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A THEORETICAL APPROACH TO MOTIVATION AND EMPLOYEE WELFARE IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS IN NIGERIA

BY

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Abstract

The paper had a colossal look at the theoretical approach to the study of motivation and Employee Welfare in the public sector in Nigeria. The objectives are to implore the underpinning theories to motivation and employee welfare also to examine the role of theory of motivation and welfare on employees and organizational performance in the public sector.

The paper is a position one and it implored achiever method through collection of data and information from library, internet, journals and text books for its methodology.

The result showed that variables, indices of motivation such as financial incentives, fear, advancement, etc are applicable to both public and private sectors of the economy. Also the paper established that theories of motivation if properly and adequately applied and monitored could enhance both employee and organizational performance.

It was concluded that there is a thin line between the theory and practice of motivation in terms of applicability to work force. It was therefore recommended that adequate theoretical knowledge of motivation by managers and public unit heads will help a lot to enhance employee and organizational performance on the long run and it will create room for efficiency and effectiveness.

Keywords: Motivation, Employee welfare, Public and private sectors; Motivational strategies; Efficiency and Effectiveness.

Introduction

Work is an activity that is expected of all people of any nation, irrespective of tribe or religion unless one has a mental or physical handicap. Even in the bible we were told how Adam and Eve were mandated to make their living through hard works after their disobedience. In several places in the bible, hard work is commended while laziness is condemned. Apart from providing economic security, work adds meaning to life. It gives one an identity and feeling of self worth. It bestows status and a feeling of belongingness to people who work in a given organisation. A satisfying job can be self-fulfilling, invariably, work has a bearing on one's emotional state and physical well-being. It has an effect on marital, parental and community roles of people. In spite of the above facts, research has shown that many people are not satisfied with their jobs. Job satisfaction has been linked with variables like absenteeism, labour turnover, labour performers and productivity levels. Public administrator experts/ observers are concerned that the gap between potential and actual performance is widening. It is believed that appropriate motivational strategies should be considered which will benefit both parties (Labour and Government/Management) however, government should try to find out the reason why an individual wants to work.

Behavioural scientists have found out that certain needs- drive people towards certain goal achievement. This drive is known as motivation. This drive within human beings might lead them to get involved and to use their intellect to achieve desired goals (Akindele 2007)

It is widely assumed by managers that motivation of employees will lead to an increase in productivity. For workers who are "deeply involved with their work", this may be true (Mullins 1996), but perhaps surprisingly, overall evidence suggests that there is no strong correlation between positive motivation and high productivity (Wilson and Rosenfel 1990). In spite of enormous research, basic as well as applied, the subject motivation is not clearly understood and more often than not poorly practiced. One can safely assert that effective management is a "sin-qua-non" to the survival and subsequent development of any organization. Management is a process, which takes place at all levels in an organization. That is, while organization is the group of people with similar objective, management is involved in ensuring that this group of people work together, with other resources such as finance and equipment, in the most effective and efficient manner to achieve the objective in the best and most economical way.

Human factor in management cannot be under estimated, they're the most complex element to manage in any organization. They are very unpredictable and highly sensitive. In fact, theories abound on how to relate with human resources within the organization. From McGregor to Maslow to Herzberg and others, scholars have laboured to see how an organization can manage well its human resource for the attainment of its corporate objective. This is then to say that individuals are much more important than merely a productive factor in management plans. They are members of social system in many organizations. They play different roles in different strata of the society. In these different roles, they establish laws that govern managers, ethics that guide behaviour etc. Abraham Maslow's philosophy is that human beings are complex beings who can be understood through their needs. This shows how motivation will assist in solving problems arising from man and organizational relationships, which are sometimes complex, dynamic and multi-dimensional.

Motivation is a general term, which applies to the entire class of, drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces. To say that managers motivate their subordinates is to say that they do those things, which they hope, will satisfy their drives and desires and induce the subordinates to act in a desired manner (Kanfer 1992). Whereas, motivators are whatever induces an individual to perform while motivation reflects want. Motivators are the identified rewards or incentives that sharpen the drive to satisfy these wants. A motivator then is something or even someone that influences an individual's behaviour. It makes a difference in what a person will do. What motivates one may not motivate others. Hence motivation depends on some factors, which include needs of a particular person.

"Peer leadership" theory advocates that the leader/manager should study or discover what motivates their subordinates and give it a priority. Therefore, as a leader one needs to find out the yearnings, needs, and desires of one's subordinates otherwise the organization would not move forward, (unlike the mechanistic school which sees man as a machine). The job of a manager is to get things done. To get people to do what the manager wants to accomplish through them, they must be motivated. An understanding and appreciation of this is a prerequisite to effective motivation and to effective management.

If profit is the fundamental motive in business and performance, outcome is that of government then motivating employees to achieve the highest possible productivity with the highest quality must be the primary objective of management. According to Maslow, some kinds of rewards, like salary, make only limited contribution to motivation. Salary meets basic psychological and safety needs. If productivity means maximizing the potential of the employee, then other methods of motivating the employee such as higher needs on the hierarchy must be implored. Maslow provided managers with the understanding of employers employees relationship; he made them to realize that when management for instance fails to meet lower needs of their employees, the higher needs, such as self-actualization are virtually ignored and when this happens, corporate goals of the organization may be ignored as well.

How best to motivate individuals to achieve desired objectives has long been one of the worlds' most important, difficult, and controversial problems (Vroom, 1964, Mullins 1999, Akindele 1999 and Lussier 2000). This problem has, since the medieval periods, attracted the attention of social scientists, philosophers as well as scholars, consultants, organisational practitioners etc. in different parts of the world. Winhrick (1983 and 1999) was of the opinion that the primary task of managers is to get people to contribute activities, which help to achieve the mission and goals of an enterprise, or of any department or other organised unit within it. He said further clearly that to guide people's activities in desired directions requires knowing, to the best of any manager's ability, what leads people to do things, that motivate them. A motivated worker would surely perform his duties and contribute to the achievement or organisational goals. Human beings are not passive recipient of external stimuli. They interpret actions, respond to and define situations. On the other hand, a frustrated, push-ruled worker even though may be forced to contribute to production, yet it must be realised that while it is possible to push start a stalled car or switch on and off a faulty machine, the human being is none of these. Hence, force will hardly make much impact in getting human beings to perform their assigned tasks satisfactorily.

Critically looking at the Nigerian situation, the conflicts, strikes and related problems often experienced in our industries and public sectors may not be unconnected with the lack of motivation. (Fajana 1991, Oloko 1991 and Akindele 1999 & 2007).

Historical Background of Nigerian Workers

Nigerian workers are looked into from three perspectives in this paper; they are: public, private and academics. The theories of motivation become relevant in the sense that Nigerian workers began to dissatisfied with their work dated back to 1939 when Railway Workers Union under the leadership of Michael Imoudu in 1942. By 1945, the only labour movement was the trade Union Congress. The congress received such tremendous support from workers that it felt strong enough to demand a cost of living increase over the awards made in 1942. However, the Government refused and consequently a general strike was called which lasted 45 days. In a nutshell the above are the exodus of Nigerian workers problem. Therefore this paper is to find a lasting solution through motivational strategies to the problems of absenteeism, lateness, not on seat syndrome and general attitude to work.

What Is Motivation?

The dictionary of sociology by Fair Child (1970) defines motivation as the process of initiating conscious and purposeful action. It defines "motivates" as the process of supplying an incentive, adequate to induce deliberate and purposeful action. However motivation in relation to work could be defined as the condition of being influenced to do something.

It is the process of influencing workers to give off their very best to their organisation. Simply put it is the driving force that stimulates an individual i.e a worker into action in order to achieve organisational objectives. It is also described as the willful or volitional act on the part of an individual.

However, the key to understanding motivation lies in the meaning and relationship between needs, drives and goals. The needs set up drives to accomplish goals. A need simply means deficiency. Need per se are created as a result of physiological or psychological imbalance. Drive can also implies motive; while goal is defined as anything that can alleviate a need and consequently reduce a drive.

We can look at motivation as involving a chain reaction, starting out with felt needs, resulting in wants or goals sought, which give rise to tensions (that is unfulfilled desires), then causing action toward achieving goals, and finally satisfying wants (Berelton and Steiner, 1964), Hackett (1979), Lussier (2000). Lumpkin (1959) saw motivation as a "force that maintains or alters the quality, intensity and direction of behaviour". It could be further argued that motivation is a force that makes one to do what is aroused to do, constantly influencing the vigour and direction of one's actions. Prominent among behavioural psychologists are Thorndike and Pavlor. These theorists mainly wrote on the analysis of behaviour in terms of reflexes and stimulus response relating muscular and glandular reaction to events but totally left out the consideration for the motivational conditions of the organization in human elements. This is then to say that human organisms have the tendency to arouse to certain level when given the necessary motivation to do so.

However, Lulsegged (1981) compiled the following factors that cause and effect intense motivation in human beings. These are labelled thus:-

- (i) The Job Related: Duties, authority, responsibility, recognition and development in human elements.
- (ii) Capacity Related: Intelligence, education, experience, training, background and personality.
- (iii) Organizational Environment Related: Working conditions, management, supervision, colleagues, salary 'pecks' welfare schemes.
- (iv) Internal Human Pressure Related: Basic needs, mental needs, instincts and attitudes.
- (v) External Pressure Related: Parents, wife, friends, community, general economic situation and personal wealth.

How best to motivate individual to achieve desired objectives has long been one of the world's most important, difficult and controversial problems (Vroom, 1964). This problem has since the medieval periods attracted the attention of Social Scientists, Philosophers as well as Novelists in different parts of the world. The interest of psychologists in this problem dated back to the early part of the twentieth century which is reflected in the emergence and development of industrial psychology and vocational guidance (Vroom, 1964).

A motivated worker would surely perform his duties and contribute to the achievement or organisational goals. On the other hand, a frustrated, push-ruled workers even though may be forced to contribute to production yet it must be realised that while it is possible to push start a stalled car or switch on and off a faulty machines, the human being is none of these. Hence, force will hardly make much impact in getting human beings to perform their assigned tasks satisfactorily.

Motivational Strategies

According to Davis, 1977, four motivational patterns that are especially significant are achievement, affiliation, competence and power. Achievement motivation is a desire to overcome challenges, advance, and grow. Much interest in it was generated by the research of McClelland (1965) of Harvard University. Generally, the countries where achievement motivation predominates are those that have made the most socio-economic progress. Achievement motivation leads to higher levels of aspiration, so the people work harder and make more progress.

Achievement: Achievement motivated persons are the best source of competent leadership in a nation's organizations, and those persons with more achievement motivation tend to rise the highest. Achievement motivated persons seek accomplishment for its own sake. They are not strongly "money hungry", although they may acquire wealth in their drives to achieve. They work because of the sense of challenge accomplishment, and service to others that they feel. Monetary rewards are more a lure to people low in achievement motivation. The irony of all this is that achievement drives persons turn out to be the ones who are not as money-motivated as many others are. However, Luthan (1973) estimated that about 10 percent of the people in the United States are highly achievement-motivated.

Affiliation: Furthermore, affiliation motivation is a drive to relate to people. Comparisons of achievement-motivated employees with affiliated ones will illustrate how the different motivational patterns influence behaviour. People with achievement motivation; work harder when they have precise feedback about their successes and failures. But persons with affiliation motives work better when they are complimented for their favourable attitude and cooperation. Achievement motivated persons select assistants who are competent, regardless of personal feelings about them, however, affiliation motivated people select friends to surround them.

Competence Motivation: However, competence motivation is a drive to do quality work. Competence-motivated employees are so interested in technical aspects of their job that they are blind to the human factor at work. They have job mastery and professional growth. Furthermore, power motivation is a drive to be in control. Power motivated persons tend to be somewhat higher risk-takers than others. They may use power constructively in building successful institutions, but they also may use it destructively in relation to institutions and people.

Motivational Patterns: Additional motivational patterns are autonomy, security, and status. Motivational patterns are not mutually exclusive. The usual person has some of most motivational patterns, but one or two patterns tend to predominate in job motivation. McClelland (1965) believes that less developed nations need a substantial number of citizens with high achievement motivation in order to generate socio-economic development. Fortunately, achievement motivation can be developed. India is a fatalistic/ class society. In India, which has a social climate deficient in achievement motivation, McClelland has been able to double the rate of entrepreneurial activity of persons having a course in achievement motivation. He asks, "Why have policy makers been so slow to act on this knowledge to invest in programmes that would develop people's motives rather than merely their opportunities for work? Knowledge of motivational pattern helps management recognize those employees who are self-motivated, as distinguished from those who depend more on external incentives. Management can then deal with people differently according to their personal motivational patterns.

Financial Incentives: One of the oldest motivational strategies that have been in vogue in organizations is financial incentive. For the vast majority of people, the possibility of higher financial income is a spur to co-operation and effort (William, 1978) and in support, Tobeset.al. (1977) Observed that the idea of money as a prime motivation dies hard. They were of the opinion that "Money is an important incentive in society, because it represents the power to save or the power to spend money, buys things that people value thus providing a psychological lift through the acquisition of economic goal. Money should therefore be looked upon as instrument among many for managing motivation. Donaldson and Scannel (1979) have contended that man is primarily motivated to achieve desired goals by money. However, in contrary Whyte (1959); Brown (1974); Elton Mayo (1954) and Herzberg (1968) have argued that money is less significant to motivate the workers to engage in work judiciously and efficiently. The critics, argued, that though money is important to gear people to work, but to use money to make people to work harder will only provide temporary returns.

Fear/Punishment: However, Young, 1966; Ajayi, 1983, Akindele 1999 and Raymond 2001 were of the opinion that people would work best when they are forced into a situation in which they must produce or be punished. This is of the assumption that when emotional tension is aroused, the individual will become more highly motivated to do the right thing or accept the reassuring alternative.

Training Benefits: Donaldson and Scannel (1979) are of the view that by relating training benefits to employees' needs also motivate them, by making the trainee to realise that the ultimate goal of the trainee with the following: feeling of pride, a voice in decision, authority, honest praise, comfort ability in associations and tasks, rapid promotion on the job and the opportunity to grow in the organization.

Advancement: More so, Williams (1978) has equally observed that advancement opportunity is an expected form of compensation because they increase the probability that manager and his subordinate will receive praises and promotions. He further argued that advancement provides a hedge against managerial obsolescence and contribute to the sense of security and independence managers' experience when their services are in high demand. However, one can argue that advancement motivation can only be initially strongly appreciated and that after a certain point it becomes regarded as common or natural condition.

Job security: This has become a well-recognized goal for individual action. Unemployment issuance, old age pensions and formation of trade unions against the wanton dismissal or threat or punishment by the organization have grown by leaps and bands in recent time. For example, in July 1979, Parliamentary ordered in Britain made changes to the qualifying period of redundancy consultation. This legislative backing on worker's existence on the job was a national protection for job held by employees. In U.S.S.R., the citizens have full rights to gainful employment as against the practice in most under developed countries where employment's right is more or less a privilege.

The studies of Brenner, (1977); Jurgenson, (1948), Nearley, (1964), Nwachuckwu (1988), Aluko (1988), Akindele (1999) revealed that workers ranked job security first, opportunity for advancement second, and pay increase third, as effective strategies to motivate job performance.

Furthermore, Ubeku (1975) provides the following principles concerning the motivation of employees to work first, people work best when they considered that their work is important, that is, it is necessary to make an employee feel that his job is a part of the total process and without it, the process is not complete.

Job Enrichment: People get most satisfaction from the job itself; therefore, effort should be made to enrich the job if satisfaction is to be achieved. Thirdly, self-direction and self-development are essential for personnel commitment, which lead to effective results. In addition, recognition and required need to be provided and related to result for sustained effectiveness. Finally, the manager must be optimistic about success. A manager who looks at the bright side of things can help boost the sagging morals of these subordinates.

Recognition and Acceptance: More so, Likert (1952) advocated that workers would readily be motivated by the following additions: a new work of supportive relation, a high involvement, and a compensation programme developed through participation, a generous flow of mutual confidence, and trust, a widely dispersed decision process and a responsibility for review and control. Studies by Taiwo (1984) and Okojie (1985) indicated that participation as a motivational strategy is becoming increasingly popular. People are perhaps greatly motivated when they are consulted on matters affecting them and by taking decisions on tasks that they would be performing. In essence, participation creates room for recognition and acceptance.

Psychic Rewards: Mayo and Associates (1933) observed that psychic rewards had proved more effective than other rewards. Mayo spearheaded the human relation movement (approach) in his experiences at the Western Electric Company. He highlighted other factors that could lead to increase productivity and reiterated that 'when workers are in the limelight, they feel important and feel a sense of belonging to the organization when their opinions are called for and considered.

Job design: Furthermore, Schultz (1978) argues that the design of the job can influence morale and motivation at work. To him job enlargement is removing controls over employees and increasing their personal responsibility for their work. Giving employees more authority and freedom in their jobs, providing feedback production directly to workers, encouraging workers to assume new and more difficult tasks and allowing workers to become experts or specialist in a particular task. All these have been successful method of improving morale and motivation.

Job Enrichment: How do we build motivation into the job? This could best be done through job enrichment. In this case, job enrichment refers to the installation of motivation or motivator factors into individual's job. Meyers (1968) argued that job enrichment is a special form of job enlargement, which can be horizontal or vertical. To him, horizontal job enlargement presupposes conditions in which individuals are given a greater variety of tasks to do with no increase in the level of decision-making responsibility. Thus, it leads to performance increase on the part of workers, while vertical job enlargement takes the form of more planning, more controlling and more team participation on the part of employees. It also frees supervisors of many checking functions although the proportion of time spent on the planning, controlling and training aspects of the job increases. Probably, the most important ingredient of an enriched job lies on how a supervisor uses it on the workers.

Job enrichment is one form of job design. It involves redesigning jobs to provide a more meaningful package for each employee. Rather than simply adding additional tasks to a job to provide more variety (called job enlargement), a conscious effort is made to include more planning and controlling activities thus providing more autonomy and challenge for the person. Attempt is made to automate repetitive aspects of the job or to push them to lower job classifications (Meyers, 1970; Ford, 1973).

Job Enlargement: This concept, pioneered by I.B.M and Netroit Edison, is quite consistent with theory Y. It encourages the acceptance of responsibility at the bottom of the organization; it provides opportunities for satisfying social and egoistic needs. In fact, the reorganization of work at the factory level offers one of the more challenging opportunities for innovation consistent with theory Y.

Many contemporary improvement strategies focus on the performance or the tasks of individuals. The individual, or the individual's job, is the target of change. However, most such strategies require changes in the behaviour or roles of other persons if the strategies are to be successful. It should be noted that most training programmes in organizations, and the encouragement of employees to take courses offered by schools and universities and other institutions are organizational-improvement strategies aimed at the individual. The assumption is usually made that the individual can make a more valuable contribution to the organization as a result of training. Again, this assumption may be only partially valid, in that the attitudes or awareness of others may need to change if the training is to be utilized effectively. Four individual performance improvement strategies, in particular, have received considerable publicity in recent years. They are job enrichment, positive reinforcement, management by objectives, and the T-group.

Job Characteristics: Of the five job characteristics fostering the emergence of the psychological states, three contribute to the experienced meaningfulness of the work, and one each contributes to experienced responsibility and to knowledge of results. The three job dimensions that contribute to job meaningfulness are:

(1) **Skill Variety:** The degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person. When a task requires a person to engage in activities that challenge or stretch his or her skills and abilities, the individual almost invariably experiences that task as meaningful. Many parlour games, puzzles, and recreational activities, for example, achieve much of their fascination because they tap and test the intellectual or motor skills of the people who do them. When a job draws upon several skills of an employee, that individual may find the job to be of very high personal meaning even if, in any absolute sense, it is not of great significance or importance.

(2) **Task Identity:** The degree to which the job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. If an employee assembles a complete product or provides a complete product of service, he or she should find the work more meaningful than if he or she were responsible for only a small part of the whole job.

(3) **Task Significance:** The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.

When individuals understand that the results of their work may have a significant effect on the well being of other people, the experienced meaningfulness of the work usually is enhanced. Employees who tighten nuts in aircraft brake assemblies, for example, are more likely to perceive their work as meaningful than other workers who fill small boxes with paper clips even though the skill levels involved may be comparable.

The job characteristic predicted to prompt feelings of personal responsibility for the work outcomes is autonomy. "Autonomy" is defined as the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

To the extent that autonomy is high, work outcomes will be viewed by workers as depending substantially on their own efforts, initiatives, and decisions, rather than in the adequacy of instructions from the boss or on a manual of job procedures, in such circumstances, individuals should feel a strong personal responsibility for the successes and failures that occur on the job.

The job characteristic that fosters knowledge of results is feedback, which is defined as the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual's obtaining direct and clear information about the effective-ness of his or her performance. It is often useful to combine the scores of a job on the five dimensions described above into a single index reflecting the overall potential of the job to prompt self-generated work motivation on the part of job incumbents

Understanding Motivation: The Use of Theories

There are many theories of motivation that managers can use to improve their understanding of why people behave as they do. None provides a universally accepted explanation of human behaviour. People are far too complex. The purpose of this paper in presenting the most popular theories is not to identify the one best approach. Rather, it is to introduce ideas that managers can use to develop their own motivational approach.

Content and Process

The two most discussed groups of theories are content theories and process theories. Content theories are concerned with identifying what it is within an individual or the work environment that energizes and sustains behaviour (Campbell et al. 1970). That is, what specific things motivate people? On the other hand, process theories try to explain and describe the process of how behaviour is energized, directed, sustained, and finally stopped. Process theories first attempt to define the major variables necessary for explaining choice (e.g., should I work hard), effort (e.g., how much do I need to work), and persistence (e.g., how long do I have to keep this pace).

However, for the content theories we shall examine, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Herzberg's two-factor theory and McClelland's achievement Motivation theory among others. While for the process theories we shall examine Carrot and the Stick, Elton Mayo Need, Expectancy theory (Vroom), Porter and Lawler, and McGregor theory X and Y also among others.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow was a psychologist who developed theory of human motivation, and classified human needs into five categories in a hierarchical manner, that is movement

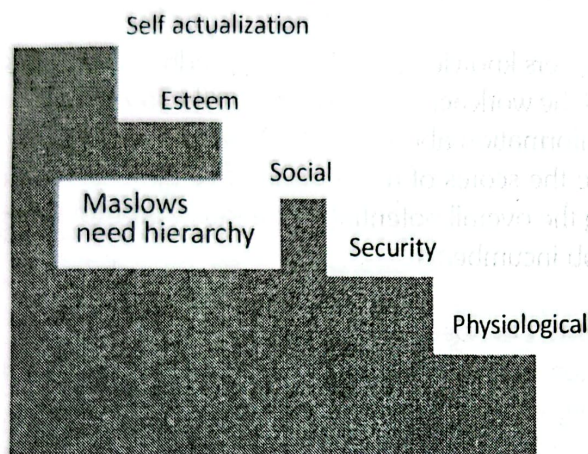
from one to another after a need has been satisfied. S

Maslow's need hierarchy theory has enjoyed widespread acceptance, since it was introduced around 1943. His theory of motivation stresses two fundamental premises:

1. Man is a wanting animal whose needs depend on what he already has. Only needs not yet satisfied can influence behaviour. In other words, a satisfied need is not a motivator.
2. Man's needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance. Once one need is satisfied, another emerges and demands satisfaction.

Maslow hypothesized five levels of needs. These needs are (1) physiological, (2) safety, (3) social, (4) esteem, and (5) self-actualisation. He placed them in a framework referred to as the hierarchy of needs because of the different levels of importance. This framework is presented in Figure

Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory



Source: Maslow 1945

Maslow states that if all of a person's needs are unsatisfied at a particular time, satisfaction of the more predominant needs will be more pressing than the others. Those that come first must be satisfied before a higher-level need comes into play. Let us briefly examine each need level:

1. **Physiological Needs:** This category consists of the human body's primary needs, such as food, water, and sex. Physiological needs will dominate when they are unsatisfied, and no other needs will serve as a basis for motivation. As Maslow states, "a person who is lacking food, safety, love, and esteem probably would hunger for food more strongly than for anything else.
2. **Safety Needs:** When physiological needs are adequately met, the next higher level of needs assumes importance. Safety needs include protection from physical harm, ill health, economic disaster, and the unexpected. From a managerial standpoint, safety needs show up in an employee's attempts to ensure job security and fringe benefits.
3. **Social Needs:** These needs are related to the social nature of people and their need for companionship. Here, the hierarchy departs from the physical or quasi-physical needs of the two previous levels. Non-satisfaction of this level of need may affect the mental health of the individual.
4. **Esteem Needs:** The need for both awareness of importance to others (self-esteem) and actual esteem from others is included. Esteem from others must also be felt

as warranted and deserved. Satisfaction of these needs leads to feeling of self-confidence and prestige.

5. Self-Actualisation Needs: Maslow defines these needs as the "desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything one is capable of becoming. This means that the individual will realize fully the potentialities of talents and capabilities. Obviously, as the role of an individual varies, so will the external aspects of self-actualisation

Applying Maslow's Theory in Management: The need hierarchy theory is widely accepted and referred to by practicing managers. Although it does not provide a complete understanding of human motivation or the means to motivate people, it does not provide an excellent starting point for the students of management. The hierarchy is easy to comprehend, has a great deal of commonsense validity, and points out some of the factors that motivate people in business and other types of organizations. For example, most organizations in industrialized nations such as the United States, Canada, Japan, and West Germany, have been extremely successful in satisfying lower-level needs.

Criticism of Maslow's Theory

It is worth mentioning that Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been subjected to constant challenges and modifications. For instance, Lawler and Suttle (1972; 1975) challenged the assertion that man strives to achieve these needs in the work place and concluded that no such hierarchy exists within the context of work organizations. They further found that there were two levels of needs biological and other needs and that the other needs would emerge only when biological needs were reasonably satisfied.

Schultz (1978) observed that most working people today are to satisfy physiological and safety needs in contrast to Maslow's view. He was of the opinion that though inter-personal relationship on the job, we may also be able to satisfy belonging and love needs. However the esteem needs prestige, success, self respect can be satisfied in our personal life by buying a bigger house and on the job by status indicators such as the manager's parking spaces. Nevertheless, in highly professional organizations such as Research and Development Groups, many people seem to be motivated by social, ego and self-fulfilment simultaneously.

In conclusion, despite criticism and modification of Maslow's theory of motivation, the theory still holds and perhaps the most widely referred to by academics and scholars of motivation.

Herzberg two Factor Theory (1966)

Herzberg (1966) in his "Two Factor Theory", postulated that "the factors involved in producing job satisfaction (which produces motivation) are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction (which produces hostility)". He found that employees named different types of conditions for good and bad feeling; the lack of achievement was rarely given as cause for bad job feelings. Instead some other factors such as company policy was given as a cause for bad feelings.

Herzberg concluded that some job conditions operates primarily to dissatisfy employees when the conditions are absent, but their presence does not motivate employees in a strong way. Management traditionally perceives many of these factors as motivators, but the factors are really more potent as dissatisfiers. These potent dissatisfiers are called

HYGIENE FACTORS, OR MAINTENANCE FACTORS, in the job, because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction in employees.

However, another set of job conditions operates primarily to build strongly dissatisfying. These conditions are known as motivational factors, motivators, or satisfiers. For many years managers had been wondering why their fancy personnel policies and fringe benefits were not increasing employee's motivation on the job. The distinction of motivational and maintenance factors helped answer their question, because fringe benefits and personnel policies were shown to be primarily maintenance factors.

Furthermore, the original Herzberg studies included six motivational factors: achievement, recognition, advancement, work itself, possibility of growth, and responsibility. There were ten maintenance factors: Company policy and administration, technical supervision, interpersonal relations with supervisors, interpersonal relations with peers, interpersonal relations with subordinates, salary, job security, personal life, working conditions and status. However, motivational factors such as achievement and responsibility mostly are related directly to the job itself, the employee's performance on it, and the recognition and growth that are secured from it. Motivators are mostly job-centred: they relate to job content. While maintenance factors mostly are related to the environment includes company policy and working conditions as well as interpersonal relations with others. Maintenance factors are mostly environment centred; they relate to job context. This difference between job content and job context is a significant one. It shows that employees primarily are motivated strongly by what they do for themselves. When they handle responsibility or gain recognition through their own behaviour, they are strongly motivated. If these conclusions are correct, then management's proper role becomes one of providing a proper environment for employees' accomplishment. The employee performs the work, and management provides the supportive environment.

In interpreting the motivation maintenance model, it could be said that the model represents general tendencies only. Items that are designated as maintenance factors may serve as motivators to some people, and items that normally are motivators may be maintenance factors to other people. Further still, the motivation maintenance model is known as the two factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction because it suggests that job satisfiers and dissatisfiers are two qualitatively different factors. This two-factor idea has created much criticism by persons who report research that does not support the two-factor model. Martin G. Evans 1970 holds the view that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two opposite points on a single continuum. However Edwin A. Locke and Roman J. Siting (1974) reasoned that when the Herzberg method is applied and people are asked to report favourable job situation, their egos lead them to report things that they have done. When unfavourable situations are reported, then their egos lead them to report things that others have done, such as improper treatment from a supervisor. Others have said that the model does not give sufficient emphasis to the motivating qualities of pay, status, and inter-personal relations. Admittedly, these are important employee motivators; however, the motivation-maintenance model gives credit primarily to their maintenance capabilities.

Applying Herzberg's theory in management: Few would argue that Herzberg still contributes substantially to our thinking on motivation at work. He certainly has extended Maslow's ideas and made them more applicable to the work situation. He has drawn attention to the critical importance, in work motivation, of job-centred factors previously given little

attention by behavioural scientists. This insight has resulted in an increased interest in job enrichment, an effort to restructure jobs to increase worker satisfaction.

Herzberg's response to motivation problems is an important one. Traditionally, managers would respond to motivation problems with more money, increased fringe benefits, and improved working conditions. Often, the result of such actions was still no more effort to work harder. Herzberg's theory offers an explanation for this situation. If managers focus only on maintenance factors, motivation will not occur. The motivators must be built into the job to improve motivation.

Criticism of Herzberg's theory, one limitation of Herzberg's original study and conclusions is that the subjects consisted of engineers and accountants. That these individuals were in such positions indicates that they had the motivation to seek advanced education and expected to be rewarded. The same may not hold true for the non-professional worker. In fact, some testing of Herzberg's model on blue-collar workers showed that some of the factors considered as maintenance factors by Herzberg (pay and job security) are considered by blue-collar workers to be motivational factors. Some critics believe that Herzberg's inference concerning differences between dissatisfiers and motivators cannot be completely accepted and that the differences between stated sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Herzberg's study might be the result of defensive processes within those responding. Critics point out that people are apt to attribute the causes of satisfaction to their own achievements but likely to attribute their dissatisfaction more to obstacles presented by company policies or superiors than to their own deficiencies. Other critics believe that the two-factor theory is an oversimplification of the true relationship between motivation and dissatisfaction as well as between the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Reviews of several studies show that one factor can cause job satisfaction for one person and job dissatisfaction for another.

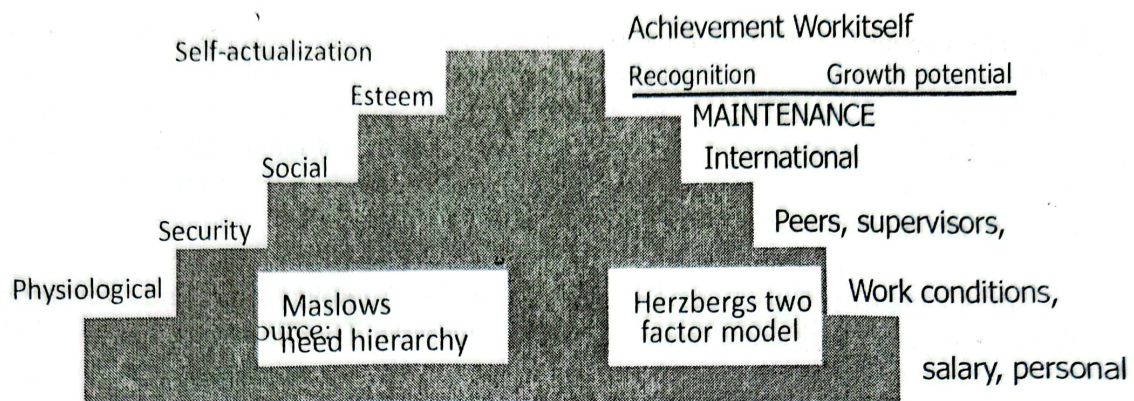
Since his original study, Herzberg has cited numerous replications of the original study that support his position. These subsequent studies were conducted on professional women, hospital maintenance personnel, agricultural administrators, nurses, food handlers, manufacturing supervisors, engineers, scientists, military officers, managers ready for retirement, teachers, technicians, and assemblers. And some were conducted in other cultural settings: Finland, Hungary, Russia, and Yugoslavia.

However, some researchers have used the same research methods employed by Herzberg and obtained results different from what his theory would predict while several using different methods have also obtained contradictory results.

Comparing Herzberg's and Maslow's Models

There is much similarity between Herzberg's and Maslow's models. A close examination of Herzberg's ideas indicates that what he is actually saying is that some employees may have achieved a level of social and economic progress such that the higher-level needs of Maslow (esteem and self-actualisation) are the primary motivators. However, they still must satisfy the lower-level needs for the maintenance of their current state. Thus, we can see that money might still be a motivator for non-management workers (particularly those at a low wage level) and for some managerial employees. In addition, Herzberg's model adds to Maslow's model, because it breaks down the five need levels into two job-oriented categories: maintenance and motivational. Figure 2 compares the structure of the two.

Figure 2: A Comparison of the Maslow and Herzberge. Theories: Similarities



Source: McClelland's Need Theory (1953)

McClelland (1953) contributed to the understanding of motivation by power (N/PWR); need for affiliation (N/AFF); and need for achievement (N/ACH).

- 1. Need for Power:** McClelland and associates have found that people with a high need for power have a great concern exercising influence and control. Such individuals generally are seeking positions of leadership; they are frequently good conversationalists though often argumentative they enjoy teaching and public speaking.
- 2. Need for Affiliation:** People with a high need for affiliation usually derive pleasure from being loved and tend to avoid the idea of being rejected by a social group. They are likely to be concerned with maintaining a pleasant social relationship, to enjoy a sense of intimacy and understanding to get ready to console and help latter in trouble, and to enjoy friendly interaction with others.
- 3. Need for Achievement:** The people with high need for achievement have an intense desire for success and an equally intense fear of failure. They want to be challenged, set moderately difficult (but not impossible) goals for themselves, take a realistic approach to risk; prefer to assume personal responsibility to get a job done, tend to be restless and like to work hours. This type of need governs an individual orientation the tasks he faces in the organization.

How McClelland's Approach Applies to Managers

Researches conducted by McClelland and others, entrepreneurs showed a very high need for achievement and a fearly high need-for-power drive, but were quite low in need for affiliation. Managers generally showed high on achievement and power and low on affiliation, but not as high or low as entrepreneurs (Weinrich, 1983).

McClelland found the pattern of achievement motivation clearest in small companies, with the president normally having very high achievement motivation. In large companies, interestingly enough, he found chief executives only to be average in achievement motivation and often stronger in the upper middle level of management in such companies rated higher than their presidents in achievement motivation. Perhaps, as McClelland indicated,

these scores are understandable. The chief executive has "arrived" and those below him are striving to advance. However, it has been found true that people who rate high tend to advance faster than those who do not. But because so much of managing requires other characteristics besides achievement drive, it is probable that every company should have many managers who while possessing fairly strong achievement motivation also have a high need for affiliation. This latter need is important for working with people and for co-ordinating the efforts of individuals working groups (Weinrich, 1983).

McGregor Theory X and Theory Y (1960)

This approach is often called the "Participative" school of management. Its focus is on involving organizational members in the decision making process to increase motivation, to give them a clearer picture of the factors involved and to make them potentially capable of performing more effectively in their job. This approach is identified with organization "In search of Excellence" (Thomas and Robert, 1982).

McGregor identifies the psychological assumptions, generalisations and hypotheses about human nature and behaviour that underline these two approaches. He named them theory X (classical) and theory Y (participative).

Theory X has certain assumptions about human behaviour which include the following:

- i. That the average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.
- ii. That all typical person lacks responsibility, has little ambition, and seeks security above all.
- iii. Most people must be coerced, controlled, and threatened with punishment to get them to work.

With these assumptions the management role is to coerce and control employees.

However, assumptions that characterize Theory Y view of human behaviour according to McGregor includes:

- i. Work is natural as play or rest.
- ii. People are not inherently lazy; they have become that way as a result of experience.
- iii. People will exercise self-direction and self control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.
- iv. People have potential. Under proper conditions they learn to accept and seek responsibility. They have imagination, ingenuity, and creativity that can be applied to work.

With these assumptions, the managerial role is to develop the potential in employees and help to realize that potential toward common objectives.

McGregor concluded that his Theory Y approach to behaviour is the best one for manager to follow. Many managers have observed that in some companies and situations a management style learning towards Theory X works while in others it fails miserably and conversely, a management style learning towards Theory Y, while having successful application in some situation, does not always work well in others. In trying to resolve this difficulty, Morse and Lorsch (1974), developed a contingency theory based on the nature of the task or work. They proposed that managers "must design and develop organisations so that the organizational characteristics fit the nature of the task to be done".

Morse and Lorsch (1974) concluded that the task organization fit is simultaneously linked to both individual motivation and effective unit performance.

In conclusion, theories X and Y are the underlying beliefs and are not themselves managerial strategies; they have become synonymous with styles of management.

Expectancy Theory of Motivation

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

This theory was propounded by a psychologist named Victor H. Vroom in 1964, based on earlier work by others. This model however has been expanded, modified and refined by Porter and Lowler and others.

Expectancy theory and reinforcement theory centred mainly on how motivation occurs. In fact there are three major elements in the expectancy theory according to Vroom, they are (i) Choice (ii) Expectancy and (iii) Preference.

Choice: It simply represents the individual's willingness and freedom to select and pick from a number of alternative behaviours. In fact the theory suggests that individuals are motivated at work to make choices among different behaviours or intensities of work effort. For example a worker may decide to work fast or slow; hard or moderate, he may either stay at home or come to work. However in some cases, working fast may lead to more pay if compensation is simply based on the number of units produced. More so, if a worker believes that his or her effort at the work will be rewarded adequately he will make a choice of working so that he/she can receive the reward that follows. Therefore the logic of expectancy motivation according to Donnelly, (1984) is that "Individuals will exert work effort to achieve performance which will result in preferred rewards.

Expectancy

Expectancy is the belief that a particular act will be followed by particular outcomes. Put in another form it is the belief that a particular behaviour will or will not be successful. It is a subjective probability. It represents employee judgment of the probability that achieving one result will lead to another result. Expectancy would be "0" if a person believed that it was impossible to produce, say 20 units of output per day; it would be equal to "1" if a person believed or felt certain that he or she could produce 15 units per day.

Preference

The values a person associated to various outcomes are regarded as preference. The outcome here can be in form of rewards or punishment. According to Vroom, the preferences, are also referred to as valences. Therefore in another word Valence refers to the strength of a person's preference for one outcome in relation to others. It is an expression of the amount of one's desire for a goal. Take for example, if an employee strongly wants a promotion, it is said that the promotion has high valence for the employee. The valence arises out of employee's internal self as conditioned by experience, and it varies from person to person.

Valence may be positive or negative depending on the preference for the outcome, but if a person is indifferent to an outcome, then Valence is zero.

Instrumentality

This is another issue covered in the expectancy model of motivation. It is the probability that a person assigns to the performance outcome link. It is the probability that a particular performance level will lead to a specific outcome Donnelly (1988).

Applying the Expectancy Theory in Management

Managers can influence expectancies by selecting (hiring) individuals with particular skills and abilities, training people to improve their skills and abilities, and providing individuals with the leadership support to achieve a particular level of performance. The manager also can influence instrumentalities by being supportive, realistic, and offering advice. The manager can influence preferences by listening to employee needs, guiding employees to help them accomplish desired outcomes and providing proper resources to achieve the desired performance.

It is important for managers to understand the vital role of perception in motivation. A person's expectancies, instrumentalities, and valences depend upon a person's perceptions. The importance of perceptual differences among workers with similar skill levels is made obvious by the expectancy theory. Different levels of motivation among people with similar skills could be explained in terms of perceptual differences.

Criticisms of Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory is more complex than either Maslow's or Herzberg's theory. There also are problems of measuring and studying the main variables in the model. How should preferences be determined? How should expectancy be determined? However, despite the lack of tested validity, the expectancy model still adds insight in the role that perception plays in choices, expectancy, and preferences. We might ask each reader: Do you make choices? Do you have expectancies? Do you have reward preferences?

Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement theory is another widely discussed process theory of motivation. Reinforcement theory considers the use of positive or negative reinforcers to motivate or create an environment of motivation. This theory of motivation is not concerned with needs or why people make choices. Instead it is concerned with the environment and its consequences for the person. That is, behaviour is considered to be environmentally caused. For example, suppose Richard Akindele, a hard-working employee, is given a N100 bonus for doing a good job. In the future, Richard continues to work hard, expecting another bonus payment. Why does Richard continue to work hard? When Richard first worked hard, his behaviour was reinforced by a N100 bonus. This reinforcement is an environmental consequence of good performance.

The explanation of why Richard continued to work hard, according to reinforcement theory, centres on Thorndike's law of effect, which states that behaviour that results in a pleasing outcome will be likely to be repeated; behaviour that results in an unpleasant outcome is not likely to be repeated.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool used for changing employees' behaviour. The term operant conditioning in the management literature applies to controlling work behaviour by manipulating the consequences. It is based on the research work of

psychologist B. F. Skinner and is built on two principles: (1) Thorndike's law of effect and (2) properly scheduled rewards influence individual behaviours. Behaviour modification is the contemporary term used to describe techniques for applying the principles of operant conditioning to the control of individual behaviour.

Applying Reinforcement Theory in Management

Suppose you are a manager and your employee Mary Iyiola is always late with required budget reports. There are four types of reinforcement that you could use. First, you could focus on reinforcing the desired behaviour (which, in this example, is preparing budget reports on time). You could use positive or negative reinforcement. Positive reinforcement would include rewards such as praise, recognition, or a pay bonus. Negative reinforcement also focuses on reinforcing the desired behaviour. However, instead of providing a positive reward, the "reward" is that the employee avoids some negative consequence. Thus, Mary would complete the report on time to avoid the negative consequence of being reprimanded by her manager.

The Porter and Lawler Model, 1968

As this model indicates, "effort" (the strength of motivation and energy exerted) depends on the "value of a reward plus the perceived energy a person believes is required and the probability of actually receiving the reward. The perceived effort and probability of reward are in turn, also influenced by the record of actual "performance".

Actual performance in a job (the doing of tasks or the meeting of goals) is determined principally by effort expended.

But it is also greatly influenced by an individual's ability (knowledge and skills) to do it and his or her "perception" of what the required task is (the extent to which goals, required activities, and other elements of a task are understood). Performance, in turn, is seen as leading to "intrinsic rewards" (such as a sense of accomplishment or self-actualisation) and "extrinsic rewards" (such as working conditions and status). These, as tempered by what the individual perceives as "equitable rewards", lead to "satisfaction". But performance also influences perceived equitable rewards. As can be readily understood, what the individual perceives as a fair reward for effort will necessarily affect the satisfaction derived. Likewise, the actual value of reward will be influenced by satisfaction.

Implication for Practice

The Porter and Lawler model of motivation, while more complex than other theories of motivation, is almost certainly a more adequate portrayal of the system of motivation. To the practicing manager, this means that motivation is not a simple cause and effect matter. It means, too, that managers should carefully assess their reward structures and that through careful planning, managing by objectives, and clear definition of duties and responsibilities by good organization structuring, the effort performance reward satisfaction system should be integrated into an entire system of managing.

Motivation: The Carrot and the Stick

In examining the various leading theories of motivation and motivators, one seldom hears recently any reference to "the Carrot and the Stick". This is of course, the use of rewards and penalties in order to induce desired behaviour and comes from the old story that the

best way to make a donkey work is to put a Carrot out in front of him or jab him with a stick from behind.

Despite all the researches and theories of motivation that have come to the fore in recent years, it should not be forgotten that reward and punishment are still strong motivators. In all theories of motivation, the inducements brought by some kind of "carrot" are recognised. Often this is money in the form of pay or bonuses even though it is somewhat fashionable for writers to say that money is no longer a strong motivator. To be sure, it is not the only motivating force, but it has been and will continue to be an important one.

The trouble with the money "carrot" approach is that too often everyone gets a carrot regardless of performance, through such practices as salary increases, and promotion by seniority, automatic "merit" increases, and executive bonuses not based on individual manager performance. It is as simple as this: If a person puts a donkey in a pen full of carrots and then stood outside with a carrot in his hand, would the donkey be induced to come out of the pen?

The "stick" in the form of fear - fear of loss of job, loss of income, reduction of bonus, demotion, or some other penalty has been and continues to be a strong motivator. However, it is admittedly not the best kind. It often gives rise to defensive or retaliatory behaviour, such as union organization, poor-quality workmanship, executive indifferences, failure of a manager to take any risk in decision-making or even dishonesty. But fear of penalty cannot be overlooked.

Having gone through the related literature review and theoretical framework, the following motivational strategies among others are put in place, namely: Financial motivation, Training as a sort of motivation, Advancement motivation, Job security as a form of motivation, Psychic Reward, Job Design, Participation as a motivational strategy, Achievement motivation, Affiliation motivation, Competence and Power motivation, Autonomy motivation, Security motivation, Status motivation and Fear motivation.

Since motivational strategies in the literature are many, the content of this study cannot accommodate all of them, therefore, for the purpose of this study, the researcher examined financial motivation, Advancement motivation, Fear motivation, Job Security and Job Design as his theoretical framework. The choice of these five was that they are most popularly used in Nigerian organizations. Further still, the researcher hoped that explaining motivation as a process of stimulating people to action to achieve desired objectives or accomplish a desired task, it is as well as a stimulating oneself to action to gratify a self-need.

However, as regards gender, previous studies tend to focus mostly on women in administration, professional and white-collar areas since this is where the bulk of recent research on women within work and organizational psychology has been carried out. But even this is very recent and there is much more to be done before the male imbalance of research in work and organizational psychology is righted. However for the purpose of this research, subjects were drawn from Administrative, production and marketing departments to enable the researcher, have an empirical study of the relationship between gender and motivational variables.

Workers and Motivation

Historical Background of Nigerian Workers

Nigerian workers are looked into from three perspectives in this paper; they are: public, private and academics. The theories of motivation become relevant in the sense that Nigerian workers began to dissatisfied with their work dated back to 1939 when Railway Workers Union under the leadership of Michael Imoudu in 1942. By 1945, the only labour movement was the trade Union Congress. The congress received such tremendous support from workers that it felt strong enough to demand a cost of living increase over the awards made in 1942. However, the Government refused and consequently a general strike was called which lasted 45 days. In a nutshell the above are the exodus of Nigerian workers problem. Therefore this paper is to find a lasting solution through motivational strategies to the problems of absenteeism, lateness, not on seat syndrome and general attitude to work.

Recommendation and Conclusion

The issue of motivation is a very complex one to the extent that it becomes difficult for any organization to map out individuals specific needs at work. On this note, for Nigerian workers to contribute more meaningfully to the economic development of this nation and the world at large, the following recommendations are made as a result of this study:

The use of fear/threat as a motivating strategy should be de-emphasized in organizations in view of the fact that it can generate negative feelings among the workers. Fear can be more destructive to initiative of workers rather than achieving organizational objectives.

Employee need to be promptly paid in terms of salaries, bonuses and other entitlement so as to raise their standard of living and be able to adjust to the present situation in the country.

In addition employees should be motivated by the provision of social amenities such as work recess, free access to management, adequate health care programmes for self and family equitable work schedule and vacations.

The organizational climate must be conducive to workers. The security and safety of workers should be given proper attention. This can be taken good care of by providing adequate job security, safer working conditions, life insurance and attractive retirement benefits to workers.

More so, there is need for management to ensure developmental programmes among its workers. In other words, training and development of adequate facilities for general and technical education of employee should be given adequate attention.

Further still, proper personnel evaluation should also be periodically set into motion to assess from time to time the performance of the employees and to reward them accordingly. Managers cannot all by himself perform all the tasks under his schedule of responsibilities, as such, he must find ways of making his subordinates want to work with and for him. This can be done by changing the attitudes and orientations of workers towards work. However, workers perception should be changed through psychological methods.

Finally, it should be reiterated that some of the motivational systems which are recommended are often temporary especially when they are expected to carry the primary responsibility of ensuring employees job performance for a long period. This could partly be due to law of diminishing return, which is inherent in human nature. Having realized this basic fact, caution must be taken by the management in the choice and application of motivational strategies in organization.

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