</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complain to friend</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep quiet</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach work with apathy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Respondents were also divided on the assertion that people work not only for economic need but psychological and social needs as well. In all 46.7% (28) of the employees strongly agree with the assertion and 3.3% (2) strongly disagree. The view of the 46.7% (28) parallels the categorisation of employees by Schein (Cole, 1996). He categorised people into rational economic man, social man and self-actualising man.

By our rational economic nature, employees seek monetary gains at work. Employee motivation would, therefore, depend on providing adequate financial reward and incentives in order to get maximum performance from employees. The social man concept means that employees would work effectively once their social needs are met. At the workplace, there should be
the composition of work-group and teamwork which are effective ways of getting extra commitment from employees which was why the Hawthorne studies achieved monumental success. The model of self-actualising man also implies that people actively look for challenge and personal growth at work. Thus, employees consider work as an opportunity to enrich their lives. Management can enrich job by adding opportunity for achievement, learning, responsibility and recognition. On the whole, each of the three models is useful and relevant in the work situation, but to base a motivation policy on any of them in isolation would be ineffective. It would be effective if appropriate combination of these is adopted.

Also in line with the Hawthorne studies, the 46.7% think that social and psychological needs of employees should not be discounted in the quest for productivity. Social interactions with colleagues are an important source of motivation in many jobs. To some extent these are beyond managers’ control, but firms can seek to reduce the risk of personal conflicts occurring, by taking care during the recruitment and selection process to hire appropriate individuals who will fit in with a team’s culture (Bent et al 2002).

Some respondents proffered suggestions as solution to the employer/employee mistrust. “Management should give workers what they deserve and they will eventually work hard; Management can then demand workers to work hard” -Quality Control Officer (Poly Products). “Access to information should be available to employees. If we are seen as part of the work then we will work hard” - News Producer (Peace Fm).

“Employers should see employees as important partners - equal work for equal pay. Workers should then be prepared to deliver their best” -
Marketing Executive. “Well - defined output target should be stated for workers in relation to available facilities” - salesman.

“What workers put in determines what can be given to them”: - Employer.

An ICU official criticized employers who do not provide proper platform for negotiations. Typically, he explained, such employers would tell employees “this is what I can give; take it or leave it”. He also implored employees to “Sit down on Kenkey or Banku together with the boss and informally he can tell you due to low cash flow we can’t go beyond 20% salary adjustment”

Also an employee at Pipes and Plastics said that employers do not put in enough logistics but expect “us to be productive. We have housing problems; we stay far from place of work and hassle for trotro daily. This drudgery does not help us to give the best.”
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This last chapter presents the summary of general observations concerning motivation and productivity in the private sector under study. It also concludes with policy recommendations, which would help in achieving the desired level of productivity in the country.

Summary

The study revealed that like the public sector, the private organisations also have the dearth of motivation and dissatisfaction at their workplaces. It was realised that almost all employees irrespective of their ranks feel demotivated to work hard. A lot of employees are dissatisfied with situations at their workplace but are unable to voice out their feelings for fear of losing their jobs. Even at Peace FM where management said they highly motivate their staff some employees argue that conditions of service are nothing to write home about. Some employers also think employees are not hard-working but are too demanding. This conflict of interest has engendered a situation where employees pretend to be working while employers also pretend to be paying and this negatively affects productivity of the organisations.
It was again observed from the survey that a very large number of the employees (about 90%) are concerned with motivational factors like pay, bonus and other incentives than other issues such as promotion and achievements. Nearly all employees regardless of their occupation or status in the organisation hierarchy are motivated by pay. Only a few employees were concerned with promotion, status and achievements, which Herzberg postulates as true and lasting motivation. Possibly, the situation at the organisations studied is not isolated case. They may reflect the general perception of the Ghanaian employee. This perception is, in fact, not an aberration in Ghana where poverty is endemic; people’s primary concerns are what to eat and wear as well as their shelter.

Besides, another serious revelation is that favouritism and discrimination constitute a serious canker in firms whose owners are foreigners. At Pipes and Plastics and poly product ltd Ghanaian employees complained of favouritism and discrimination by their foreigners who are mostly in top positions. Cases of discrimination are prevalent in firms owned by foreign investors who exploit the cheap labour and the proverbial Ghanaian hospitality to their advantage.

Policy recommendations.

In view of the findings and conclusions of the study, the following policy recommendations are offered for informed decision:

- There should be general consensus on what constitute Ghanaian living wage and the policy should be implemented by all stakeholders.
Employers should pay employees their fair share of the wealth they help to create.

- From the study it was realised that a lot of the employees were concerned with financial rewards. It is therefore recommended that organisations should increase more of financial reward. As the individual employee has different needs and aspirations, employees should be motivated with many different types of financial reward.

- There should be regular meetings and interactions between employers and employees so that they would appreciate each other's problem. For this to be successful they should share information so that employees will be motivated to make better decisions about their work and better able to understand the implications of what they do, how they do it, and the ultimate impact on the bottom line. It is believed that workers who are treated as business partners are more likely to be more productive and more motivated to contribute to their company profitability.

- Employees should again be encouraged to have part ownership of their firms through for instance buying of shares. Employee stock ownership plans have the potential to increase employee satisfaction and work motivation, but that potential will be realized only if employees psychologically experience ownership.

- Employees should not always use strikes and other arm-twisting methods to address their grievances. They have to be orientated to understand that they would be motivated when they are able to work hard to increase the share value of the organisation. Workers have to understand that
management can do very little about their condition of service if the organisation is not productive.

- The employees should not always expect the employer to motivate them before they work hard. Employees have to encourage themselves to work hard to achieve the objectives of the organisation and improve stockholder value. If employees do not work hard to generate enough income, employers cannot motivate them well.

Conclusion

All in all, for motivation to be effective, a holistic approach must be adopted. We should bear in mind that people are motivated by their own individual goals and desires. We should try to know people and understand their needs.

Sweeping or blanket assumption that all employees will be motivated by one thing such as salary increase or bonus will eventually fail. It should also be realised that employees like any other group of people have varied background and experiences and are therefore more motivated by feelings and sensitivities than by logic and facts. Not all individuals have the same means and desire and success of a particular motivational technique would depend upon an individual personality, occupation and cultural background: there are no “image bullets” that are guaranteed to improve all workers’ performance. For example, employees can quit a high-paying job because they do not feel appreciated, do not like environment or do not feel challenged.


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http://www.fed.org/onlinemag

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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST, CENTRE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS.

TOPIC: EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND PRODUCTIVITY IN THREE ORGANISATIONS IN ACCRA.

Introduction

My name is...................................................... I am pursuing M.A in Human Resource Management at the Centre for Development Studies at the University of Cape Coast. The purpose of this survey is to gather data for my dissertation as part of the programme requirements. I would, therefore, be grateful if you could respond to the questionnaire to enable me write the dissertation. I would like to stress that this exercise is purely for academic purpose and respondent's confidentiality would be highly assured.

Background

1) Name of organisation

2) Age: a) 20-40 b) 30-40 c) 40-50 d) 50-60

3) Sex: a) male b) female

4) Educational background: a) SSS/O'Level b) Post SSS/A'Level c) HND/Graduates d) Post-graduates

5) Rank: a) Junior level b) Middle level c) Senior level

6) Position/Nature of job.
7) How long have you worked on this organisation? A) Less than 1 year B) 1-3 years C) 4-6 years D) 7-10 years E) 10-years or more

Employee Motivation

8) How do you consider employee motivation in your organisation? A) very important B) important C) less important D) not important.

Indicate the importance of the following motivational factors in your organisation.

9) Commission A) Very important B) Important C) Less important

10) Bonus A) Very important B) Important C) Less important

11) Promotion. A) Very important B) Important C) Less important.

12) Good salary A) Very important B) Important C) Less important

13) Recognition and Praise A) Very important B) Important C) Less important

14) Achievement A) Very important B) Important C) Less important

15) Which of the following makes you happy at work place? A) Good salary B) Cordial relations among friends C) Nature of job D) Good work environment

16) State 3 things that make your work difficult.

i ..........................................................

ii ..........................................................

iii ..........................................................
17) What do you suggest could help motivate employees in your organisation?

18) When (production) target are met do you receive any of the following?
A) Bonus  B) Commission  C) Others (specify)  D) None of the above

19) How does inadequate motivation affect your work output?

20) Would you accept a new job offer?  A) Yes  B) NO

21) List 3 things that would influence your decision on question 20.

22) “People come to work place not only with economic needs but the psychological needs as well?”
A) Strongly agree  B) Partly agree  C) Slightly agree  D) strongly disagree

23) “Workers in your organisation are not motivated enough to give of their best”
A) Strongly agree  B) Partly agree  C) Slightly agree  D) Strongly disagree

24) Please give reason(s) for your answer to question 23.
25) Workers pretend to be working and employers also pretend to be paying. kindly suggest how this problem could be solved.

26) Which of the following shows a highly motivated employee?

A) Punctuality    B) Cheerful   C) No complaints    D) Hardworking

E) Committed to work.

Work Environment

27) Provision and maintenance of plant, systems of work that are as much as possible, safe and without risk to health
A) Excellent  B) Very good  C) Good  D) Poor  E) Very poor

28) Safety in usage, handling, storage and transportation of good and substances.
A) Excellent  B) Very good  C) Good  D) Poor  E) Very poor

29) Maintenance of safe place of work and safe means of access and exit.
A) Excellent  B) Very good  C) Good  D) Poor  E) Very poor

30) Provision of sufficient information, instruction and trying to ensure health and safety of all employees
A) Excellent  B) Very good  C) Good  D) Poor  E) Very poor

31) Provision of a safe, healthy working condition including adequate welfare services.
A) Excellent  B) Very good  C) Good  D) Poor  E) Very poor

32) Safe and efficient, state of the art accoutrements in your organisation
A) Excellent  B) Very good  C) Good  D) Poor  E) Very poor
33) Do you suspect any form of favouritism in your organisation?
   A) Yes B) No If YES, state it ....................................................

34) How do you react to such situation?

35) How does management respond to demand for better condition of service?

36) How does negative response to demand affect your performance?

Productivity

37) Does the nature of your job affect your performance?
   A) Very much B) Not very much C) Not at all.

38) Do you often meet your production target? A) Yes B) No

39) Give reasons for your answer.

40) How would you describe productivity level of your organisation?
   A) Very low B) Low C) High D) Satisfactory

41) Mention 3 things that could help improve productivity.

42) When would you say your organisation is productive?

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