THE EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION ON PRODUCTIVITY IN NYAGATARE DISTRICT-RWANDA

BY

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DECLARATION

THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION ON PRODUCTIVITY IN NYAGATARE DISTRICT-RWANDA

I, NIMUSIMA Pereez declare that this thesis is my original work as a result of an independent study. It has never been submitted to any institution for academic considerations and a ward.

(Signed)--

NIMUSIMA PEREEZ

September 2009

APPROVAL

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as University Supervisors at Bishop Stuart University.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my God the creator, my parents, my dear wife NATUKUNDA Patience, my son NIMUSIMA Remy, brothers, sisters, all family members, relatives and friends.

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This work would have not been completed without the valuable support of various people. My sincere gratitude goes to Associate Professor Elijah Dickens Mushemeza, Coordinator Graduate Programmes and Dean of Faculty of Business and Development studies Bishop Stuart University whose counsel, technical advice and encouragement kept me enthused. His professional reading and corrections as my first supervisor also deserves mention. Professor Jossy R.Bibangambah owes my credit for his direction to the concept proposal development. Dr. Munyambonera Ezra and Dr. Joseph Wasswa Matovu as external examiners were big resources in this noble cause. Their consistent effort to read my thesis, the moral advice and corrections is worth appreciation.

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LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

BHR	Banque del'Habitats du Rwanda (Housing bank of Rwanda)
ETC	Et caetera (and others)
HRD	Human Resource Development
I.E	That is
MS	Microsoft word
NSSR	National Social Security Fund of Rwanda
RAMA	Rwanda d'assurance maladie (Rwandan medical insurance)
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ABSTRACT

The study that preceded this thesis was carried out in Nyagatare District in the Eastern province of Rwanda. It sought to establish the effect of motivation on productivity in the above mentioned District. The targeted population comprised the employees of Nyagatare District where a sample of 90 respondents was chosen. A cross-sectional survey design was conducted and primary data collected through semi-structured questionnaires. The study was both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Purposive, stratified and systematic sampling techniques were adopted during sample selection. Data collected was analysed using the analysis function of the Statistical package for the Social sciences (SPSS).

The findings indicate that employees were experiencing poor or no motivation as manifested by employees' willingness to leave the institution in case they got a better offer elsewhere, the responsibilities and tasks the District assigns them do not match with their remunerations, District had had no training of its staff in the last ten months and when the Performance appraisal is done, the results are never communicated to employees, the District doesn't reward excellent performing staff, not every District staff takes part in the decision making process chain etc. This eventually leads to lower commitment and lower productivity. A statistically significant positive relationship between motivation and productivity was also realized. Motivation and productivity were positively related.

Finally, the study recommended prioritization of training and enlightening of the management of the Nyagatare district management about the importance of the fair

distribution of rewards among employees and having a formalized structure of rewarding employees. A research conduct on “The impact of the employee Motivation on the overall employee commitment in any service institution” would be informative.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This thesis is a result of conceptualization and systematic investigation on motivation and pertinent effects on productivity in Nyagatare District-Rwanda. This chapter therefore presents the rationale for the study tackling the background to the research conduct, problem statement, purpose and objectives of the study, research questions, scope, significance and conceptual framework of the study.

1.1 Background to the study.

The role of motivation in influencing worker's behaviour and productivity has been recognized ever since the days of Frederick Winslow Tailor (1856-1915) on rational analysis and scientific management. Tailor, with his contemporaries (Elton Mayo 1927, Henri Fayol 1868-1925; Max Webber 1864-1920; Karl Marx 1818-83 etc) in their classical organizational theory believed that men and women at work are entirely economic beings; therefore they could work hard only if they improved their economic positions- (Richard, Daft L. 1991). This means that economic rewards were provided to employees for performance which resulted into high productivity. At the beginning of twentieth Century managers and scholars in the field of management were concerned with improving the productivity of organizations within which work was performed. Therefore they directed their efforts to finding ways how work and organizations should be managed so that there are higher levels of productivity and at lower costs of production.

Motivation arguably is one of the most important means of boosting worker morale and satisfaction and thus productivity.

The process of achieving high productivity is a result of many interacting forces. Motivation is one of the major physical and psychological factors that affect productivity; others include but not limited to the following: Employee training and development (HRD), management development, organizational development, performance appraisal, employee reward, employee selection and recruitment, human power planning and communication. It has been argued that needs of employees ought to be cornerstones to institutions' strategic human resource motivation policy formulation Chase and Aquiline (1985:256). Dilworth (1979:531) on the term socio-technical system designates the interrelationships between the technical system and a social system in order for people to work together. Operations managers must be interested in both components of the socio-technical system, since they are responsible for coordinating the efforts of groups of people to perform a technical task. Dilworth (1979:543-544) says that the environments in which people work can affect their comfort, health, and productivity. Some environmental variables to be considered are temperature, noise and lighting.

Temperature. Human beings can perform under a variety of combinations of temperature, humidity, and air movements. The effects of these variables depend on the strenuousness of the work task and individual adoption on the conditions

Noise. Unwanted sound in the workplace not only may be distracting but may even cause damage to the worker's hearing. The American occupational safety and health Act of 1970 regulations state that workers should not be exposed to noise about 90 db for more than 9 hours at a time.

Lighting. Good illumination on work items or the work surface is necessary for proper work performance without eyestrain. The colour content of light and the amount of glare are also important.

Dilworth (1979:522) says many elements of organizational system affect workers, and should be taken into consideration when jobs are designed. They may be grouped into two broad categories:

I). Technical-physical factors.

Task content - the operations that must be performed to convert inputs to the desired output. Physical context - the heat, light, noise, fumes or pollution, appearance, and safety precautions that surround the job holder.

II). Socio-psychological factors.

Social factors -the personal interactions that occur because of the organizational structure and job assignments. Intrinsic factors-the internal psychological feelings that are engendered as a result of performing the job.

The way human and non-human resources/aspects in relation to jobs are planned, organized, coordinated and controlled determines the productivity strength. Motivation has been thought of to be the cause of either good or bad performance by employees in institutions Bateman and Zeithmal (1990:520). Stoner and Freeman (1992:365) suggest that just as the biological approach tries to ensure that the physical demands of a job do not exceed the physical capabilities of the people who do it. The perceptual / motor approach seeks to ensure that the mental demands of their work do not exceed workers' mental capabilities.

The importance of understanding motivation has been reflected in its relationship with productivity. From the management point of view, the motivation level of subordinates is a reflection of the potential human energy available for production. The unleashing and directing of that energy requires the management to activate the energy source of applying stimuli (incentives) Daft (1991:587). The intensity of stimulation required is inversely related to the motivation level. Therefore motivation and productivity are directly related; the higher the motivation level, the higher the productivity potential of subordinates.

Like other Districts, the government of Rwanda in the framework of decentralization gave powers of autonomous management to Nyagatare District in 2001(first reform**)** and in 2005(second reform) inclined towards the priorities expressed by the local community members. This is provided in Law No.08/2006 determining the organization and functioning of the Districts where article 5 of it details the following; The District shall accomplish its political, administrative, social economic and cultural duties determined by law. The District shall be particularly responsible for the following:

I. To implement Government policies adopted;

II. To deliver and assist sectors in delivering good quality services;

III. To elaborate, coordinate and implement development programs;

IV. To promote solidarity and cooperation with other Districts.

In decentralisation process, the major objective is to take the services close to the beneficiaries of the programmes and for easy monitoring and accountability once the beneficiaries are empowered enough to take part in this process. That is why it ought to be very important to have elected officials, in positions, who hold public trust in using transferred funds to accomplish their prescribed targets. As a result, decentralised local governments are responsible for what they do and how well they do it. This means that they are accountable for:

I. Establishing an appropriate target embedded in the budgetary presentation and/or policy priorities and ensuring their relevance to poverty reduction paper;
II. Sound management of funds received from the central government, donors and of expenditures;
III. Effective organisational good governance practices (including structures for capacity building); and
IV. The outcomes, quality and range of their programmes and services.

To enable realization of Rwanda's vision 2020 (which is Rwanda's long term strategic development plan), the District of Nyagatare crafted its vision which is to ensure good governance through social justice, durable peace, sustainable social economic development based on modernization of infrastructure. Similarly, is the mission of Nyagatare District to execute the government decisions and programs in promoting the development poles and ICT, increasing and giving more value to agro-pastoral production and protecting the environment at the same time and providing quality services to Nyagatare population with special care to vulnerable while promoting unity, reconciliation and gender balance in government decision making positions Five year District Development plan (2008-2012).

Realization of the above mission in the sense of motivation requires District management awareness of the different individual's needs, values, attitudes and interests, the different job dimensions and organizational rules and regulations, personnel policies, managerial practices and the reward system. A holistic approach to address different individual social-psychological and physical needs, require to be favourably tailored in the whole management process. There is a necessity of identification of employees' needs, values and interests whose attention has a multiplier effect on motivation and productivity, remembering to instil a favourable work landscape.

Since it's an inner state (motivation) that activates or moves, Donnelly (1987:292) provides that the person who is motivated can be described as follows;

I. The person works hard
II. The person sustains a pace of hard work
III. The persons' behaviour is self-directed towards important goals
IV. Thus motivation involves effort, persistence and goal attainment.

Since the motivational cause is felt at an individual level, job level as well as at organizational level, it should holistically be a serious concern of the District authorities that have embraced decentralisation. It was therefore imperative that research be conducted on performance of Nyagatare District employees in terms of punctuality, absenteeism, work morale, ability at work and a sense of responsibility, motivation methods used therein and determine the relationship between motivation and productivity.

1.2 Statement of the problem

There is a wide spread campaign by the Government of Rwanda to improve the work standards of employees. The existing established government programs manifest this will, yet, the reality for many organizations including the District of Nyagatare, is that, their people (staff) remain undervalued, under trained, underutilized, poorly motivated, and consequently perform well below their true capability.

For quite some time, neither the government officials nor the citizens could precisely predict causes for declining performance behaviour in Nyagatare District. On the surface motivation initiatives seem to be above average level but with no clear substantive effect on work output. There is observable insufficient tools (equipments), insufficient information technology infrastructures, communication failures, coordination inefficiencies, some posts having incompetent people, procurement delays, filling failures, skilled and experienced human power moving from job to job time and time and some workers appear to be less enthused and less morale boosted.

Given Government willingness to address employee motivation and the eminent non-improving employee productivity over years; this research was intrigued to analyse the effect of motivation on productivity in Nyagatare District-Rwanda.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of the study was to determine the effect of motivation on productivity in Nyagatare District, motivation behaviour aspects of employees therein. The concern was to find out performance behaviours of employees and analysis of the relationship between motivation and productivity,

1.4 Objectives of the study

General objective: The general objective of the study was to assess the productivity level as a result of employee motivation in Nyagatare District.

Specific objectives:

I. To identify performance behaviour in terms of punctuality, absenteeism, work morale, ability at work and a sense of responsibility among Nyagatare District staff;

II. To find out the methods of motivation that are used in Nyagatare District;

III. To analyze the relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District.

1.5 Research Questions

Manheim and Rich (1995:448) states that research questions are questions identifying the basic information we are seeking in a research project. Research questions expand on the hypothesis by providing details. Appropriate research questions enable the researcher to collect suitable data and arrive at sensible conclusions. Research questions for the purpose of this study include the following:

I. What is the performance of the District employees in terms of punctuality, absenteeism, ability at work, morale at work and having a sense of responsibility?

II. What are the methods of motivation that are used in the District of Nyagatare?

III. What is the relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity in Nyagatare?

1.6 Study variables

Manheim and Rich (1995:45), defines a variable as a characteristic that takes on different value from one case to another or, for a given case from one time to another.

The study variables include both independent and dependent one.

According to Manheim and Rich (1995:32), dependent variables are those that are thought to change value in response to changes in value of other variables. And independent variables are those that influence the value of other variables through changes in their own values.

The independent variable under this study is motivation and dependent variable is productivity.

1.7 Scope of the study

Subject scope: The study focused mainly on employee motivation as a contributing factor to high productivity as applied by Nyagatare District Administration; motivation behaviour aspects of employees therein. The concern was to find out performance behaviours in terms of punctuality, absenteeism, ability, morale and having a sense of responsibility, methods of motivation used, analysis of the relationship between motivation and productivity, and related corporate goals attainment.

Geographical scope: The study covered Nyagatare District as an administrative and political Entity in Rwanda.

1.8 Significance of the study

The study is significant to the researcher, other motivation researchers, the case study institution, other interested readers and policy makers.

To the researcher, the study provided an opportunity for further examination and understanding of human behaviour in general and specifically productivity motivation factors on functioning of organizations. It enriched his research skills and finally will help the researcher in his fulfilment for the award of Masters' degree in Business Administration (MBA) in Bishop Stuart University.

To fellow motivation researchers, this work will help them as a documentary source of data on matters pertaining to motivation as the thesis will become part of the University data sources.

To the case study institution; the study will benefit it in having a better appreciation of the problems of its employees; the research will identify the employee perceptions of motivation styles prevalent therein. The study provides theoretical and practical platform for the management of Nyagatare District to put in place relevant strategies to ensure that the negative impacts of motivation on productivity are minimized.

Furthermore it is expected that the study arouses a desire for further research on this topic in relation to goal achievement. As research is a continuous activity, the gaps identified by any interested reader, provides a fresh research avenue at any time in future either with the same objectives, methodology or different ones and in a different work setting.

The study is important in guiding policy makers to prioritize on whether or not to motivate employees in order to improve on their productivity (performance).This study came up with what is required to motivate employees. The study assists policy formulators particularly those concerned with Human Resources Management and Development at institutional and organizational levels.

1.9 Conceptual framework

The study was conceptualized by focusing on two important variables that is motivation and productivity. Motivation is the independent variable because changes in its own value can influence the value of some other variable, in this case productivity. In fact employee motivation can be manipulated so as to observe its influence on productivity. For example, what is the level of productivity if the level of motivation is high and vice-versa? Productivity is the dependent variable (that is not directly manipulated instead it is the outcome variable-subject to change). The researcher considers productivity as the dependent variable because changes in its value changes in response to changes in value of some other variable-Employee motivation. Quite apart from the benefit and moral value of an altruistic approach to treating colleagues as human beings and respecting human dignity in all its forms, research and observations show that well motivated employees are more productive and creative. The opposite also holds true. Certo (2000: 365) says that the most productive organization members are those involved in work situations that have both desirable hygiene and motivating factors.

Brief (2000: 415) suggested that Managers can enrich jobs in a variety of ways. The following are some of the most common:

I. Allow workers to plan their own work schedule.

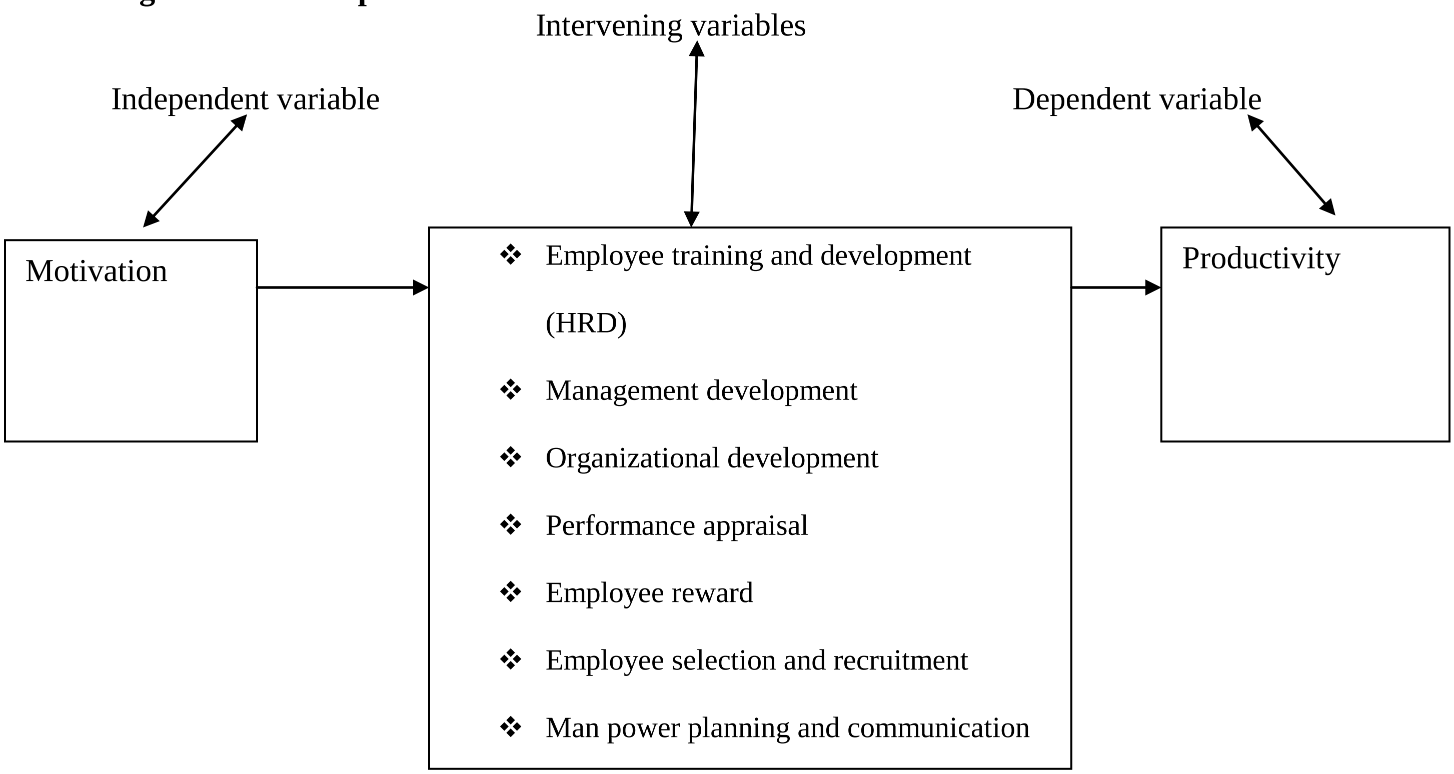
II. Allow workers to decide how the work should be performed.

III. Allow workers to check their own work.

IV. Allow workers learn new skills.

The intervening variables for this study are: Employee training and development (HRD), management development, organizational development, performance appraisal, employee reward, employee selection and recruitment, human power planning and Communication. The way human and non-human resources/aspects in relation to jobs are planned, organized and coordinated determines the productivity strength. How the staffing and leading functions are done and the work environment (conducive) not forgetting enablement aspects-information, equipment and capital will have a profound effect on employee motivation and productivity.

Figure I.1 : Conceptual Framework



Explaining the conceptual framework

The above figure explains the conceptual framework. Employee training and development (HRD), management development, organizational development, performance appraisal, employee reward, employee selection and recruitment, human power planning, communication and career development are ingredients to employee morale, satisfaction and motivation which when available and favourable leads to high productivity of employees. All these are supportive elements that must not be overlooked. As an example if the appraisal and assessment processes do not allow for feedback then it yield no good results. Several factors at individual (individual work job skills and knowledge, health, emotional state etc that bear on his/her today's performance and tomorrow's growth potential) and at organizational levels (that are used to promote organizational predictability, equipment and facility, job design, Organizational structure, policies and procedures, managerial style etc ought to be considered when planning for staff motivation and productivity. To get people to do things, their knowledge, skills, talents, creative abilities, aptitudes, values, decision making prowess, zeal, enthusiasm are invaluable assets to be drawn upon as unending source of strength. The logic to do it is all by motivation since for example for an institution like the District, a decision made over an issue affects multiple resources and operating areas overtime which is implemented by people.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Blaxter Hughes and Tight (2001), define a literature review as ‘a systematic, explicit, and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating, and interpreting the existing body of recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners’. In reflection to the above definition, this chapter presents a review of literature by other experts on issues related to motivation and associated productivity. The ideal factor of this chapter involves how different writers understand what motivation is and how it affects employee productivity. The literature was reviewed under sub themes: employee motivation, methods of motivation used in organisations, employee productivity, employer-employee performance behaviour, relationship between motivation and productivity.

2.2 Employee motivation

Rwandan labour code in its general provisions article 2 defines an employee as any person, who regardless of his/her sex and nationality has undertaken to put his/her professional activity, for pay, under the direction and authority of another person, natural, or public or private organisation.

Many attempts have been made to understand what motivation is and how it affects work productivity. Many scholars and researchers (for example; Islam and Ismail 2008; Thomas and Zeithaml 1990; Michael 1981; Hachman and Lawler 1971), have made contributions towards the meaning of motivation. They all seemingly agree that motivation is a process that induces people to behave in certain ways and that people who are motivated exert greater effort to perform than those who are not motivated.

Motivation as a word is sometimes used to explain why people behave as they do. It is a process that governs peoples' choices Donnelly et al (1987). Victor Vroom (1964) expectancy theory of motivation argued that individuals are motivated at work to make choices among different behaviours, this relates to intensities of work effort. He continued that a person may choose to work at a moderate rate or at an accelerated rate. A choice is made by the individual; if for example a person believes that his/her effort will be adequately rewarded there will be a motivated effort; a choice will be made to work so that a preferred reward is received.

Not all scholars and researchers agree on the meaning of motivation. Some view motivation as a factor that energizes behaviour (arousal or activation, being 'stirred up' 'ready for action'). Yet others say that motivation serve some direction giving function.

Longman dictionary (1998:959) defines motivation as 'a conscious and unconscious driving force that arouses and directs action towards the achievement of desired goals' Longman points out two important aspects in motivation; arousing and directing action towards desired goals. Here motivation is a general term that involves the process of satisfying needs, drives, urges and other factors which are determinants of work behaviour. It is a mechanism of the organ in which urges are mobilized selectively towards attainment of a given goal. According to Thomas and Zeithaml (1990), motivation refers to forces that energize, direct and sustain a person's effort. All behaviour except involuntary reflexes like eye blinks (which usually do not have a lot to do with management) is motivated.

Motivation may further be defined as the total propensity or level of desire of an individual to behave in a certain manner at a certain time within the parameters established by a given society. All psychologically and physiologically health individuals are motivated individuals Hodges and Johnson (1970).

Luthans (1992) noted that, motivation comes from a latin word ‘Movere’ which means ‘to move’. He defined motivation as ‘a process that starts with psychological or physiological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive’. According to Luthans, therefore, motivation is a process which consists of three interacting and interdependent elements: These elements are, needs, drives and incentives. Similarly, motivation is defined as a mechanism inside a person that sustains his continued activity as a human being Dublin (1974), strength of commitment which individuals have towards what they are doing Dransfeid et al (1996).

Motivation can also be defined as a process of moving oneself and others to work towards organisational objectives Michael (1981). Furthermore, Miner et al (1985) brought in the idea of organisation’s dynamism. They said that ‘motivation is a force that makes organisation dynamic acting systems rather than static structures. They argue that, for an organisation to achieve its goals, it is essential that employees channel the motivational potential they bring to an organisation towards goal attainment. This potential should not be dormant but rather should be activated or stimulated so that organisations receive the maximum possible synergy from employees’. In order for organisations to achieve their goals, according to this explanation, employees must be motivated.

Hellriegel et al (1989) gave an explanation about motivation. They defined motivation as an influence that channels and sustains people's behaviour. They argued that motivation springs from the desire to satisfy a need. A need according to Hellriegel (1968) is 'a strong feeling of deficiency in a particular area of a person's life. This sense of deficiency creates an uncomfortable tension which the individual strives to reduce usually by taking some action to satisfy the need. Some people are driven by the desire to succeed; others by the desire to be well liked; others to achieve power; to achieve wealth; to feel secure in their jobs etc. If they succeed in reducing the sense of deficiency, they also reduce the intensity of motivating force'. A need is an underlying force of motivation. When employees see a clear link between an increase in their efforts and increase in rewards that they personally value, they are motivated to perform 'above and beyond the call of duty' Daft (1991:412). Increased motivation to perform well, leads to increased productivity.

Berelson and Steiner (1964:240), concurred with Hellriegel's observation when they noted that; 'to say that managers motivate their subordinates is to say that they do those things which they hope will satisfy human needs and desires and induce their subordinates to perform in a desired manner'. Motivation, therefore, involves identifying what employees want and the tools managers can use to energise their subordinates' behaviours towards performance.

The discussion is inexhaustible but motivation then comes to this, by the fact that we all possess the basic instinctual drives; these drives do not by themselves result in determining work behaviour or the level of effort in performance. The social environment provides the guidelines by which alternative behaviours are made and in exchange receive individual conformity to the appropriate expectations placed upon him or her.

In any natural work setting there are basic motivation characteristics. According to Gary Johns (1996), motivation can be formally defined as the extent to which persistent effort is directed towards a goal. The following are the basic characteristics of motivation;

Effort: The first aspect of motivation is the strength of the person's work related or the amount of effort the person exhibits on the job. Clearly this involves different kinds of activities on different kinds of jobs.

Persistence: The second characteristic of motivation is the persistence that individuals exhibit in applying effort to their work tasks. The researcher who makes an important discovery early in his /her career and then rests on his /her laurels for five years would not be considered highly motivated. In this case, the worker has not been persistent in the application of his /her efforts.

Direction: Effort and persistence refer mainly to the quantity of work an individual produces. Of equal importance is the quality of a person's work. Thus, the third characteristic of motivation is the direction of the person's work-related behaviour. In other words, do workers channel persistent effort in a direction that benefits organisation? Thus, motivation means working smart as well as working hard.

Goals: Ultimately, all motivated behaviour has some goal or objective towards which it is directed. From the above discussion, there is a presented organisational perspective, that is, we assume that motivated people act to enhance organisational objectives.

Employee goals might include high productivity, good attendance or creative decisions. Employees can also be motivated by goals that are contrary to the objectives of the organisation, including absenteeism, tardiness, sabotage and embezzlement. In these cases, they are channelling their persistent effort in directions that are dysfunctional for the organization.

It is none debatable from the above that motivation is a key to performance improvement. The old saying that you can take a horse to the water but can't force it to drink; holds true in this case, it will drink only if it is thirsty-so with people. They do what they want to do or otherwise motivated to do so.

Whether it is to excel on the workshop flow or in the 'ivory tower' they must be motivated or driven to it either by themselves or through external stimulus.

Are they born with the self-motivation or drive? Yes and no. If no they can be motivated, for, motivation is a skill which can and must be learnt. This is essential for any business to survive and succeed.

Job performance =f (ability) (motivation) i.e Job performance is a function of ability multiplied by motivation. Unable but motivated one can say is better off than ability with no motivation, because inability in the long run changes if motivation exists in someone.

Arguably researchers in social sciences agree that human motivation process is a reflection of their physical and psychological deficiency leading to certain behaviour. An unsatisfied need is the starting point in the process of motivation. A deficiency of something with in an individual is the first link in the chain of events leading to the behaviour. The unsatisfied need causes tension (physical or psychological) within the individual leading the individual to engage in some kind of behaviour to satisfy the need and thereby reduce the tension. Achieving the goal satisfies the need, and the process of motivation is complete. For example, an achievement oriented person is driven by the desire to succeed and is motivated by a desire for promotion and/or accomplishment in order to satisfy the needs.

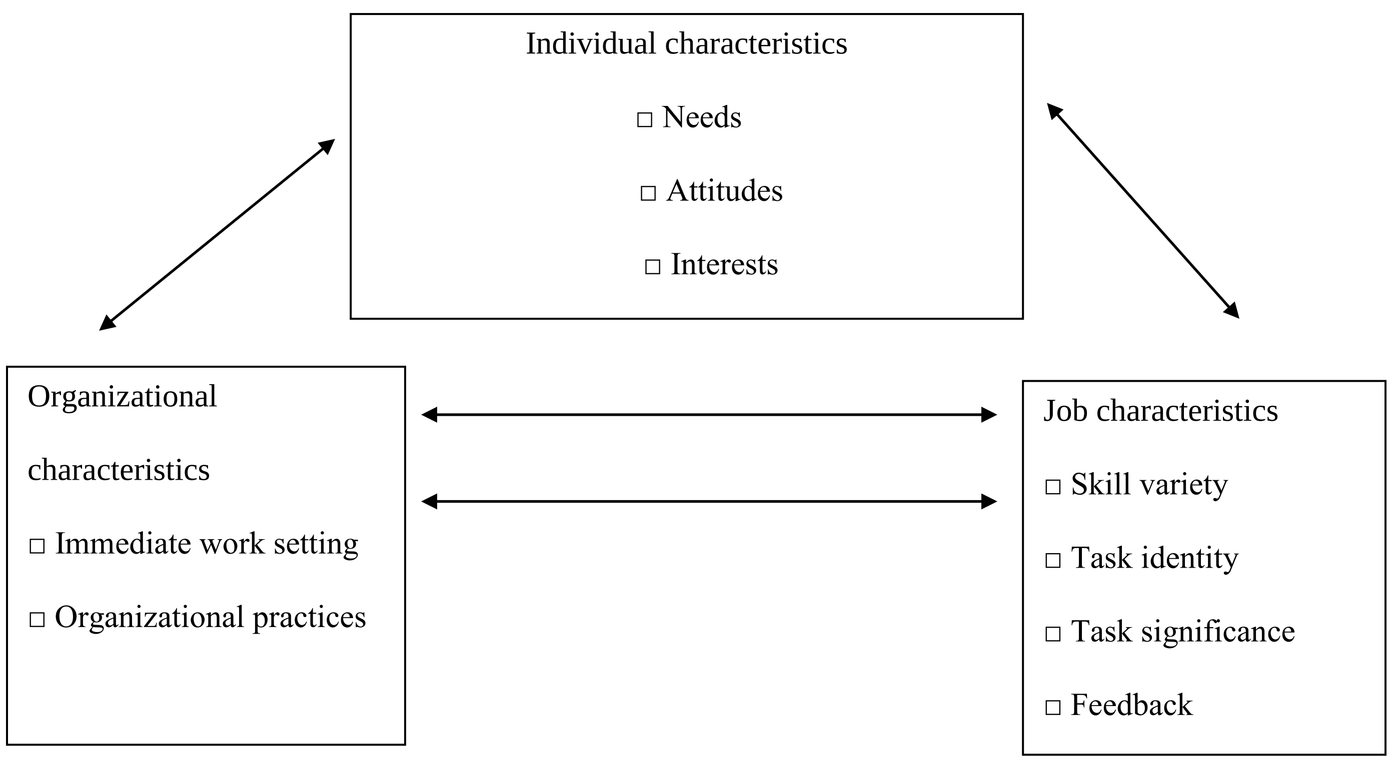
Luthans (1992) contends that the key to understanding the process of motivation lies in the meaning of, and relationship between needs, drives and incentives. Human behaviour is guided by certain motives. Motive means want, need, impulse or drive. A want, need, impulse or drive finds expression through motive. Motive is the centre point of motivation process. There is no limit to needs and desires of a person. All cannot be satisfied but only the urgent and strongly felt needs become motives. Motives change according to time. The manager should recognize these motives and offer some incentives which motivate a person**.** Thus needs, drives and incentives are the interacting and interdependent elements constituting motivation. He continues to explain that needs are created whenever there is a physiological or a psychological imbalance. For example, a need exists when cells in the body are deprived of food and water. Although psychological needs may be based on a deficiency, sometimes they are not. For example, an individual with a strong need to get a head may have a history of consistent success.

On the other hand, drives or motives are set up to alleviate needs. A psychological need can be simply defined as a deficiency with direction**.** Physiological and psychological drives are action-oriented and provide an energizing thrust towards reaching an incentive. They are at the very heart of motivational process. The examples of needs for food and water are translated into the hunger and thirst drives. The whole motivation process aims at influencing people to strive willingly for group objective (inspiring people to apply their capabilities in self-responsible manner).

In this thesis, therefore, motivation is understood as a process that induces people to behave in certain ways (process that directs people's choices), as a factor that energizes behaviour, as a conscious and unconscious driving force that arouses and directs action towards achievement of desired goals, as a process that starts with psychological and physiological deficiency, as a mechanism inside a person that sustains his continued activity as a human being, as a force that makes organization dynamic acting systems rather than static structures, working smarter as well as harder, a relationship between needs, drives and incentives as motives that guide human behaviour.

Different factors that affect motivation have been advanced. Hellriegel (1989) identifies three key factors; differences in individual characteristics, differences in job characteristics, and differences in organisational characteristics;

Figure 2.1: An illustration of the interaction of motivation factors, adopted from Hellriegel (1989).



(I) Individual characteristics

According to Hellriegel (1989) individual characteristics are those needs, values, attitudes and interests that people bring to their jobs. These characteristics vary from one person to another meaning that different people are motivated by different things. Some people are motivated by money therefore want high paying jobs; others who are motivated by security may accept a lower paying job involving few risks.

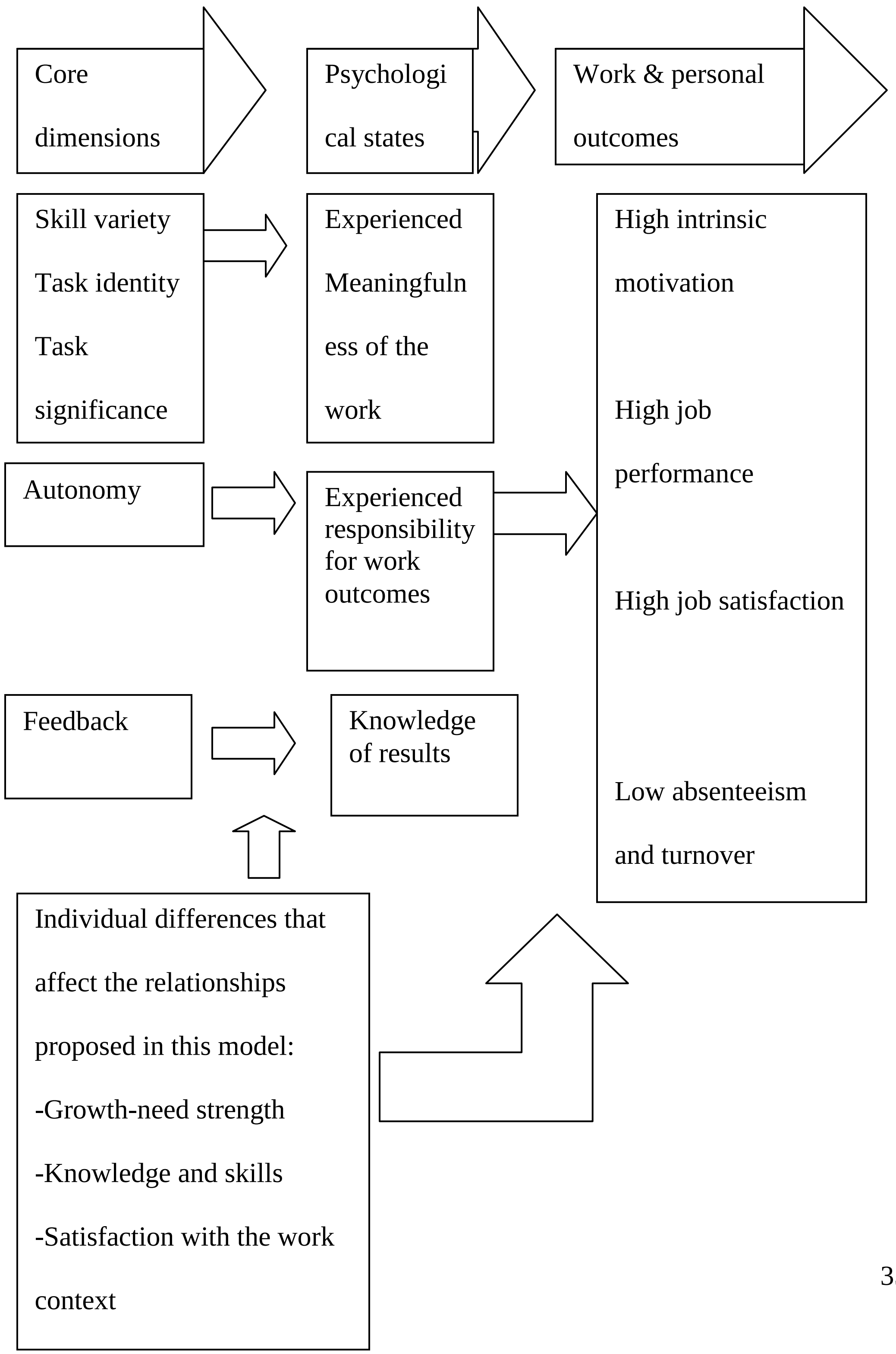
Schnake (1990) in reference to individual characteristics and how they affect performance observed that, 'Employees differ in a number of important variables…All of these variables have an impact on human relations within an organisation as well as the organisation's performance and effectiveness in accomplishing objectives'. To motivate employees therefore managers must be aware of these differences.

(II) Job characteristics

Job characteristics according to Hellriegel (1989) are the dimensions of the job such as autonomy, the variety of skills required, the degree the employee can identify with tasks from the start to finish, the significance attributed to the job and the type and the extent of performance feedback that the employee receives. Hachman and lawler (1971) as quoted by Tosi et al (1990) however noted that 'if specific job characteristics are present, employees will experience a positive self generated response when they perform well and that this internal kick will provide an incentive for continued effort towards good performance'. They also indicated that a person who has strong need for growth and advancement will be more responsive when his or her work has variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback and friendship opportunities.

The impact of the job core dimensions on psychological states and personal work outcomes as conceptualized by Brief (2000) is shown in a figure below;

Figure 2.2 An illustration of the impact of the job core dimensions on psychological states and personal work outcomes.



These core dimensions affect both psychological and physiological states and also affect work and personal outcomes (intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover). This relationship between the core dimensions, psychological states and the work and personal outcomes is also affected by the three types of individual differences as portrayed below;

Growth-need-strength. Is the extent to which an individual wants his or her work contribute to personal growth, learning, and development. When an individual

1. Wants his or her job to fuel personal growth, both relationships in the model (core-dimensions-psychological states-outcomes) are stronger.
2. Knowledge and skills at an appropriate level enables workers to perform their jobs effectively. When workers do not have the necessary knowledge and skills, the relationships depicted in the figure may be weak, nonexistent, or even negative.
3. Satisfaction with the work content describes how satisfied workers are with extrinsic outcomes (such as pay, benefits, job security, and good relationships with workers) they receive from their jobs. When workers are dissatisfied with their work content, they spend much of their energy trying to deal with their dissatisfaction with the content and are not able to appreciate and respond to the potential of intrinsic motivation on their jobs.

(III) **Organisation characteristics**

These are rules and regulations, personnel policies, managerial practices and reward systems that contribute to organisation's performance. Policies such as paid vacations and rewards in the form of bonuses can attract employees and retain them in an organisation.

Bateman and Zeithalml (1990) pointed out that 'once managers take steps to provide a variable opportunity to perform at higher levels, the proper stimulation provides an extra motivation that will lead to higher performance' Rewards must however be fairly administered if they are to motivate people.

Different approaches to the study of motivation were also reviewed by the researcher considering their practical importance to elucidation of motivation. Three distinct perspectives on employee motivation that have evolved are; traditional approach, the human relations approach and human resources approach. The most recent theories about motivation represent a fourth perspective called contemporary approaches.

Traditional approach: The study of employee motivation really began with the work of Frederick Winslow Tailor (1856-1915) on scientific management. According to Tailor, man at work was entirely an economic man; therefore he could work harder only if he could improve his economic position by doing so- Richard L. Daft, (1991:402). This means that economic rewards were provided to employees for performance which resulted into high production.

Human relations approach: George Elton Mayo and other human relations researchers found that the boredom and repetitiveness of many tasks actually reduced motivation, while social contacts helped create and sustain motivation. As a result human relations model urged managers to give employees some freedom to make job-related decisions as well as information about managers' intentions and organization goals James F. Stoner and Edward Freeman (1992:442).

Human resources approach: The human resource approach carries the concepts of economic man and social man further to introduce the concept of the whole person. Human resource theory suggests that employees are complex and motivated by many factors. For example the work by Marc Gregory on theory X and theory Y argued that people want to do a good job and that work is as natural and health as play. Proponents of the human resources approach felt that earlier approaches had tried to manipulate through economic and social rewards Richard L. Daft, (1991:403).

Contemporary approaches: Contemporary approaches to employee motivation are dominated by content theories and process theories. Content theories attempt to determine what it is that motivates people to work. They stress the analysis of underlying human needs and how these needs are prioritized. They are also concerned with types of incentives or goals that people strive to attain in order to be satisfied and perform well.

Process theory, on the other hand, describes the actual process an individual experiences as he/she is inspired to pursue a particular course of action. They focus on how employees seek rewards in work circumstances Richard L. Daft, (1991).

Managers should not induce workers to comply with managerial objectives by bribing them with high wages, as the traditional model or manipulate them with considerate treatment, as in the human relations model. Managers should share responsibility for achieving organisational and individual objectives with each person contributing on the basis of his or her interests and abilities.

Many theories of motivation have been advanced by different researchers to explain the performance of employees in organisations. Although no theory of motivation provides a universally accepted explanation of human behaviour, they all contribute to understanding the causes of different performance behaviours of employees. According to H. J Graham and R. Bennett (1992:59), theories on motivation can be categorized into two groups; content theories and process theories.

Content theories of motivation attempt to identify what workers want and need and therefore what tools managers can use to energize their subordinates' behaviours. 'They are concerned with the types of incentives or goals that people strive to attain in order to be satisfied and perform well' Luthans F., (1992:156). They are helpful in providing insight into the needs of people in organisations and how these needs can be satisfied to improve on the productivity of workers. These theories include; the hierarchy of needs theory, two-factor theory, existence-related-Growth (ERG) theory and then achievement motivation theory.

On the other hand, process theories try to explain motivation process of how individuals try to behave in certain ways Donnelly (1997:292). He again referred to process theories as 'theories that try to explain and describe the process of how behaviour is energized, directed, sustained and finally stopped'. They include; Expectancy theory, reinforcement theory and Equity theory.

Hierarchy of needs theory

It's probably safe to say that, the best known approach to motivation is Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. As a clinical psychologist in 1943 he proposed that people are motivated by different needs and that these needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, progressing from most basic or lower order needs (physiological and security) to higher order needs (social esteem and self actualization). Maslow identified five motivating needs in order of ascendance as shown in figure below. These are;

physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness needs, social needs and self-actualization needs.

Figure 2:3 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Self-actualization

Esteem needs

Belongingness

Safety needs

Physiological needs

Source: Adopted from Motivation and Personality 2nd edition by Maslow

I. Physiological needs

'These are needs that stem directly from the physical needs of the organism, whose satisfaction is essential to the survival or physical well being of the individual or specie' Berlson and Steiner (1964:240). As the most basic human needs, they dominate as motivating needs and usually occupy the lowest level in the hierarchy of needs. They include; food, water, air, shelter and sex.

(II) Safety needs

According to Donnelly (1989) safety needs include; protection from physical and emotional harm, ill-health, economic disaster and unexpected happenings. In an organisational work place, safety needs reflect the need for safe jobs, fringe benefits and job security. When people meet these needs, they start targeting social needs.

(III) Social needs

These are the needs of affection, a sense of belonging, acceptance and friendship.

Hellriegel et al (1989:432) noted that ‘when an organisation does not meet affiliation needs, an employee dissatisfactions may take the form of frequent absenteeism, low productivity, high levels of stress and even emotional breakdown’. These needs usually reflect the desire to have good relationships with colleagues and participation in work groups. Once social needs of employees are met by the organisation, performance of employees increases.

(IV) Esteem needs

These refer to the person’s need to develop self respect and to gain recognitions and approval from others which would induce a feeling of self-worth and self-confidence in the individual Js Chandan (1997). It is an urge for achievement, prestige, status and power. Self respect is an internal recognition and respect from others is the external recognition as well as acceptance and appreciation of one’s individuality and his contribution. In satisfying this need people seek opportunities for achievement, promotion, prestige and status which will provide recognition of their competences and worth Hellriegel (1989).

(V) Self actualization needs.

Maslow (1970) as quoted by Donnelly et al (1989:296) defines these needs as ‘the desire to become more and more what one is; to become everything one is capable of becoming’. They refer to individual’s need to develop fully and realize ones’ capacities and capabilities to the fullest extent possible. According to Maslow this need is acted as a motivator when all other needs have been reasonably fulfilled. At this level, a person seeks challenging work assignments that allow for creativity and opportunities for personal growth and advancement. These needs can be achieved in an organisation by providing an employee with opportunities to grow, be creative and acquire training for challenging work.

On the basis of the above needs, there are four assumptions underlying Maslow's needs hierarchy as indicated by Hellriegel (1986). These are;

I. A satisfied need is not a motivator, once a need is satisfied another emerges to take its place. Thus people are always striving to satisfy some needs.

II. The need network for most people is very complex with a number of needs affecting a person's behaviour at any time.

III. In general lower level needs must be satisfied before high level needs are sufficiently activated to stimulate behaviour.

IV. There are many more ways to satisfy higher level needs than there are to satisfy lower level needs.

Maslow's theory has made significant contributions in the management of organisations. It made management aware that people are motivated by a wide variety of needs and that it must provide an opportunity for the employees to satisfy these needs through creating a physical or a conceptual work environment so that they will be motivated to do their best to achieve organisational objectives. It also indicates step-by-step process of how changing sets of needs can be used to motivate people.

Despite the wide recognition which the theory has received among practicing managers, research does not always validate the theory, for instance ,little support is found for the prediction that needs structures are arranged along the dimensions proposed by Maslow or the prediction that the substantial satisfaction of a given need leads to activation of the next higher need. So although the needs hierarchy is well known and undoubtedly used by many managers as guides towards motivating their employees, little substantive evidence exists to indicate that following the theory will lead to more motivated work force.

Relatedly, Schnake (1990) observed that many scholars regard Maslow's theory as too restrictive. The critics suggest that the theory should be modified to take into account individual differences. They, however, agree that physiological and safety needs must be satisfied first, but the remaining three categories of needs can be achieved in different order by different people.

Luthan (1992) noted that most research findings indicate that Maslow's theory is not the final answer in the work motivation.

The above criticism, however, do not scrap out the contributions the theory has made.

Two-factor- theory of motivation.

This is another content theory of motivation which was advanced by Fredrick Herzberg and his associates in 1959. The thesis of the theory is that an individual is subject to two sets of factors which influence work motivation. These factors work differently as far as job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is concerned. Herzberg referred to these two sets of factors as 'Hygiene or maintenance factors and motivating factors'. Tosi (1990:275)

(I) Hygiene factors.

The word hygiene is taken from the medical field where it means taking steps to maintain your health but not necessarily improve it. According to Herzberg as reported by J.s Chandan (1997), hygiene factors do not motivate people; they simply prevent dissatisfaction and maintain status quo; they produce no gross but prevent loss. The absence of these factors lead to job dissatisfaction and the elimination of dissatisfaction do not mean satisfaction. ‘They simply maintain a zero level of motivation’. For example if a person indicated ‘low pay’ as a cause of dissatisfaction that would necessarily identify ‘high pay’ as a cause of satisfaction which is not the case.

Herzberg identified ten maintenance factors as indicated by Donnely et al (1987:298). These are;

(i) Company policy and administration

(ii) Technical supervision

(iii) Interpersonal relations with superiors

(iv) Interpersonal relations with peers

(v) Interpersonal relations with subordinates

(vi) Salary

(vii) Job security

(viii) Personal life

(ix) Work conditions

(x) Status

(II) Motivation factors

These factors are related to the nature of work (job content) and are intrinsic to the job itself. They are sometimes referred to as satisfiers. According to Herzberg as indicated by J s chandan (1997),the process of motivator factors have a high positive influence and leads to high levels of efficiency, productivity, satisfaction and morale. Whereas hygiene factors are needed to attract and maintain employees in organisations, motivator factors are needed to motivate employees for eminent better performance. Herzberg describes six motivational factors as indicated by Donnelly et al (1989:299). These are;

(i) The job itself; to be motivated people must like and enjoy their work. They become Highly motivated to goal achievement and do not mind working late hours in order To do what is to be done. Their morale is high as evidenced by lack of absenteeism and tardiness.

(ii) Recognition; proper recognition of employee's contribution by management is highly morale boosting. It gives the worker a feeling of worth and self esteem. Remember it is human nature to be happy when appreciated; thus such recognition is highly motivational.

(iii) Achievement;

(iv) Responsibility; it is an obligation on the part of an employee to carry out the Assigned duties satisfactorily. The higher the level of these duties, the more Responsible the worker would feel and more motivated he would be. It is a good Feeling to know that you are considered a person of integrity and intelligence to be given a high responsibility. It is a motivational factor that helps growth.

(v and vi) Growth and advancement. These factors are all interrelated and are positively related to motivation. Job promotion, higher responsibility, participation in central decision making and executive benefits all are signs of growth and advancement and add to dedication and commitment of employees.

In regard to hygiene and motivating factors, Tosi (1990: 275) asserted that 'a person in challenging job is likely to be satisfied and motivated to perform better; but the lack of challenging work does not cause dissatisfaction, merely absence of satisfaction. A person who is well paid will not be dissatisfied; however, high pay will not lead to motivation'. A conclusion can be deduced therefore that hygiene and motivating factors must be present in an organization for better performance of employees.

The two factor theory is not without detractors. Criticisms of the theory include the following;

(i) The procedure that Herzberg used is limited by its methodology. When things are Going well, people tend to take credit themselves a bit, they blame failure on the Extrinsic environment. The theory does not consider differences in individual Needs. It assumes that different people are motivated by same factors which is not the case. One factor can cause job satisfaction for one person and job Dissatisfaction for another. For example a highly skilled person may find a job Challenging and therefore motivating, while an equally other person with low Skills may find the same job frustrating.

(ii) No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized. A person may dislike part of his or her job yet finds the job acceptable.

(iii) The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The two factor theory ignores Situational variables.

(v) Herzberg assumed a relationship between satisfaction and productivity, but his research methodology only looks at satisfaction not at productivity. To make such research relevant, one must assume a strong relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

Regardless of criticism, Herzberg's theory has been widely popularized and few managers are unfamiliar with his recommendations. It helps managers to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers and provide them accordingly. In case of employee dissatisfaction, hygiene factors can be improved and the presence of motivators can be maximized to improve performance.This model prevents managers from incurring unproductive expenses of responding to motivation problems with more pay, improved working conditions and increased fringe benefits. If managers only focus on maintenance factors, motivation still will suffer. The motivators must be built into the job to improve motivation-Donnelly et al (1987:300).

Existence-Related-Growth- theory (ERG).

The Existence-Related-Growth theory (ERG) developed by Clayton Alderfer in 1972, is a refinement of Maslow's needs hierarchy. Instead of Maslow's five needs, ERG theory condenses these five needs into three. These are those of Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The letters E, R and G are initials of these needs. Clayton Alderfer proposed a modification of Maslow's theory to simplify it and respond to the criticism of lack of empirical evidence Daft (1991:404). While Maslow assumes that people can only satisfy their needs in a hierarchical order by means of progression, Alderfer suggested that people can move down as well as up the hierarchy depending on their ability to satisfy needs. He said that when a person fails to satisfy a higher order need, he/she may resort to an already satisfied lower order need. He referred to this action as a frustration regression. For example assume that a manager's existence needs are fully satisfied and he/she looks for challenging tasks to satisfy his/her self esteem needs, if his/her efforts are frustrated in seeking or meeting these challenges, then he/she will move back to existence needs and may seek more material benefits.

Alderfer in his needs categorization into E for existence R for relatedness and G for growth did not differ very much from Maslow- Hudson (1989:290).The major point he raises is that needs may rise simultaneously and may also be satisfied simultaneously.

Although Alderfer (1972) also categorized needs, he suggested that needs are more in a continuum form. He did not contend that lower level needs have to be satisfied before higher level needs are satisfied. People can move along the continuum not necessarily following the order of hierarchy in a rigid way as suggested by Maslow. Like Maslow, however, he stated that unsatisfied need will dominate in influencing behaviour.

Alderfer(1972) as quoted by Chandan (1997) identified three categories of needs; existence, relatedness and growth needs.

I. **Existence needs**.

These needs are roughly comparable to physiological and safety needs of Maslow's model and are satisfied primarily by material incentives. These needs include; the need for sustenance, shelter and physical and psychological safety from threats to people's existence and well being. They in some way coincide with Herzberg's maintenance factors like salary and working conditions.

II. **Relatedness needs.**

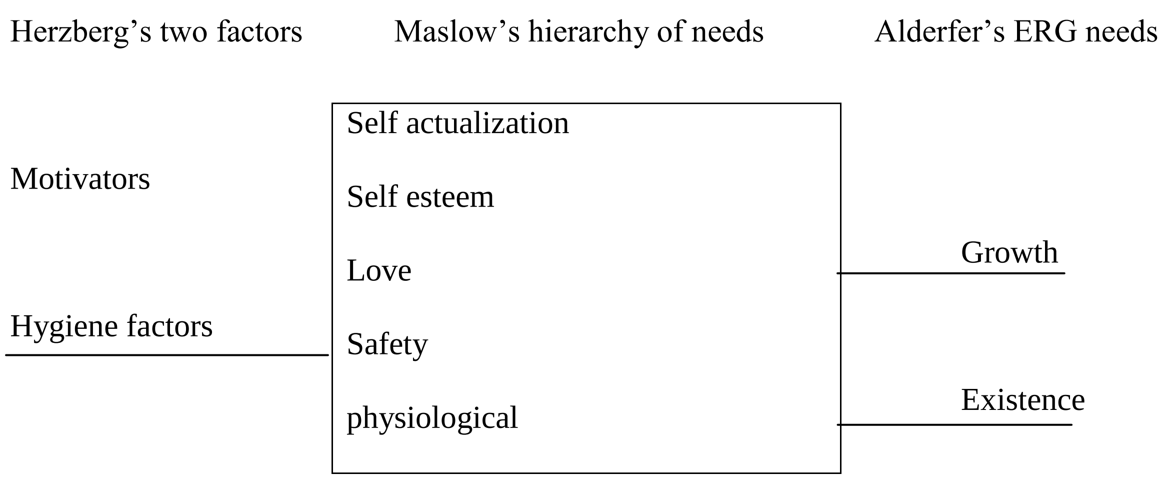
These needs roughly correspond to social and esteem needs in Maslow's hierarchy.

These needs are satisfied by personal relationships and social interaction with others. It involves open communication and honest exchange of thoughts with other organisational members. Not only do these needs relate to Maslow's social needs but also have some Herzberg's maintenance factors of personal relations and supervision.

III. Growth needs.

These needs are concerned with the individual's intrinsic desire to develop his/her potential and grow to reach the full potential that he/she is capable of reaching. They are similar to Maslow's self actualization needs. These needs are fulfilled by strong personal involvement in the organisation's environment. These needs also have aspects of Herzberg's motivational factors such as advancement and possibility for growth.

Figure 2: 4 depicting the relationship between Alderfer's ERG needs, Maslow's five level hierarchy needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory.



Source: Adopted from Organisational Behaviour by Fred Luthans

Mccleland's theory of needs

The previous theories are well known but, unfortunately have not held up well under close examination. All is not lost; however, contemporary theories have a reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation. They represent the current state of art in explaining employee motivation Stephen p Robbins (2002). David Mccleland and others have proposed three major relevant motives or needs in the work place. He believes these needs are rooted in culture; that is, they are acquired on the basis of our life experience. Hence this theory is known as 'Socially acquired needs theory' J s Chandan (1997). He concluded that most prominent needs are the needs for achievement, affiliation and power; these guide managerial behaviour.

I. The need for achievement

Among the three needs that make up for Mccleland's need theory, the need for achievement is the primary one. It is defined as 'the desire to succeed in competitive situations based upon established or perceived standard of excellence' J s Chandan (1997). Individuals with a strong need for achievement, ask for, accept and perform well in challenging tasks which require creativity, integrity and hard work. They are constantly pre-occupied with a desire for improvement and look for situations in which successful outcomes can be correlated with their efforts so that they can claim credit for success. They take moderate and calculated risks and prefer to get quick and precise feed-back on their performance. They set more difficult but achievable goals for themselves because success with easily achievable goals hardly provides them with a sense of achievement. They derive greater pleasure and excitement from solving a complex problem than from financial incentives or simple praise. High achievers perform best when they perceive their probability of success as being 0.5 that is; when they estimate that they have a 50-50 chance of success. They dislike gambling with high odds (high probability of failure) because success in such a situation would be more a matter of luck than of ability and they get no achievement satisfaction from happenstance success Steven P Robins (2002). Similarly they dislike low odds (high probability of success) because there is no challenge to their skills. They like to set realistic but difficult goals that require stretching themselves a little. When there is an approximately equal chance of success or failure, there is the opportunity to experience feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction from their efforts.

II. The need for affiliation

This is related to social needs and reflects a desire for friendly and warm relationship with others. Individuals tend to take affiliation with others who have similar beliefs, background and outlook on life. Individuals with high need for affiliation tend to get involved in jobs that require high amount of interpersonal interaction and relations such as jobs in teaching and public relations Chandan (1997).Similarly nurses, social workers and clergy are examples where high need for affiliation is an attribute. Bateman and Zeithaml (1990:529) have this to say ‘individuals who have high levels of this need are more oriented towards getting a lot with others’. They have a very intense need to belong to, and be accepted by the group. Such people play important role in organisations of establishing positive relations with others. They are also capable of coordinating the working of several departments in an organization.

III. The need for power

The need for power is the desire to affect and control the behaviour of other people and to manipulate the surroundings. It’s a need to make others behave in a way they would not have behaved otherwise. Such people desire to influence or control others, be responsible for others and have authority over others. Such people are important in organisations because of their ability to manipulate subordinates towards desired performance. Bateman and Zeithaml (1990:529) in regard to the need for power said ‘…it can be channelled towards constructive accomplishment of organisational and societal improvement’. Power motivation when applied positively results in successful leaders and managers who prefer democratic styles of leadership. Executives, political leaders and military leaders are examples of positions where high need for power is usually an asset Chandan (1997). An extensive amount of research indicates that some reasonably well supported predictions can be made on the basis of the relationship between achievement need and job performance. Though less research has been done on power and affiliation needs, there are consistent finding in those areas too.

Firstly individuals with a high need to achieve prefer job situations with personal responsibility, feed-back and an intermediate degree of risk. When these characteristics are prevalent, high achievers will be strongly motivated Steven P (2002). The evidence consistently demonstrates for instance that high achievers are successful in entrepreneurial activities such as running their own business, managing a self-contained unit with a large organisation and many sales positions.

Secondly a high need to achieve does not necessarily lead to being a good manager especially in large organisations. High need to achieve sales-people does not necessarily make good sales managers and the good manager in large organisation does not typically have a high need to achieve.

Thirdly, the need for affiliation and power tends to be closely related to managerial success. The best managers are high in the need for power and low in their need for affiliation.

Lastly employees can be successfully trained to stimulate their needs for achievement. If the job calls for the high achiever, management can select a person with a high need for achievement or develop their own candidate through achievement training.

Goal-setting theory

Goal-setting theory is a relatively applied approach to motivation and is based upon the assumption that, the type as well as the challenge of the goal induces motivation in the individual to achieve such a goal Chandan (1997). The theory as proposed by Edwin Locke, studies the process by which people set goals for themselves and then put in efforts in order to achieve them. The quality of performance is generally shaped by how difficult and how specifically defined the goal is. It is a cognitive approach, proposing that an individual's purpose directs his or her actions.

The theory states that intentions expressed as goals can be a major source of work motivation Stephen p (2002:48). We can say with a considerable degree of confidence that specific goals lead to increased performance and that difficult goals when accepted, results in higher performance than easy goals. The specificity of the goal itself acts as an internal stimulus Robbins p (2002). A relevant example; when a trucker commits to making 15 round trips between Rakai and Mbarara each week; this intention gives him a specific objective to reach for. We can say that all thing being equal, the trucker with a specific goal will outperform his counterpart who operates with either no goals or with the generalized goal of 'do your best'.

However it is logical to assume that easier goals are more likely to be accepted. But once an employee accepts a hard task, he or she will exert a high level of effort until the goal is achieved, lowered or abandoned. Question: If the employees have the opportunity to participate in the setting of their own goals will they try hard? The answer is mixed especially when viewed in light of the superiority of participation over assigned goals. In some cases, goals that have been set participatively have elicited superior performance. Yet, in other cases individuals have performed best when assigned goals by their bosses. A major advantage of participation may be in increasing acceptance of the goal itself. As one can note, resistance is the greatest when goals are difficult; the solution to resistance would be participation. According to Robbins p (2002:47), people who participate in goal setting are more likely to accept even difficult goals than one that is arbitrary assigned to them, because individuals are more committed to choices in which they have the voice.

Studies testing goal setting theory have demonstrated the superiority of specific and challenging goals as motivating forces. Although we can't conclude that having employees participate in the goal setting process is always desirable, participation is probably preferable to assignment when you expect resistance to difficult challenges.

Reinforcement theory

Reinforcement is one of the concepts that organisation behaviour modification uses to provide managers with a powerful and proven means for changing employee behaviour. In reinforcement theory, we have a behaviouralistic approach, which argues that reinforcement conditions behaviour. This is a reflection of the 'law of effect' as a result of the work of B f Skinner, meaning that behaviour is a function of its consequences portraying that individuals perform well their duties in order to be rewarded (put more effort in anticipation of more reward). Reinforcement is the process by which certain type of behaviours is strengthened. Thus a 'rein forcer' is any stimuli that causes certain behaviour to be repeated or inhibited Chandan (1997).

Reinforcement theory of motivation shifts the emphasis from employee underlying needs and thinking processes and focuses on the relationship between behaviours and consequences. The theory rests on two premises; first that the environment is an important catalyst in determining or reinforcing behaviour, if the environment is complementary to established behaviour, then such behaviour is positively reinforced. On the other hand if the environment is hostile to the values and skills of the worker then negative reaction takes place Chandan (1997), second human behaviour is subject to cause and effect phenomena so that effects can be predicted on the basis of established cause and that can be changed by manipulating the consequences.

There are four reinforcement strategies;

I. **Positive reinforcement**. This seeks to encourage desirable behaviour by giving rewards. The reward should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it increases the probability of occurrence of desirable behaviour. Financial incentive is probably the most powerful rein forcer for positive behaviour; however some other positive rein forcers are; participative decision making, recognition for a job well done, challenging tasks, high responsibility, and freedom to decide how the job is to be done. Since all individuals have different motivations for performance, it is important that positive rein forcers be individually tailored so that the rein forcer is valued by the employee.

II. **Negative reinforcement**. This one also seeks to encourage desirable behaviour by removal of unpleasant consequence following a desired behaviour. This is also known as ‘avoidance learning’ since the individual learns how to avoid unpleasant consequences. For example, a manager may like subordinates to dress in a business suit when they come to work and may criticize individuals who dress casually. However, this criticism stops when such individuals wear business suits to work. Thus, to avoid criticism, the employees may dress well. Similarly, students who work hard write term papers and do their home works on time intend to avoid consequences of failure in the exams.

III. **Extinction**. This seeks to discourage undesirable behaviour by withdrawal of a positive reward and removal of all reinforcements following an undesirable behaviour.

IV. **Punishment.** This also seeks to discourage undesirable behaviour. It is the administration of a negative consequence following an undesirable behaviour. The purpose is to decrease the odds of the undesirable behaviour being repeated. According to B f Skinner as quoted by Chandan (1997), punishment is still the most common technique of behaviour control in today’s life. If a child misbehaves, he/she is spanked; if a worker does not behave according to the way the organisation wants him/her to behave, he/she is fired; if a person does not behave as the society or the law expects him/her to behave, he/her is ridiculed or is punished by arrest and jail; religions threaten punishment in life after death if a person does not behave according to God’s will and religious guidelines.

According to research conducted by Blanchard and John as quoted by Chandan (1997), most managers prefer positive reinforcement rather than the use of punishment. Such a manager achieves performance improvement without generating the fear, suspicion and resentment that are often the result of using punishment in the work place.

The theory has, however, been criticized basically due to its emphasis on external reward ignoring individual characteristics and the job itself. Minel et al (1985:151) attached the theory on the ground that it puts much power in the hands of management and makes employees too dependent. They asserted that this approach requires considerable control over employees. This is because it doesn't consider intrinsic rewards; rather it emphasizes extrinsic rewards. That's why it is considered to be manipulation of employees. It puts much power in the hands of management and makes employees too dependent.

Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory of motivation was first presented in 1964 by Victor Vroom. That's why it is sometimes called Vroom's expectancy model. This model is based upon the belief that motivation is determined by the nature of the reward people expect to receive as a result of their job performance Chandan (1997). The underlying assumption is that human beings are rational beings and will try to maximize their perceived value of such reward. They will choose an alternative that gives them the best benefit (satisfaction).

As observed by Daft (1991:412) 'expectancy theory suggests that motivation depends on individuals' expectation about their ability to perform tasks and receive desired rewards. He went on to say that expectancy theory is based on the relationship among the individuals' performance and the desirability of outcomes associated with higher performance'.

This means that an individual will put much effort in work when he/she expects higher performance. The individual's high expectation on performance depends on his/her ability, availability of necessary tools and opportunity to perform. The individual also expects high performance to lead to desired outcomes.

Stephen P Robbins (2002) said that the strength of the tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. Therefore it includes these three variables;

I. **Attractiveness.** The importance the individual places on the potential outcome or reward that can be achieved on the job. This variable considers the unsatisfied needs of the individual.

II. **Performance /reward linkage.** The degree to which the individual believes that performing at a particular level will lead to attainment of a desired outcome.

III. **Effort /performance linkage.** The probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance.

Simplification of the above proposes that the strength of a person's motivation to perform (effort) depends on how strongly he/she believes he/she can achieve what he/she attempts. If he/she achieves this goal (performance), will he/she be adequately rewarded and if he/she is rewarded by the organisation, will the reward satisfy his/her individual goals?

One can say that performance depends on outcomes. If the employee places high value to the outcome, he/she will exert more effort in order to perform well, consequently achieving the desired outcome. This is recognized by Donnelly et al (1987:303) when they asserted that, ‘the logic of expectancy motivation is that individuals will exert more effort to achieve performance that will result in preferred rewards’. They added that ‘if a person believes that his or her work will be adequately rewarded, there will be motivated effort: a choice will be made so that a preferred reward is received’. According to them, motivation in organisation can be increased by recognition and rewarding hard working employees accordingly where by rewards correspond to performance.

Let us consider the four steps inherent in the theory;

First, what perceived outcome does the job offer the employees? Outcomes may be positive: pay, security, companionship, trust, fringe benefits, and a chance to use a talent or skill or congenial relationship. On the other hand employees may view the outcomes as negative: fatigue, boredom, frustration, anxiety, harsh supervision or threat of dismissal. Importantly, reality is not relevant here; the critical issue is what the individual employee perceives the outcome to be, regardless of whether his/her perceptions are accurate.

Second, how attractive do employees consider these outcomes? Are they valued positively, negatively or neutrally? This is obviously an internal issue to the individual and considers personal attitudes, personality and needs. The individual who finds a particular outcome attractive, that is, positively valued will prefer attaining it to not attaining it. Others may find it negative and therefore prefer not to attain it. Still others may be neutral.

Third, what kind of behaviour must the employee exhibit in order to attain these outcomes? The outcomes are not likely to have any effect on individual employee's performance unless the employee knows, clearly and unambiguously, what he/she must do in order to achieve them. For example what is 'doing well' in terms of performance appraisal? On what criteria will the employee's performance be judged?

Fourth and last, how does the employee view his/her chances of doing what is asked of him/her? And the employee has considered his/her own competences and his or her ability to control the variables that will determine his/her success, what probability does he/she place on successful attainment?

This theory is however considered to be more complex than either Maslow's or Herzberg's theory. It is not easy to determine the preferences or perceptual values of individual employees. This makes its applicability difficult. Nevertheless, the theory enables managers to concentrate on the needs that motivate people. It also recognizes the importance of perception in motivating people.

Equity theory of motivation

The theory was developed by J Stacy Adams in 1965. The theory is based on the assumption that one of the most widely assumed source of job dissatisfaction is the feeling of the employees that they are not being treated fairly by the management or organisation system Stephen P (2002). This is because employees don't work in a vacuum; they make comparisons about their input-output ratios and that of others. A live example is, if someone is offered $75,000 a year for his/her first job on graduation from college, he/she would grab at the offer and report to work enthused and certainly satisfied with the pay. However, if he/she finds out a month later or into the job that a co-worker-another-recent graduate, his/her age, comparable grade from a comparable college getting \$80,000 a year; he/she could probably be upset! Even though in absolute, \$75,000 is a lot of money for a new graduate to make! The issue now centres on relative rewards and what one believes is fair. There is ample evidence for us to conclude that employees compare their own job inputs and outcomes with those of others and that inequity can influence the degree of effort that employees exert.

The basic premise of the theory concerns the fairness and impartiality treatment between employees and their employers. According to J Stacy Adams as quoted by Daft (1990:140), equity theory proposes that ‘people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they expect for performance’. Each employee compares the ratio of outcomes to inputs relative to others. The ratio is given by the following formula;

$$\text{Equity} = \frac{\text{outcomes (self)}}{\text{Inputs (self)}} = \frac{\text{outcomes (others)}}{\text{inputs (others)}}$$

Inputs to jobs include; efforts, education, experience and competence. The outcomes from the job include; salary levels, recognition, pay raises, promotion, status and other privileges. ‘A state of equity exists whenever the ratio of one person’s outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of others’ outcomes to inputs’ Daft (1991:410).

Inequity occurs when the perceived input-output ratio of an employee does not equal to the other’s ratio. Whenever there is a state of inequity, individuals strive to restore equity. It is the striving force to restore equity that is used as an explanation of work motivation. When there is a state of inequity, individuals will behave in one of the following ways in order to restore equity.

I. The person may leave the job;

II. The person will modify his/her inputs into the job to adjust inequality. If he/she feels he/she is underpaid, he or she will reduce his/her effort and commitment to the work process. And if he/she feels he/she is over paid, he/she will increase his inputs like effort to the job;

III. The person may change outcomes by demanding increases on pay ;

IV. The person may also change the comparison referent. He/she may use somebody else to judge his/her inequality (referent categories have been classified as 'other' 'system' and 'self');

V. Behave in some way so as to induce others to change their inputs or outcomes.

According to this theory, therefore, employees in an organisation do evaluate the perceived equity of their rewards compared to others. 'An increase in salary or promotion will have no motivational effect if it is perceived as inequitable relative to others' Daft (1991:410).

A review of the research tends to confirm the equity thesis consistently. Employee motivation is influenced significantly by relative rewards as well as by absolute rewards. When employees perceive an inequity, they will act to correct the situation. The result might be lower or higher productivity improved or reduced quality of output, increased absenteeism or voluntary resignation.

The preceding does not mean that equity theory is without problems. The theory leaves some key issues unclear. For instance, how do employees select who is included in the 'other' referent category? How do they define inputs and outputs? How do they combine and weigh their inputs and outcomes to arrive at totals? When and how do the factors change time? Regardless of these problems, equity theory has an impressive amount of research support and offers us some important insights into employee motivation.

Miner et al (1988:147) in regard to equity argued ‘The perception of unfairness is one of the most powerful forces in the organisational world. The truth of this position is attested to by the appeals and success of labour movements; it is a rare picket line that does not include someone carry a placard with the words “management and fairness”’

This theory does not however consider employees’ needs. It assumes that an employee is contented with whatever he/she gets as long as he/she is fairly treated compared to others. This is not always the case. Different individuals have different needs and desires which affect their performance.

The motivating potential score

The motivating potential score (MPS) is a measure of the overall potential of a job to foster intrinsic motivation. MPS is equal to the average of the first three core characteristics (skill variety, task identity and task significance) multiplied by autonomy and feedback (refer to figure 2.2 illustrating the impact of the job core dimensions on psychological states and personal work outcomes).

The job diagnostic survey can be used to identify the core dimensions that are most in need for redesign in order to increase job’s motivating potential score and thus a worker’s intrinsic motivation.

Critical psychological states

The five core job dimensions contribute to three critical psychological states that determine how workers react to the design of their jobs: experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility of work outcomes, and knowledge of results.

Workers who perceive that their jobs are high in skill variety, task identity, and task significance attain the psychological state of experienced meaningfulness of the work. Experienced meaningfulness of the work is the degree to which workers feel their jobs are important, worthwhile, and meaningful. The second critical psychological state, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, is the extent to which workers feel that they are personally responsible or accountable for their job performance. This psychological state stems from the core dimension of autonomy. The third critical psychological state, knowledge of results, is the degree to which workers know how well they perform their jobs on a continuous basis. It stems from the core dimension of feedback.

The social information processing model

According to Brief (2000:429) social information processing model considers other factors other than the core dimensions specified by Hackman and Oldham that influence how workers respond to the design of their jobs. Salancik and Preffer propose that how workers perceive and respond to the design of their jobs is influenced by social environment (information from other people) and by workers' own past behaviours.

The social environment

The model proposes that the social environment provides workers with information about which aspects of their job design and outcomes they should pay attention to and they should ignore. Here, social environment means the other individuals with whom workers come into contact at work. A worker's social environment thus includes co-workers, Supervisors and other members of a work group. Second the model suggests that the social environment provides workers with information about how they should evaluate their jobs and worker outcomes.

The increasing reliance of organisations on contingent workers has some interesting applications for social environment at work. Contingent workers are employees organisations hire or contract with on a temporary basis to fill needs for labour which change over time. Contingent workers have little job security and loyalty towards their organisations because they know their employment is on a temporary basis.

Contingent workers often face a different social environment on the job than that experienced by regular workers.

The role of past behaviours

The social information processing model identified a second factor that affects workers' reactions to the design of their jobs: workers' past behaviour have implications for their evaluations of their current jobs, their levels of intrinsic motivation, and their levels of job satisfaction, especially when these behaviours ere freely chosen and involve certain personal sacrifices.

To sum up, social information processing model points to the importance of the social environment and past behaviours for understanding of how workers react to design of their jobs and helps explain why two workers with the same job and outcomes may have very different levels of motivation and satisfaction.

Socio-technical system

Chase and Aquiline (1985:256), say that consistent with the job enlargement philosophy but focusing more on the interaction between technology and the work group is the socio-technical approach. This approach attempts to develop jobs that adjust the needs of the production process technology to the needs of the worker and work group.

According to Dilworth (1979:531) the term socio-technical system designates the interrelationships between the technical system and a social system in order for people to work together. Operations managers must be interested in both components of the socio-technical system, since they are responsible for coordinating the efforts of groups of people to perform a technical task.

Work Methods, Measurement and Payment

Chase and Aquilano (1985:262), say that the following are to be considered:

I. How the work should be accomplished (work methods)

II. How performance may be evaluated (work measurement)

III. How workers should be compensated (wage payment plans)

The first and the second items constitute the basis for setting work standards which in turn constitute the basis of capacity and production planning decisions.

1. Work methods (how the work should be accomplished).

In contemporary industry, the responsibility for developing work methods in large firms is typically assigned either to a staff department that is designated ‘methods analysis’ or to an industrial engineering department. In small firms, this activity is often performed by individual specialists who report to the production manager.

The principal approach to the study of work methods is the construction of charts, such as operations charts, worker/machine charts, simo (simultaneous motion) charts and activity charts, in conjunction with time study or standard time data. The choice of which charting method to use depends on the activity level of the task; that is, whether the focus is on the overall production system, the stationary worker at a fixed workplace, a worker interacting with equipment, or a worker interacting with other workers.

2. Work measurement (how performance may be evaluated).

There are four accepted ways to derive the time required in the performance of a human task:

I. Time study (stopwatch and micro motion analysis), a time study is generally made with a stopwatch, although in some instances film analysis or a timed recording device may be used. Procedurally, the job or task to be studied is separated into measurable parts or elements, and each element is timed individually. With a few number of repetitions, the collected times are averaged.

II. Elemental standard time data. Tables contain performance times for operations that are common to many applications. The time data within each table are generally single-time entries that summarize more detailed analysis obtained through time study.

III. Predetermined motion-time data. To set a standard time for performing a task by using predetermined motion -time systems (PMTS), one divides the total task into elements, rates the difficulty of each element, looks in the tables for the time allowed for each element and then adds all the elements.

IV. Work sampling. As the name suggests, work sampling involves a portion or sample of the work activity. Then, based on the findings in this sample, some statements can be made about the activity.

Wage incentive plans

There is no clear-cut way to categorize wage incentive plans. One possibility is to classify plans into those that are established by management and those that are participative plans, in which workers play a large part. The first includes the traditional plans, which have time or unit production as the basis. The participative plans may use the same measurements, but they differ in that work committees perform a great deal of the design and analysis.

Four categories of plans established by management are:

I. Plans based on time worked.
II. Plans based on work output.
III. Plans based on either of the first two that have some provision for gain sharing or bonuses.
IV. Plans based on general performance of the worker or the firm over an extended time period; that is, indirect payment plans and 'fringe benefits'.

Organisation (s)

According to Daft (1991:10), 'an organisation is a social entity that is goal directed and deliberately structured'.

According to Barnard as cited by Kreitner (1986:238), 'an organization is a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons'.

John A. Wagner III et al (1992:22), define an organization 'as an arrangement of people and materials brought together to accomplish a purpose that would be beyond the means of individuals working alone'.

Kraus and Curtis (1986:140), say that ‘an organisation is the planned co-ordination of activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through division of labour and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility’.

Kathryn and Martin (1991:6), an organisation ‘refers to two or more persons engaged in a systematic effort to produce something useful to that particular group of people’.

North Craft and Neal (1990:3) state that ‘an organisation is a form of human association for the attainment of a common purpose by combining the talents and efforts of its members’. Straub and Attner (1988:82) define an organisation ‘as a group of two or more persons that exists and operates to achieve clearly stated, commonly held objectives’.

Classifications of Organisations

Kreitner (1986:240) classifies Organisations basing on two important organisational dimensions; purpose and technology.

1. Classifying organisation by purpose

   A. Business organisations

Business cannot survive let alone grow, without earning profits, and profits are earned by efficiently satisfying demand for products and services.

   B. Not-for-profit service organisations

But unlike businesses, many organisations survive, and grow, without making any profits at all. They need to be solvent of course, but they measure their success not in dollars and cents but by how well they provide a specific service for some segment of society.

   C. Mutual benefit organisations

Often, as in the case of labour unions or political parties, individuals join together strictly to pursue their own self-interests. Like all other types of organisations, mutual benefit organisations must be effectively and efficiently managed if they are to survive.

D. Commonweal organisations

Like not for profit service organisations, commonweal organisations offer public services. But, unlike not-for-profit service organisations, commonweal organisation offers standardized service to all members of a given population.

2. Classifying organisation by technology

A. Long-linked technology

This variation of technology involves the serial interdependence of work. In other words, work flows from person A to person B, to person C and so on.

B. Mediating technology

Many organisations today provide a standard service to large numbers of individuals who want exchange something such as information, money, or property. These organisations rely on mediating technologies that link together otherwise unassociated individuals in some mutually beneficial fashion.

C. Intensive technology.

Intensive technology has been called a custom technology. Organisations based on intensive technology can, so to speak, custom-build their product or service to fit each customer’s particular set of needs. To accomplish this, the organisation must have on hand several technologies to mix and match as the situation dictates.

Types of Organisational Structures

Stoner and Freeman (1992:312), state that Organisational structure 'is the way in which an organisation's activities are divided, organized, and coordinated'.

An organisation's departments can be formally structured in three major forms: by function, by product / market, or in matrix.

I. Organisation by function brings together in one department every one engaged in one activity or several related activities.

II. Product / market organisation, often referred to as organisation by division, brings together in one work unit all those involved in the production and marketing of a product or a related group of products, all those in a certain geographic area, or all those dealing with a certain type of customers.

III. In a matrix organisation, two types of structure exist simultaneously. Permanent functional departments have authority for the performance and professional standards of their units, while project teams are created as needed to carry out specific programs.

Organisation Theory.

Spencer (1968:36) puts forward the following three schools of thought that are largely concerned with achieving the optimum allocation of resources, particularly human resources within the firm.

1. Classical organisation theory

The main pillar of classical organisation theory is the notion of division of labour and the benefits to be derived there from.

Thus, to the classical organizationist, theory of organisation involves the effective coordination of the work-division units of an enterprise. Maximum efficiency or productivity is attained when this division of work at all levels in the organisation is achieved along natural lines and in natural areas of specialization, according to individual capacities and skills.

2. Neoclassical organisation theory

This school of thought represents the reaction to the engineering-oriented, purely structural approach of the classicists and their hierarchical concept of organisation.

The neoclassical school regards the pattern of human relationships itself as the organisation. Status systems emerge as part of the organisation, with complex networks of communications among individuals and among formal and informal groups.

The neoclassical school has been criticized for its overly descriptive and vague generalization, frequently based on extremely narrow, often trivial, empirical research.

3. Modern organization theory

Is by no means a homogeneous body of thought. Yet, its main connecting thread or unifying theme is its emphasis on the study of total human systems. It seeks to achieve a more complete and thorough understanding of such systems by analyzing;

I. The parts of an organisation, namely its members, its formal and informal groups, its status and role-expectancy patterns, and its physical work environment;
II. Its linkages, including its communication and decision process; and
III. Its goals, which involve stability, growth, and interaction.

Human Relations Contributors (Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Experiments).

George Elton Mayo was in charge of certain experiments on human behaviour carried at the Hawthorne works of Western Electric Company in Chicago between 1924 and 1927. His research findings have contributed to organisational development in terms of Human relations and motivation theory. Flowing from the findings of these investigations he came to certain conclusions as follows:

I. Work is a group activity.
II. The social world of the adult is primarily patterned about work activity.
III. The need for recognition, security and a sense of belonging is more important in determining worker's morale and productivity than physical conditions under which he/she works.
IV. A complaint is not necessarily an objective recital of facts; it's commonly a symptom manifesting disturbance of an individual's status position.
V. The worker is a person whose attitudes and effectiveness are conditioned by social demands from both inside and outside the work plant.
VI. Informal groups within the work plant exercise strong social controls over the work habits and attitudes of the individual worker.
VII. The change from an established society in the home to an adaptive society in the work plant resulting from the use of new techniques tends continuously to disrupt the social organisation of a work plant and industry generally.
VIII. Group collaboration does not occur by accident; it must be planned and developed. If group collaboration is achieved the human relations within a work plant may reach a cohesion which resists the disrupting effects of adaptive society.

Human Relations Contributors (Douglas McGregor)

Douglas McGregor in his book 'The human side of the enterprise' published in 1960 has examined theories on behaviour of individuals at work, and he has formulated two models which he calls Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X assumptions

The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

I. Because of their dislike for work, most people must be controlled and threatened before they will work hard enough.

II. The average human prefers to be directed, dislikes responsibility, is unambiguous, and desires security above everything.

III. These assumptions lie behind most organisational principles today, and give rise both to 'tough' management with punishments and tight controls, and 'soft' which aims at harmony at work.

IV. Both these are 'wrong' because man needs more than financial rewards at work; he also needs some deeper higher order motivation-the opportunity to fulfil himself.

V. Theory X managers do not give their staff this opportunity so that the employees behave in the expected fashion.

Theory Y assumptions

I. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

II. Control and punishment are not the only ways to make people work, human beings will direct themselves if they are committed to the aims of the organisation.

III. If a job is satisfying, then the result will be commitment to the organisation.

IV. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

V. Imagination, creativity, and ingenuity can be used to solve work problems by a large number of employees.

VI. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average man are only potentially utilized.

Comments on Theory X and Theory Y assumptions

These assumptions are based on social science research which has been carried out, and demonstrate the potential which is present in human beings and which organizations should recognize in order to become more effective.

McGregor sees these two theories as two quite separate attitudes. Theory Y is difficult to put into practice on the shop floor in large mass production, but it can be used initially in the managing of managers and professionals.

In 'The human side of the enterprise' McGregor shows how Theory Y affects the management of promotions and salaries and the development of effective managers. McGregor also sees Theory Y as conducive to participative problem solving.

It is part of the manager's job to exercise authority, and there are cases in which this is the only method of achieving the desired results because subordinates do not agree that the ends are desirable.

However in situations where it is possible to obtain commitment to objectives, it is better to explain the matter fully so that employees grasp the purpose of an action. They will then exert self-direction and control to do better work-quite possibly by better methods-than if they had simply been carrying out an order which they did not fully understand.

The situation in which employees can be consulted is one where the individuals are emotionally mature and positively motivated towards their work; where the worker is sufficiently responsible to allow for flexibility and where the employee can see her/his own position in the management hierarchy. If these conditions are present, managers will find that the participative approach to problem solving leads to much improved results compared with the alternative approach of handing out authoritarian orders.

Once management becomes persuaded that it is under estimating the potential of its human resources, and accepts the knowledge given by social science researchers as displayed in Theory Y assumptions, then it can invest time, money and effort in developing improved applications of the theory.

McGregor realizes that some of the theories he has put forward are unrealizable in practice, but wants managers to put into operation the basic assumption that:

I. Staff will contribute more to the organisation if they are treated as responsible and valued employees.

2.3 Methods of motivation used in organisations

Quite a number of tools for motivation exist. The following are what the researcher gave importance because of their practical importance in today's business world. The researcher begins with a general discussion of motivation tools and eventually narrows it to methods that are particular to Rwanda.

I. Job Design

There are many definitions of job design according to different researchers which help in shading light on how job design simplifies work and makes timely work accomplishments possible.

According to Chase and Aquilino (1985:252), Job design may be defined 'as the function of specifying the work activities of an individual or group in an organizational setting'. Its objective is to develop work assignments that meet the requirements of the organization and the technology, and that satisfy the personal and individual requirements of the job holder.

According to Brief (2000:412), Job design 'is the process of linking specific tasks to specific jobs and deciding what techniques, equipment, and procedures should be used to perform those tasks'.

Dilworth (1979:522) puts it forward that 'Job design is specifying the tasks, methods and relationships of jobs in order to satisfy technological and organizational requirements of the job holder'. Daft (1991:419), defines it 'as an application of motivational theories to the structure of work for improving productivity and satisfaction'.

Approaches to Job Design

Brief (2000: 412) says job enlargement, scientific management and job enrichment are the three early approaches to job design. Each has implication not only for how new jobs should be designed but also for how existing jobs can be redesigned to improve motivation and performance. Some of the approaches can also be used to design a job so that performing the job will promote job satisfaction, an outcome that many workers desire along with pay, promotion and other rewards a job can bring.

Scientific management

Brief (2000: 413) scientific management is a set of principles and practices designed to increase the performance of individual workers by stressing job simplification and specialization. He continues to say that there is one best way to perform any job, and management's responsibility is to determine what that way is. He believed that following the principles of job simplification and job specialization would help managers determine the best way to perform each job. Job simplification is the breaking up of the work that needs to be performed in an organization into the smallest identifiable tasks. Jobs are then designed around these narrow tasks. Job specialization is the assignment of workers to perform small, simple tasks. Workers specialize, or focus exclusively on those tasks.

In scientific management to job design, pay is the principal outcome used to motivate workers to contribute their inputs. Pay is often linked closely to performance by a piece-rate pay system in which workers are paid a set amount of money for performing a certain number of tasks. Scientific management has been instrumental in helping organizations to improve worker effectiveness and productivity.

Workers contribute their inputs to the organization and perform at a given level. The performance is evaluated so that workers may receive outcomes in proportion to their inputs or contributions to their jobs and to the organization. Here two factors generate motivation. That is expectancy (the perceived connection between effort and performance) and instrumentality (the perceived connection between performance and outcomes such as pay, praise and career opportunities).

II. Pay as a motivational tool:

One area of decision making that often has profound effects on the motivation of all members of an organization, managers and workers alike, is the distribution of outcomes-pay benefits, vacations, perks, promotions, and other career opportunities, job title, offices and privileges. Pay can be used not only to motivate people to perform highly but also to motivate to join and remain with an organization. If payment system is good, workers will be able to meet their job related needs as a result job satisfaction is high which will motivate them to exert their efforts towards the attainment of organizational objectives Brief (2000). Related to this, if payment system is good it will motivate people to join and remain within an organization (Behavioural commitment).

He further says that the principles of operant conditioning and approaches to motivation suggest that outcomes should be distributed to workers contingent on their performing desired organizational behaviours: Operant conditioning theory suggests that to encourage the learning of desired organisational behaviours, positive rein forcers or rewards should be distributed to workers contingent on performance.

Need theory suggests that when pay is contingent on performances, workers are motivated to perform because performance will help satisfy their needs. Expectancy theory takes into account that pay is an outcome that has high valence (is highly desirable) for most workers and that instrumentality (association between performance and outcomes) must be high for motivation to be high. Equity theory indicates that outcomes (pay) should be distributed in proportion to inputs (performance).

Procedural justice theory suggests that the methods used to evaluate performance and distribute pay need to be fair. The principle of comparable worth suggests that jobs of equivalent value to an organisation should carry the same pay rates regardless of differences in the nature of the work itself and regardless of the personal characteristics of the persons performing the work. Pay rates should be determined by factors such as effort, skills, and responsibility on a job and not by whether one type of person or another usually performs the job.

From learning and motivational perspective, the message is clear: whenever possible, pay should be based on performance. Pay is an important outcome for some workers. When individual performance can be accurately assessed, the maximum motivational impact is obtained from basing pay on individual performance when workers are highly independent, individual level of cooperation across workers are designed, it can be advantageous to base pay on group or organizational performance.

III. Performance appraisal

Brief (2000:461) says that, the accurate assessment of performance is central to the goals of motivating workers to perform at acceptable levels and improving the effectiveness of managerial decision making. Performance appraisal refers to the evaluation of subordinate's performance and contribution to their jobs and to the organization. Workers will be motivated to perform at a higher level only when they perceive that they are receiving outcomes in proportion to their inputs or contribution to their jobs and to the organization. The procedures that are used to appraise performance must be perceived as fair in order for motivation to be high. If workers think that managers' appraisal system is biased or irrelevant, it negatively impacts on their work morale. More generally, no matter which approach managers use to motivate workers, workers will be motivated to contribute their inputs to the organization and perform at a high level only if they think that managers can and also do appraise their performance accurately.

IV. Motivation through career opportunities:

A career can be defined as the sum total of work related experiences through one's lifetime. Effective career management to ensure that members of an organization are motivated to perform at a high level and receive the career opportunities they should while also ensuring that the organization is making the best use of its human resources is crucial.

In general, the managers design jobs to increase motivation and encourage workers to perform well, enjoy their work and receive the outcomes available to those who perform it at an acceptable level. Job design influences the level of inputs that workers are motivated to contribute to their jobs and to their organization. When workers are motivated to contribute high level of inputs (to work harder), more efficiently and more creatively and perform their jobs more effectively, organization effectiveness increases.

The researcher over emphasized job design because if properly done, it satisfies organizational requirements and personal needs of job holder. People work better when jobs have been designed to help and reward them.

V. Goal Setting and Job Design as Motivational Tools

Brief (2000:439) says Job design and goal setting are important tools of motivation. The ways in which jobs are designed and the types of goals that are set can have profound effects on worker motivation and performance and the extent to which an organization is able to achieve its goals. He defines a goal as what an individual is trying to accomplish through his or her behaviour and actions. Goal setting theory, like the different approaches to job design, focuses on how to motivate the employees to contribute inputs to their jobs. Goal setting theory also stresses the importance of ensuring that workers' inputs result in acceptable levels of job performance.

Goal setting is used in organizations not just to influence the level of inputs that workers are motivated to contribute to their jobs and organizations but also to help ensure that inputs are directed toward furthering organizational goals.

According to goal setting theory, there are two major characteristics of goals that, when appearing together, lead to high levels of motivation and performance. One is specificity; the other is difficulty.

I. To sum up, specific, difficult goals affect motivation by:

II. Directing workers' attention and action toward goal-relevant activities.

III. Causing workers to develop action plans to achieve their goals.

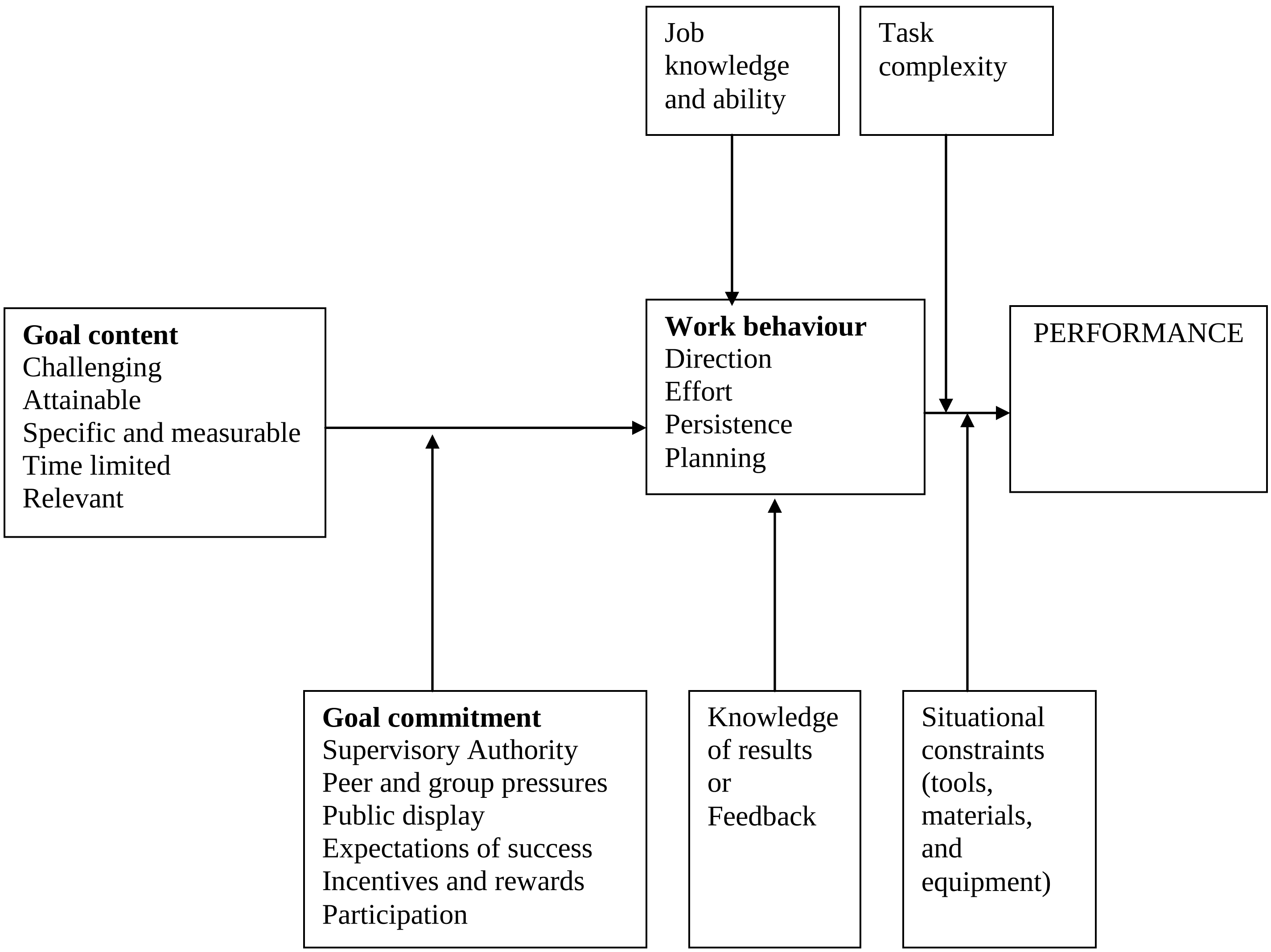
IV. Causing workers to exert higher levels of effort.

V. Causing workers to persist in the face of obstacles or difficulties

Bartol and David C. Martin (1991:164) suggest that in order to effectively make use of goals; managers should understand how goals can facilitate performance. They consider the following aspects; the goal content, goal commitment, work behaviour and feedback.

The figure on the next page depicts this relationship.

Figure 2. 1 How Goals Facilitate Performance. Adopted from Bartol and C. Martin (1991:)



1. Goal content

Goals that are effective in channelling effort toward achievement at the strategic, tactical and operational levels have a content that reflects five major characteristics. Goals should be challenging, attainable, specific and measurable, time limit and relevant.

I. Challenging: challenging, difficult goals lead to higher performance. Assuming that the goals are accepted, people tend to try harder when faced with a challenge.

II. Attainable: although goals need to be challenging, they usually work best when they are attainable.

III. Specific and measurable: to be effective, goals need to specific and measurable so that it is clear what is expected and when the goal has been achieved.

IV. Time limit: goals also need to be time-limited; that is there should be a defined period of time with in which the goals must be accomplished.

V. Relevant: goals are more likely to engender support when they are clearly relevant to the major work of the organization and the particular department or work unit

2. Goal commitment

A critical element in using goals effectively is getting individuals and/or work groups to be committed to the goals they must carry out. Goal is one's attachment to, or determination to reach a goal.

I. Supervisory Authority: individuals and groups are often willing to accept a goal and become committed to it when the goal and the reasons for it are explained by a person with a supervisory authority, usually one's boss.

II. Peer and group pressure: pressure from peers and work group members can enhance goal commitment when everyone's efforts are channelled in the same direction. This is because enthusiasm about potential accomplishments becomes infectious.

III. Expectations of success: goal commitment is more likely when individuals or groups perceive that they have high expectations of success.

IV. Incentives and rewards: goal commitment is also enhanced by incentives and rewards. Incentives are offered during the goal-setting process, while rewards occur upon goal achievement.

V. Participation: participation can particularly be helpful in developing plans for implementing goals. As a result, managers often include subordinates in goal setting and the subsequent planning of how to achieve the goals.

3. **Work behaviour**

Goal content and goal commitment affect an individual's actual work behaviour by influencing four work behaviour factors: direction, effort, persistence, and planning.

I. Direction: goals provide direction by channelling attention and action toward activities related to those goals, rather than to other activities.

II. Effort: in addition to channelling activities, goals to which we are committed boost effort by mobilizing energy. Individuals are likely to put forth effort when goals are difficult than when they are easy.

III. Persistence: it involves maintaining direction and effort in behalf of a goal until it is reached, a requirement that may involve an extended period of time.

IV. Planning: goal setting effects planning because individuals who have committed themselves to achieving difficult goals are likely to develop plans or methods that can be used to attain those goals.

4. **Other process components**

I. Job knowledge and ability are likely to affect an individual's work behaviour and prospects for reaching goals, even when there is strong commitment.

II. Complexity of the task may affect the degree to which goal-directed work behaviours influence job performance. The impact of goals on performance is greater with relatively simple tasks.

III. Situational constraints. Having the proper tools, materials and equipment is important for achieving difficult goals.

IV. Knowledge of results or feedback about the progress toward goals is particularly important aspect of using goals effectively in organization. While goals set the target, knowledge of results ultimately impacts goal achievement by enabling individuals to gauge their progress toward goal attainment.

Limits of goal setting theory

Although goal-setting theory has received extensive research support for a variety of jobs and organizations, some recent research suggests that there may be certain limits on the theory's applicability; research suggests that there are two circumstances under which setting specific, difficult goals will not lead to high motivation and performance:

I. When workers lack the skills and abilities needed to perform at a high level.

II. When workers are given complicated and difficult tasks that require a considerable amount of learning.

Like all Districts and according to Rwandan workers general statute of civil servants, motivation initiatives existing in the district and in the country at large include but not limited to the following; instituting power and responsibility delegation system (in local and central Administration), implementing a system of goals and performance appraisal based on results and a result-based pay salary structures, putting in place work related instructions, designing special allowances to technical professionals, on-the-job training programs, seminars and workshops, tax exemption to senior government officials in importing fancy cars, telephone codes for communication, rental and transport allowances, internet installation in offices, habitant Bank of Rwanda (BHR) to cater for housing needs of public servants, having in place a medical insurance scheme (RAMA) to cater for health insurance of workers, social security fund (NSSR) which covers/provides for work related risks and especially in retirement periods, pension offering after service and other fringe benefits provisioned by law, recommendations for loans in banks, financial support to any staff in bad times of losing any family member etc.

2.4 Employee Productivity

According to Scarpello (1987), productivity is the efficiency with which the organization uses its resources to produce goods and services. It is usually measured numerically as the ratio of output (goods and services) to inputs (resources).

In general, productivity is a measure of the output of goods and services relative to the inputs labour, materials and equipment. The more productive an enterprise is, the better its competitive position because its unit costs are lower. Improving productivity simply means getting more out of what is put in. It does not mean however, increasing production through the addition of the resources, such as time, materials or people. According to Wayne (1992), it is doing better with what you have.

Productivity improves when information, equipment, capital and labour are used wisely. We cannot emphasize only one factor for instance computer equipment to the exclusion of the rest since for example it takes people who are properly selected, trained, updated with information and motivated to operate and maintain the computer. Thomas J Peter et al cited by Donnelly (1989) states that productivity can be boosted through new equipment and new job designs, but people are also extremely important. In most reports on how to improve productivity, a major theme is the importance of always respecting people by intrinsic or extrinsic means or otherwise.

Measuring productivity.

A simple way of looking at productivity in an organization is to think of it in terms of ratios. Essentially, productivity is a ratio to measure how well an organization (or individual, industry, country) converts input resources (labour, materials, machines etc) into goods and services. This is usually expressed in ratios of inputs to outputs. That is (inputs) cost per (output) good/service. It is not on its own a measure of how efficient the conversion process is. htt://www.accel-team.com/productivity.Besides productivity ratios, goal-based measures and added value concepts are used in measuring productivity.

I. Productivity ratios

Productivity differs from production. Production refers to an increase in outputs over a given period of time; productivity is concerned with the ratio of output to input. Many writers explain productivity in terms of these ratios with little further elaboration 'productivity is the quantities relationship between what we produce and the resources we use'. 'The volume of output which is achieved in a given period in relation to the sum of the direct and indirect effort expended in its production'. Productivity ratios usually relate units of a single input, for example US dollar cost, number of work days or total cost to a single output, for example financial measures such as profit or value added, or physical measures such as tones produced or standard minutes of work produced. These ratios in themselves and the definitions given take no account of efficiency, a concept important in evaluating productivity. http://www.accel-team.com/productivity.

II. Goal-based measures

The most important goal-based measures are those used by engineers and production managers who seek a refinement no present in many of the system-based measures. Norman and Bahiri (1972) stated that to engineers, productivity and efficiency are often regarded as synonymous. They consider that since only the parts of labour and machines that are utilized add value to the manufacture of products, consequently the appropriate efficiency measure is existent to which value is added. When measures based on the work content of labour are used, standard hours or standard minutes of productive work force can be compared to the actual hours taken to do this work which gives both an index of labour productivity (as numerator and denominator are in same unit) and a concept of efficiency (as there is implicit in standard time of potential).

Other typical goal-oriented measures often used are those that can be a partial unit of a partial unit of output [Tonnes produced of steel]

Work hours of labour produced involved

III. Value added concept

One attempt, popularized in recent years for managers Smith (1978), as well as for accountants Cox (1980) is measuring overall performance of an organization by measuring the value added. This is in effect a total measure of productivity, converted into a partial measure, by deducting the value of raw materials and brought-out goods and services from both the numerator and the denominator to give a measure of value added during production. This method can thus provide an index of the productivity of the total system. Htth://www.accel-team.com/productivity

When an organization decides that improving productivity is important, there are three places to look; technological productivity, worker productivity and managerial productivity.

Technical productivity**:** Technical productivity means the use of more efficient machines, Robots, computers and other technologies to increase outputs.

Worker productivity**:** Worker productivity means having workers produce more outputs in the same period. Improving worker's productivity is a real change for many organizations, because too often workers have an antagonistic relationship with management. Often workers are formed into temporary 'corrective action teams' to solve specific problems. Employees also fill out 'method improvement requests', which are promptly received.

Managerial productivity**:** This simply means managers do a better job running the business. Leading experts in productivity and quality have often stated that the real reason for productivity problems in many organizations is poor management.

Management productivity improves when managers emphasize quality over quantity, break-down barriers and empower their employees and do not over manage using numbers**.** Managers must learn to use reward systems, management by objectives, employee involvement, teamwork and other management techniques.

Efficiency and effectiveness.

Kreitner (1986:8) says that distinguishing between effectiveness and efficiency is much more than an exercise in semantics. The relationship between these two terms is important, and it represents managers with a never-ending dilemma. Effectiveness entails achieving a stated objective. Efficiency enters the picture when the resources required to achieve an objective are weighted against what was actually accomplished. The more favourable the ratio of benefits to costs, the greater the efficiency.

Engler (1987:369) says that everyone at one time or another is evaluated on his / her performance, often terms such as effective and efficient are used to rate favourable performance, while inefficient and ineffective are used to rate unfavourable performance. Effectiveness relates to whether an objective is achieved. Efficiency, on the other hand, is a measure of the means by which an objective is achieved- that is whether it is achieved with the least amount of effort and the least possible cost. Daft (1991:11) defines efficiency 'as the use of minimal resources– raw materials; money and people-to produce a desired volume of output'. Effectiveness is the degree to which the organization achieves a stated objective. Peter Drucker as quoted by Kathryn and martin (1992:21) point out that performance actually is made up of two important dimensions: effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness is the ability to choose appropriate goals and achieve them (doing the right things).

In relation to the operations of a business, the term 'efficiency' means different things to different people- the ratios output to machine capacity, standard cost to actual cost, physical output to physical input (s) or cost per unit Amey (1969:4).

According to Hyman (1996:48), efficiency is a normative criterion for evaluating the effects of resource use on the well-being of individuals. Miner, Singleton and Luchsinger (1985:115), efficiency relates to the best utilization of resources. It is a concept that includes both quality and quantity. Certo (1990:178), assert that 'efficiency is using the optimum amount of organizational resources to help the organization reach its objectives'. Effectiveness is the extent to which managers reach organizational objectives. Managers try to be effective in what they do. The better the objectives are met, the more effective is the manager. The closer the organization comes to achieving its objectives, the more efficient its managers are said to be. The fewer the resources used to achieve objectives, the more efficient the manager. In other words efficiency means using only what you need without wasting any materials. The effective manager then, is he/she who achieves organizational objectives, while the efficient manager is one who conserves resources in production.

Components of productivity.

Productivity can be said to be the raison d'etre (existence justification) of Management. Yet how well do managers, supervisors and indeed all employees fully understand the concept and consider all the components that it comprises? Corporate management globally is concerned with productivity because it is regarded a main indicator of efficiency when companies are made with competitors in world markets. http://www.accel-team.com/productivity.

Productivity has generally been defined as a ratio of measure of output to a measure of some or all of the resources used to produce this output. Defined this way, one or a number of inputs measure can be taken and compared with one or a number of outputs measures. When attempts are made to include all inputs and all outputs in a system, the measure is called a total productivity measure (TPM), Palik (1979) explains in this definition that the inputs used in this process can be hours of labour, units of capital and quantities of raw materials compared with the consequent outcome.htt://www.accel-team.com/productivity.

According to Weyne F.Cascio (1995:15), productivity is defined as a measure of the output of goods and services relative to the input of labour, material and equipment. He further gives what it means to improve productivity-getting more out of what is put in. It does not mean increasing production through the addition of resources, such as time, money, material or people. It is doing better with what you have. Improving productivity is not working harder; its working smarter.

Donnelly et al (1997:44) defines productivity as the relationship between outputs generated from a system and the inputs provided to create those outputs. In fact productivity can be defined in simple terms as any ratio of outputs to one or more corresponding inputs. Certo (1992:549) says that productivity is the relationship between the total amount of goods and services being produced (output) and the organizational resources needed (inputs) to produce them. Kathryn M Bartol and C Martin (1991:663) defined productivity as the efficiency concept that gauges the ratio of output relative to inputs into a productive process.

$$\text{Productivity equation} = \frac{\text{Goods+ services produced(outputs)}}{\text{Goods+capital+energy+technology+materials(inputs)}}$$

According to Kreitner (1986:31) productivity is any output to input ratio, he further comments that for the firm as a whole output include all goods and services produced during a given time. Inputs include all resources consumed to produce those outputs. Labour is one of the input resources but so too are capital, materials and energy.

Daft (1991:587) says that productivity is the organization’s output of product and services divided by its units. This means that productivity can either be improved by increasing the amount of output using the same level of inputs or reducing the number of inputs required to produce the outputs. Research-based evidence Lord (2002); Mani (2002) portray causes for productivity decrease as often physical and mental fatigue, which leads to slower worker, more mistakes, and wasted time. Another common problem is ‘presenteeism’ where you are physically present at work but distracted and unfocused.

Role conflict can exist in many forms which can affect productivity. There can be conflict between the work role and the employee’s values. Roles which do not have clearly articulated expectations concerning appropriate behaviours or performance are ambiguous roles. Role conflict and ambiguity are significantly related to lower productivity, and more tension and dissatisfaction and work stress.

2.5 Employer-employee performance behaviour

The Rwandan labour code chapter 2 article 53 provides for obligations between two parties (Employer and Employee).

The employer has notably the following obligations:

I. To give to the employee the agreed work at a time and a place agreed;

II. To ensure the responsibility of implementing the work contract signed by any other person acting on his/her behalf;

III. To supervise the employee and see if that work is done in suitable conditions, as far as security as well as health and dignity of employee is concerned;

IV. To pay the employee the agreed remuneration regularly and in due time;

V. To avoid whatever may hamper the company’s functioning, its employees and the environment.

The employee has notably the following obligations:

I. To personally carry out his/her work or service in the time, place and conditions as agreed upon;

II. To respect the employer's or his/her duties' order when given so as to have the work done;

III. To abstain from all that might threaten his/her security or that of his/her companions or third party, or prejudice his/her and other employee's dignity;

IV. To respect rules prescribed by the establishment, its branch or the place where he/she is to do his/her work;

V. To give back in good order to the employer, tools and remaining raw materials that have been given to him/her.

In this thesis the two sets of obligations are the behaviour measurement standards meaning that if each side fulfils its obligations, high performance is eminent. The researcher considered these obligations to guide the study in terms of relating what each side ought to have done but failed leading to low or no motivation. Then if each side did what it ought to do and productivity remained low; it gives room for the researcher to think of motivation as one of the causes that could have led to that.

The National work values and taboos to promote progress in the context of Rwanda vision 2020 as put forward by the Ministry of Public Service also have done a lot as regards elucidation of employer-employee work behaviour. According to the Rwandan

Ministry of Public Service, the National work values and taboos include but not limited to the following:

I. Speed and respect for time; a country in hurry
II. Customer service mentality; constant improvement and anticipation
III. Quality of delivery; high standards, spirit of excellence, efficiency
IV. Completion towards results; we finish what we start
V. Self respect; national pride and taboos as follows:
VI. Inattention to results: status & ego
VII. Avoidance of accountability: missed deadlines
VIII. Lack of commitment: ambiguity
IX. Fear of conflict: artificial harmony
X. Lack of trust: invulnerability

In this thesis the above National values and taboos establish a work etiquette that is output oriented. Workers' mind set gets aligned to these values and taboos meaning a culture of positive work. This holistically can be seen as motivation since the employer-employee expectations become synchronised. Failure on either of the sides can be easily noticed in light of these values and taboos.

In as much as Management tries to identify and prioritize the critical people issues, employees ought to do self-assessment of the extent to which they hit set performance targets. The rights, duties and obligations ought to be observed on both sides. Sometimes personalities clash and yet the people are such the same you wonder how this is happening. Sometimes it is the competitive attitudes and similarities and personalities that cause the conflict in the work place. What is important is to have a strong team that works together and maintains efficiency. No one makes right decisions every time. No one is infallible. No one has all negative or all positive traits. No one exercises good judgement one hundred percent of the time.

Enthusiasm in the work place, properly ignited, can propel success. Motivated employees work harder. They will even come with ideas to improve the productivity. Motivated and enthusiastic employees are the best kind of employees to have. Psychologists tell us that the best way to change our feelings about what we are doing is to change the way we think of our feelings. The brain tells the body how to feel and the body acts accordingly. We can direct our own feelings and our outlook on work life. Expectations can change the outcome of future events (individual's expected consequences of his or her work action). There are four different types of expected consequences or motives. These motives lead to four types of motivation: extrinsic, intrinsic, contributive and relational. We categorise these outcomes using two criteria: *perceived locus of causality*, which defines the origin of motivation and the *perceived locus of consequence*, which defines who receives the consequences of the action. Individuals generally act based on a combination of extrinsic, intrinsic, contributive and relational motivations, each one having a particular weight. We call motivational profile to the particular combination of an individual's motivations in a certain context. Individuals may experience conflict when different alternatives convey different expected consequences (motives).

Resolution of conflicts among motives results in motivational learning. In particular, the resolution of conflicts among motives of same type results in calculative learning. As employees, we should see events as being successful. If this holds true then we act accordingly as we work towards that success. If we tell ourselves that we are going to be successful, we begin to believe it. We can see it. We can feel it. We can plan for it. Expectations drive us forward with enthusiastic zeal. Managers need to see employees as successful and employees need to see that managers see them as successful. Successful workers are motivated and enthusiastic about their jobs.

When morale issue and its caused are not known, addressed or shoved under the carpet, there is usually; poor productivity, wasted time, wasted resources, customer turnover, discipline issues, a lack of creativity, imagination in problem solving, employee turnover, doing pointless actions with no purpose (remember that actions that have no purpose usually result in failure). Every organisation is experiencing significant change. Change can be one of the greatest causes of poor morale. People are threatened by change and tend to pull in, hide, wait and see, not take chances, feel insecure etc.

In response to competition for efficiency on one side and capitalistic tendencies on the other, human resource function ought to be standardized, Yet, the reality for many organizations is that their people remain undervalued, under trained, underutilized, poorly motivated, and consequently perform well below their true capability.

One of core job dimensions (Skill variety), that is the extent to which a job requires a worker to have a number of different skills, abilities, or talents reflects a challenge to many employees. Job performance is a function of ability multiplied by motivation. Some workers are more intrinsically motivated by jobs that are high on skill variety yet others because of their skills potential are motivated by jobs that are low on skills variety. Lou Holtz believes ‘Ability is what you are capable of doing. Motivation determines what you do. Attitude determines how well you do it’.

It is common People struggling to cope with the emotional pressures of today's workplace often resort to bitchiness, aggression, backstabbing, gossiping, complaining and other purely childish behaviours. Research to date indicates that social support is related to stress and well-being. Support from co-workers and supervisors have a stronger association with lower work stress than family support. However, the results of studies of the relationship between social support, work stress and negative stress outcomes remains mixed. Different results have been found depending on the source, amount, and type of support and the personality of the employee. Levy (Martinkowski, 1993) defines cynicism as a system of beliefs and attitudes that is manifested by statements and actions that assume that the motivations and behaviours of others, including organizations, are predominantly selfish, self-serving, or exploitative.

2.6 Relationship between motivation and productivity

From the management point of view the motivation level of subordinates is a reflection of the potential human energy available for production. The unleashing and directing of that energy require the management activate the energy source of applying stimuli or incentives Luthans (1992). The intensity of stimulation required is inversely related to the motivation level. Therefore, motivation and productivity are directly related; the higher the motivation level, the higher the productivity potential of subordinates. Assume that there are two equally qualified subordinates, one highly motivated and the other not. Assume further that management's responsibility is to get equal production from each subordinate over a given period of time. Management will have to apply less incentive (inputs) to a highly motivated subordinate to achieve a given production level (output) and will thus gain higher productivity (since productivity is a measure of output related to input from that individual-the motivated one).

Because motivation and productivity are directly related, it is essential that management be aware of the subordinates' motivation levels. Productivity requirements are generally stipulated in the standards section of an organization's mission, and it becomes incumbent on management to be aware of motivation levels Scarpello (1987).

One way of partially expressing this would be by equation.

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{production (output)}}{\text{Incentives (inputs)}}$$

$$\text{Incentives} = \frac{\text{Production}}{\text{Productivity}}$$

This indicates what is potentially available in the way of tangible (measurable) incentives. Knowing motivation level, management can supplement these tangible incentives such as persuasion, status and threat.

The point here is that management, in most cases, cannot rely on economic incentives alone, but also apply intangible incentives on a continuing basis during the normal course of instruction and supervision. Intangible incentives are highly a matter of management judgment which should be based on availability of tangible and management's perception on the level of subordinate's motivation Daft (1991:407). These intangible incentives if present at work remove the dissatisfaction; they do not in themselves cause people to become highly satisfied. However, if not handled properly employees will become dissatisfied and consequently perform below their true levels of capacity which negatively affect productivity. These intangible incentives or hygiene factors do not make the job interesting but are needed to attract and maintain employees in an organization.

Herzberg identified ten hygiene or maintenance factors as indicated by Donelly (1987:298). They include: company policy and administration, technical supervision, interpersonal relations with supervisors, interpersonal relations with peers, salary, job security, personal life, work conditions, status and interpersonal relations with subordinates.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

3.0 Introduction

The meaning of method and methodology is of great controversy to different social scientists and researchers. According to Kenneth D. Bailey (1978:26), the controversy over the differences between the physical sciences and social sciences centres on methodology not around method. Bailey asserts that by ‘method’ we simply mean the research technique or tool used to gather data.

By ‘methodology’ we mean the philosophy of the research process. This includes the assumptions and values that serve as a rational for research and standards or criteria the researcher uses for interpreting data and conclusions. Research methodology refers to a set of methods and principles that are used when studying a particular kind of scientific work or methods. Research methods, according to Grinnell and Williams (1990:42), refer to a number of ways of arriving at the knowledge regarding what is needed. This research study attempted to show the effect of motivation on productivity in Nyagatare District.

According to Richard and Robert (1992:35), scientific method is a systematic and organised array of steps that ensure maximum objectivity and consistence in researching a problem. According to them, there are seven basic steps of scientific method that researchers follow; these are:

I. Defining the problem
II. Reviewing the literature
III. Formulating the hypothesis/research questions
IV. Selecting the research design

V. Collecting data

VI. Analysing data

VII. Developing the conclusion.

It is in that context that, this chapter described and discussed methods and techniques that were used in the data collection and processing. It also pointed out the sources of data, methods of sample selection, data collection and processing techniques and various problems the researcher encountered during the research process.

3.1 Research design

Grinnell Jr and Williams (1990:138), say that research design 'is the total plan we use to aid us in answering our research questions'. They also put forward that as a part of our plan, we decide what the research questions should be, what data is required to answer it, from where the data is to be obtained and exactly what is the best way to gather the data.

The research process took two broad designs - quantitative and qualitative. Within the two broad designs the researcher adopted a cross-sectional study design. With this, one identifies what he/she wants to find out, identify the study population, select a sample and contacts his/her respondents to find out the required information. This design essentially helps to measure change in a situation, phenomena, issue, problem or attitude; it is the most appropriate design for measuring the impact or effectiveness of a programme. Further this design is best suited to studies aiming at finding out the prevalence of a phenomena, situation, problem, attitude or issue, by taking a cross-section of the population. Such designs are useful in obtaining an overall 'picture' as it stands at the time of the study. The researcher obtained information on employees' motivation work behaviour using semi structured questionnaires in their different work landscape but all at the same time for a specified short period. All the District administrative areas (sectors, cells and villages) spreading over an area of 1741km^2 were surveyed at the same time meaning that questionnaire distribution and collection was done at the same time. Data collection took into consideration the fact that the unit of analysis is the individual worker in the District. The design was also sensitive to the fact that the type of investigation was correlational with particular interest in examining how the key variables (punctuality, absenteeism, work morale, ability, sense of responsibility, methods of motivation used) relate with key parameters of the population (age, gender, level of education etc) studied.

Descriptive study design was preferred and adopted by the researcher. The study took into considerations the descriptive intentions of this study for each of the population studied. The aim was to present frequencies with which events occur in the District**.** Primary data for empirical evidence were got from various employees of Nyagatare District. This was through use of semi structured questionnaires supplemented by personal observation of the researcher.

3.2 Population

According to Grinnell Gr. Williams (1990:118), a population can be defined as the totality of persons or objects with which a study is concerned. Manheim and C. Rich (1995:446) on the other hand, define population as ‘a set of cases about which one wishes to draw some conclusions’. Yet, according to Bailey (1978:69), population refers ‘to the sum total of all units of analysis’. The study population according to the researcher was Nyagatare District employees (216). This implies that whoever is employed by Nyagatare District qualified as a respondent irrespective of sex, religion or economic status. Below is the table illustrating the study population and different employee strata at the District:

Table 3:2.1 showing the study population strata and number of employees in each stratum.

Category/stratum	**Number of employees**
Executive level/District and Sectors	8
Directorate/Directors/District	18
In charges/District and sectors	70
Secretaries/District and sectors	120
Total	**216**

3.3 Sample size, methods of sample selection and research procedure

The ideal practice in research is to get data from the whole population. Because this would ensure maximum coverage of all the elements in the population under study, but due to constraints of time and resources a sample was chosen to present the whole population. According to Keneth D. Bailey (1978:70), a sample is a subset or portion of the total population under study; a one percent sample would consist of only one out of every 100 entities in the population. Therefore, the sample must always be viewed as an approximation of the whole rather than a whole in itself.

Due to limited resources in terms of money and time, and the researcher's need for precision of results, it was not possible to study the whole population. Also for a reason that complete coverage of a population on a scientific inquiry is never possible, or even unadvisable if it is possible, a sample size of 90 was taken by the researcher to be numerically adequate and culturally representative. Sampling techniques used were; purposive sampling, stratified random sampling, universal and systematic sampling. Use of these methods was intended to eliminate personal bias of the researcher.

Using the above sampling methods sample size was determined. It is argued that a correct sample size depends both on study population and the research questions. According to the rule of a thumb, the larger the sample size, the better. Grinnell Jr and Williams (1990:127), stated that a sample size of one-tenth of the population is considered sufficient to provide a reasonable control over sampling error. A sample size of 90 employees was chosen out of 216 employees of the District; this was considered by the researcher to be a good representation of the population. The population was stratified accordingly considering heterogeneity that exists between different District administrative strata. The employees' strata, sample size in each stratum and sampling techniques are presented in the table on the next page:

Table 3:3:1 showing the study population strata, sample size in each stratum, basis for sampling technique and sampling techniques.

Category/strata	Sample size in each stratum	Basis	Technique
Executive/District	2	They are more	Stratified and

and sectors		knowledgeable and experienced	Purposive sampling
Directors/District and sectors	18	They are more knowledgeable and experienced	Universal sampling
In charges/District and sectors	48	The population is a bit large and involved in real implementation	Systematic sampling
Secretaries/District, sectors and cells	22	The population is relatively large but not involved in any implementation work	Systematic sampling
Total	90		

From table 3:3:1 above, a combination of stratified, universal, purposive and systematic sampling techniques were applied depending on the nature of the population.

According to Grinner Jr and Williams (1990:311), stratified random sampling is a type of probability sampling in which the population is divided into strata and a certain number of people from each stratum are selected to be included in the sample. In this study, the strata were Executives, Directors, In charges and secretaries.

Purposive or judgement sampling technique was also used. In this, the investigator, does not just pick the nearest warm bodies as in convenience sampling, rather he/she uses his or her own judgement about which respondent to choose and only picks those who best meet the purpose of the study. The advantage of purposive sampling is that the researcher can use his/her research skills and prior knowledge to choose the respondents. This technique was chosen because there were some specific respondents (executives and directors) who were purposely asked in order to obtain the more accurate data.

Reasons for purposive selection of respondents.

The researcher identified the following reasons;

I. One of the reasons was the virtue of their particular positions and status. They were deemed to be more knowledgeable than others in the District/were deemed to have valid information.

II. These employees were thought to have independent views especially on the sensitivity questions hence considered as most obvious respondents.

Systematic random sampling was also used in selecting the respondents during the study. According to Grinnel Jr and Williams (1990:121), a systematic random sampling is a probability sampling procedure, where the size of the population is divided by the desired sample size to give us our sampling interval ‘K’. Bailey (1978:28) calls this constant figure ‘K’ while Williamson et al (1982:75) refer to this constant figure as ‘N’. By definition ‘1/k’ systematic sample is constructed by selecting every ‘K th’ element in the sampling frame. ‘K’ is therefore a selection interval and is arrived at by ‘dividing the population size by the desired sample size’. The idea of a sampling interval can be expressed mathematically in the following way:

$$K = \frac{\text{Size of the population}}{\text{Desired sample size}}$$

Considering that, the more complex the method adopted is, the greater the opportunity to error Bailey (1978:89), this method was adopted because its more practical in that it involves less work and provides more information.

Universal sampling was also used. Bailey (1978:69), states that universal sampling is carried out when the population is small and the whole population can be included in the sample. From table 3:4:1 all Directors were sampled because of their small number and considering their daily role attributions in relation to District attainment of its mission and objectives.

The researcher got an introductory letter from the Dean of Faculty of Development studies and Management which he represented to the respondents. Then the selected respondents were given questionnaires to fill. After, the analysis and interpretation took effect using the Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS).

3.4 Data collection instruments.

The methods/techniques that were used for data collection include: semi structured questionnaires, observation and documentary study;

3.4.1 Semi structured questionnaire

Semi structured questionnaire i.e a format of questionnaire that caters for open ended questions and closed ended questions altogether was used to capture primary data. Open ended questions were involved where by respondents were given freedom to express their opinions on topical issues of the study and closed ended questions where respondents were given optional topics to choose from. This method was used to collect the data from the majority of the respondents got from different employee strata. With open ended questions it was hoped that the people's feelings and views were to be got since each chosen respondent was given time to fill and to give justifications for the responses given. Structured questions captured respondents' attitudes and perceptions on employee motivation and productivity. Because of the fact that the respondents could fill or answer the questionnaire alone, there could be freedom from pressure or fear brought about by the presence of the researcher and the respondent could have time to think and re-correct the ideas so as to give a fair and true data. This is the main reason in addition to easy administration and saving time why the method was chosen. In total 90 respondents received the semi structured questionnaires.

3.4.2 Document study

In this method of data collection, documents related to the research area were read. As put forward by Robert Ross (1974) who noted that: 'one of the basic advantages of document studies is to explore the resources more fully in order to obtain additional information on an aspect of his subject'. The documents that were studied include text books related to the topic under study and reports published by the District, Rwanda Vision 2020, Labour code of Rwanda, Ministry of Finance Poverty Reduction Paper (2000) and consulting internet.

3.4.3 Observation

Observation is defined as the act of recognising and noting a fact or occurrence, often involving measurement with instruments Grinnell and William (1990:223).The researcher used personal observation method because it is good in a way of explaining what is going on in a particular work setting. It was meant for generating long run proxies of measuring productivity (standard hours of work, employee concentration at work etc). This was done because according to the researcher productivity cannot be measured in the short run. But by comparing different productivity proxies over a period of time would give performance outcome picture. The researcher expected the respondents not to tell the truth on all the performance behaviour measurement statements. This was intended to cover up for self-praise of employees at work.

3.5 Data Processing procedure

Richard M. Grinnel and Margaret Williams (1990:151-157) describe processing operations as editing, coding, classification and tabulation. After collecting data, it was dully processed to get meaningful results, Bailey (1978) argues that, data collection is not an end in itself: unless the data can be processed, analyzed and converted into information in a format that can be helpful to the user, it is useless.During data processing, relative data to the objectives of the study were considered and transformed into meaningful information for easy interpretation and understanding. In this study, editing was used so as to insure data accuracy, consistency, uniformity and completeness. Coding helped the researcher put responses into a limited number of categories or classes where as tabulation made it possible to summarize raw data in the form of statistical tables. Detailed explanation on each data processing operation is given as under:

Editing.

Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr (1992:51) define editing as the inspection and correction, if necessary of each questionnaire or observation form. After the activity of data collection, the exercise of inspection and editing followed in order to discover items that would be misunderstood by the respondents to detect gaps and other weaknesses in the data collection methods.

According to the researcher, Editing is the process of verifying or inspecting the questionnaire to see whether it was filled the way it was supposed to be done. This is after detecting and correcting errors committed during the course of filling them.

Coding

According to Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr (1992:51), coding is the technical procedure by which data is categorized. It involves specifying the alternative categories or classes into which the responses are to be placed and assigning code numbers to the classes. Coding was used by the researcher in this study to summarize data by classifying different responses that were given by the employees of Nyagatare District into categories for easy analysis. This was mutually exclusive.

Tabulation

Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr (1992:51) clearly asserts that, tabulation is the orderly arrangement of data in tables or other summary format achieved by counting the frequency of responses to each question. It dealt with putting data into statistical tables such as percentages and frequency tables to show the number of respondents to particular questions.

3.6 Data analysis

The researcher employed scientific methods of data analysis relevant to the methods of data collection. Data collected was quantitatively and qualitatively analysed as shown below;

a) Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data collected was analysed by use of computer packages SPSS and Excel spread sheets. The quantitative data collected concerned demographic characteristics of respondents (sex, age, marital status, educational level, length of service), performance behaviour indicators, methods of motivation used in Nyagatare district and the relation between employee motivation and productivity. Quantitative data was collected by use of structured questionnaires where respondents were given optional topics to choose from. Data collected during the study concerning demographic characteristics of respondents was presented in form of tables, graphs and percentages while data concerning performance behaviour was presented by use of tables, mean and standard deviation and for the relationship between employee motivation and productivity was presented in correlation table form. Responses from questionnaire interviews were entered in a computer and the analysis function for the statistical package for social scientists (SPSS) programme was used to analyse it. Comparison of the findings and postulated research questions was made in order to arrive at appropriate conclusions. The research variables relationship (dependent and independent) was analyzed using Pearson correlations.

b) **Qualitative data**

Qualitative data was captured by use of unstructured questionnaires, observation and literature review of the existing documents. Qualitative data collected included respondents opinions on motivation mechanism in the district and explanations on how they perceive the existing motivation initiatives and researcher's observation of employee interactions and motivation. The qualitative data collected was analyzed by use of thematic analysis. For purposes of thematic analysis, the issues emerging from the investigation was grouped under the following themes:

I. Identified performance behaviour
II. Methods of motivation used
III. Relationship between motivation and productivity

In summary different themes were developed in relation to categories of respondents opinions on motivation mechanism in the district and explanations on how they perceive the existing motivation initiatives. Computer packages like MS word aided data processing, analysis and presentation.

3.7 Measurement of variables

Motivation and productivity were measured basing on a five point likely type of answering ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This measure was proposed by Beer and Beer (1992). Comparison of the research objectives with the research questions facilitated the process. Motivation as an independent variable was analyzed and the District employees' behavioural occurrences as relates to their punctuality, absenteeism, ability, moral and having a sense of responsibility were unveiled. Each research question dimensions manifested in the research questionnaire and these dimensions were measured in light of responses that were given by the targeted respondents. This has been expressed in form of tables, graphs and percentages to be more exact. Pearson correlations were used to measure the relationship between motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District.

3.8 Validity and reliability

The researcher ensured reliability by observing scientific research rules and procedures. He chose a representative sample through systematic, stratified, universal and purposive sampling methods. The use of semi-structured questionnaires, formal language as opposed to informal language makes the results more reliable. The editing, coding, tabulation, percentages and Pearson correlations in analysis communicates reliability of the findings. For purposes of this study, it was necessary for the researcher to check the accuracy of the tools (research instruments) that were used during data collection so as to minimize discrepancies that could lead to grave mistakes. Hence, the questionnaire pre-test among ten (10) and post-pilot survey editing of the questionnaires for more accuracy, consistency and completeness of information before taking them to final respondents were yet other reliability measures. Further adjustments and corrections were made accordingly even during questionnaire collection. All this was made to check the clarity, spellings, words and sequencing in the questionnaire.

The Validity was ensured by the researcher through the five senses mechanism to seek a deep explanation about the work intentions and behavioural aspects of employees. Through the questionnaires and extended discussions, empirical evidence was eminent to the researcher.

3.9 Limitations of the study

The researcher expected the problem of language during data collection. Most of the District staff did not master English well; they knew French more than English. Again most of the District documents were written in French. The researcher minimized the above problem by getting close to those who do not know English well and explained what some questions required from them.

The researcher also expected the problem of failing to get enough funds to carry out the research. This was expected to limit him to make an exhaustive study and in searching more information concerning the topic under study. The researcher however mobilized funds from friends and relatives in addition to the loan which he got from the bank.

The Researcher also expected a delay in filling of questionnaires by the respondents. This was because of some technical terms which on the outer face were difficult for the respondents to understand. This necessitated the researcher to spare some of the time (over the phone and where necessary reaching them physically) while interpreting and explaining to respondents who had interpretational problems. This affected the time set for the researcher. Hence, the researcher was not able to finalize and finish his research in respect to time set.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter are the results and the interpretation of the results that were generated from the survey respondents. The presentation is guided by the research objectives and the statistics are thus a reflection of the responses. The chapter begins with the sample attributes or characteristics of the respondents such as their gender, marital status and the age group. Pearson correlations tested for the relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District. The following were the guiding objectives of the study;

I. To identify performance behaviour in terms of punctuality, absenteeism, work morale, ability at work and a sense of responsibility among Nyagatare District staff;

II. To find out the methods of motivation that are used in Nyagatare District;

III. To analyze the relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District.

4.2Demographic Characteristics of the respondents

The results in this section highlight the demographic characteristics of the respondents using cross tabulations.

4.2.1 Marital status by Gender distribution

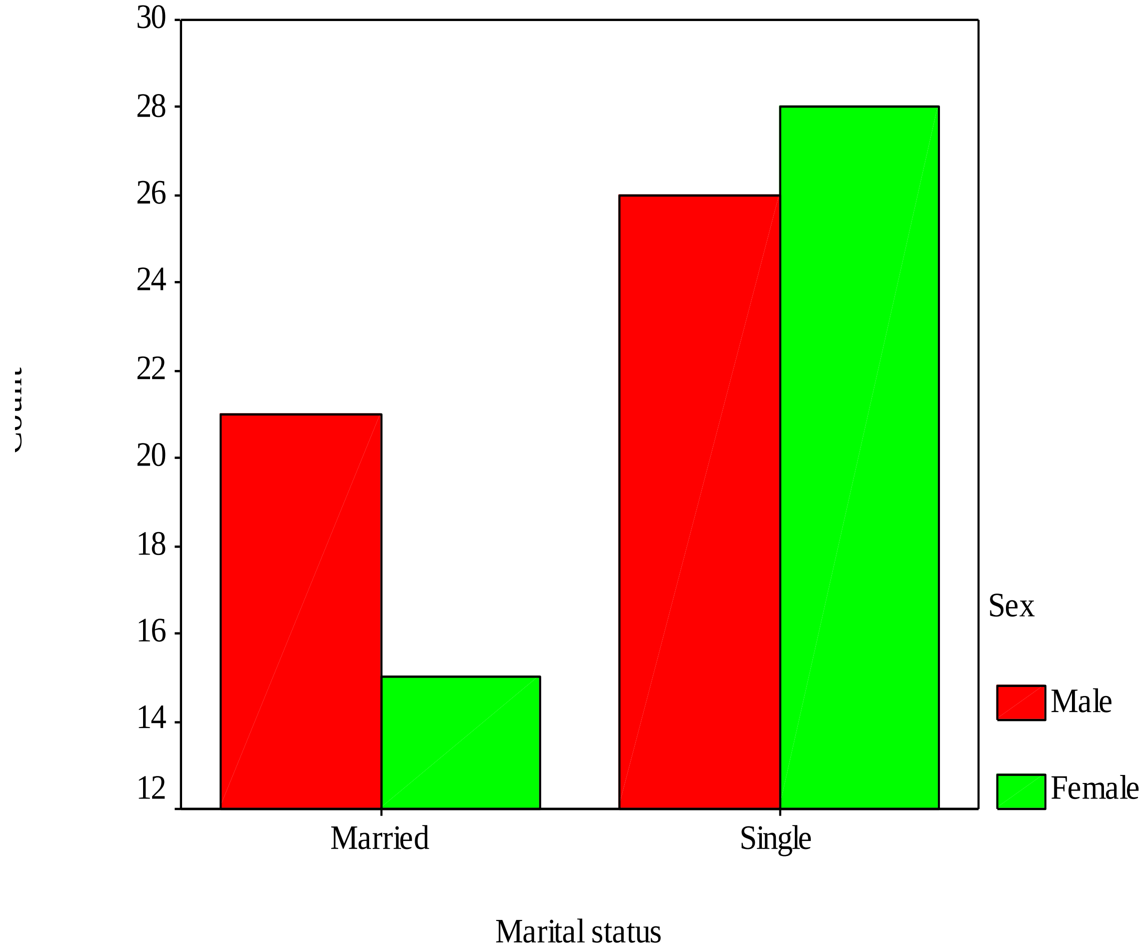
Table 4.2.1 below describes the respondents’ marital status and gender.

Table 4.2.1 Marital status by Gender distribution

Parameters			Sex		Total
			Male	**Female**	
Marital status	**Married**	**Count**	21	15	36
		Row %	58.3%	41.7%	100.0%
		Column %	44.7%	34.9%	40.0%
	Single	**Count**	26	28	54
		Row %	48.1%	51.9%	100.0%
		Column %	55.3%	65.1%	60.0%
Total		**Count**	47	43	90
		Row %	52.2%	47.8%	100.0%
		Column %	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The results in the table above revealed that the majority of the respondents were male respondents (52.2%) while on the other hand, the minority were the female respondents (47.8%) of the sample. The results further revealed that among the Males, the majority (55.3%) were single and the same observation was made among the females, the majority of whom were also single (65.1%). The results were further presented using a clustered bar graph in the figure 4.2.1 below.

Figure 4.2.1 Marital status by Gender distribution



Source: Field Survey December 2008-May 2009

4.2.2 Level of Education by Tenure Distribution

The results in the table below reflect the actual Level of Education by Tenure Distribution.

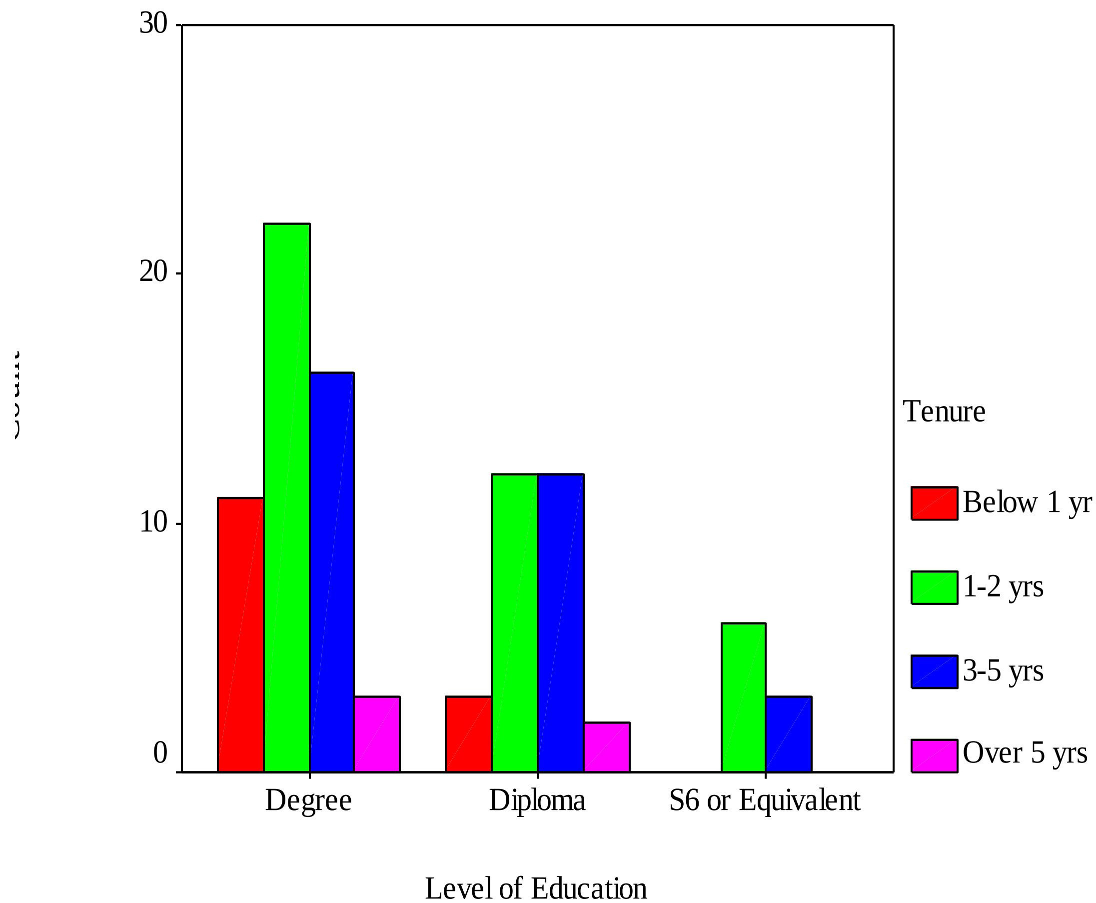
Table 4.2.2 Level of Education by Tenure Distribution

Parameters			**Tenure**				**Total**
			Below 1 yr	**1-2 yrs**	**3-5 yrs**	**Over 5 yrs**	
Level of Education	**Degree**	**Count**	11	22	16	3	52
		Row %	21.2%	42.3%	30.8%	5.8%	100.0%
		Column %	78.6%	55.0%	51.6%	60.0%	57.8%
	Diploma	**Count**	3	12	12	2	29
		Row %	10.3%	41.4%	41.4%	6.9%	100.0%
		Column %	21.4%	30.0%	38.7%	40.0%	32.2%
	S6 or Equivalent	**Count**		6	3		9
		Row %		66.7%	33.3%		100.0%
		Column %		15.0%	9.7%		10.0%
Total		**Count**	14	40	31	5	90
		Row %	15.6%	44.4%	34.4%	5.6%	100.0%
		Column %	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Field Survey December 2008-May 2009

The results in the table above revealed that the respondents who had worked for 1-2 years (44.4%) dominated the sample while those who had worked below 1 year, 3-5 years and Over 5 years comprised 15.6%, 34.4% and 5.6% respectively of the sample. In addition, among the most dominant tenure category, it was observed that 15.0% were holders of S6 Qualifications or Equivalent, 30.0% were holders of Diplomas and 55.0% were holders of the Bachelor’s Degrees. The results were also further presented using a clustered bar graph in the figure below.

Figure 4.2.2 Level of Education by Tenure Distribution



4.2.3 Post held by Age group Distribution

The results in the table below show the distribution of the Post held by Age group Distribution of the respondents.

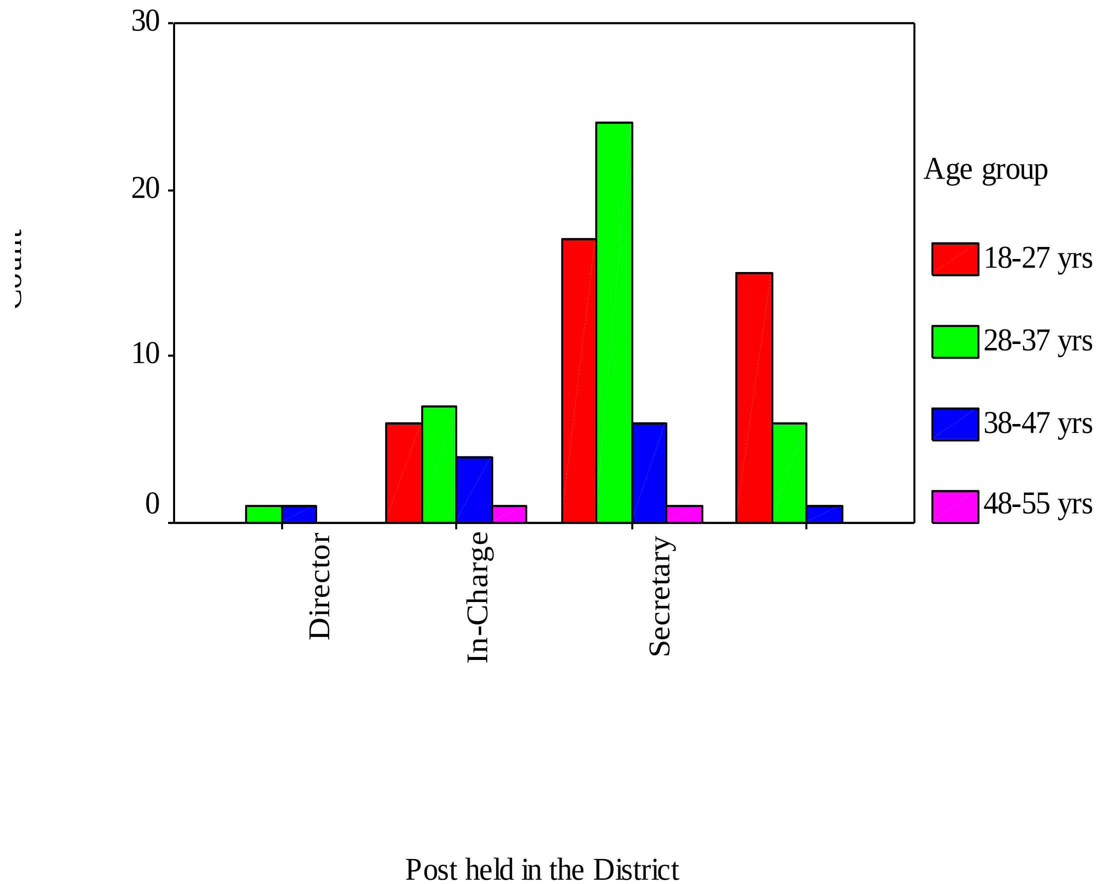
Table 4.2.3 Post held by Age group Distribution of respondents

Parameters			Age group 18-27 yrs	28-37 yrs	38-47 yrs	48-55 yrs	Total
Post held in the District	Executive Committee Member	Count		1	1		2
		Row %		50.0%	50.0%		100.0%
		Column %		2.6%	8.3%		2.2%
	Director	Count	6	7	4	1	18
		Row %	33.3%	38.9%	22.2%	5.6%	100.0%
		Column %	15.8%	18.4%	33.3%	50.0%	20.0%
	In-Charge	Count	17	24	6	1	48
		Row %	35.4%	50.0%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%
		Column %	44.7%	63.2%	50.0%	50.0%	53.3%
	Secretary	Count	15	6	1		22
		Row %	68.2%	27.3%	4.5%		100.0%
		Column %	39.5%	15.8%	8.3%		24.4%
Total		Count	38	38	12	2	90
		Row %	42.2%	42.2%	13.3%	2.2%	100.0%
		Column %	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Field Survey December 2008-May 2009

The results in the table above revealed that the Executive Committee Members, the Directors, the In-Charge and the Secretaries comprised 2.2%, 20.0%, 53.3% and 24.4% respectively of the sample. The results further revealed that the most dominant respondents were the In-Charge personnel category (53.3%) the majority of whom, were in the 28-37 year age bracket (50.0%).

Figure 4.2.3 Post held by Age group Distribution of respondents



4.3 Performance behaviour in terms of identified indicators (punctuality, absenteeism, work morale, ability at work and a sense of responsibility among Nyagatare District staff).

The descriptives in the table below were generated using a five point likert scale which was ordered such that 1 represents Strongly Disagree, 2 Disagree, 3 Uncertain, 4 Agree and 5 Strongly Agree. A mean close to 1 or 2 reflects disagreement with the Issue at hand, while a mean close to 4 or 5 show\s agreement with the same issue. On the other hand, a mean close to 3 reflects some uncertainty with the issue at hand. The column **N** shows how many of the respondents actually replied that question.

Table 4.3.1 Performance Behaviour Measurement

Performance behaviours	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
I report to work in time all of my work life	90	2.00	5.00	4.50	0.85
I achieve performance targets all the time	88	2.00	5.00	4.19	0.84
I am present at work all the time (Absence is always with permission)	89	2.00	5.00	4.63	0.61
The strength of my commitment to work has been persistent since the start to the present day	90	1.00	5.00	4.24	0.90
I feel happy identifying myself with Nyagatare District	88	2.00	5.00	4.55	0.66
I feel obliged to keep serving the District of Nyagatare	88	1.00	5.00	4.20	1.01
If I got a better offer elsewhere, I would not feel it right to leave this District	87	1.00	5.00	2.87	1.54
I have necessary abilities and skills to do my work	89	2.00	5.00	4.44	0.67
I wouldn’t mind more responsibilities and tasks added on my daily work load?	88	1.00	5.00	2.95	1.41

Results in the table above showed that on average, the employees report to work in time all of their work life (Mean = 4.50), they achieve performance targets all the time (Mean = 4.19) and they are present at work all the time (Absence is always with permission) (Mean = 4.63). Furthermore, it is shown that the strength of their commitment to work has been persistent since the start to the present day (Mean = 4.24). The employees also reported that generally, they were happy identifying themselves with Nyagatare District (Mean =4.55), and also felt obliged to keep serving the District of Nyagatare (Mean =4.20). It was also reported that these employees felt they had necessary abilities and skills to do their work (Mean =4.44).However, the results also showed that if offered a better job elsewhere, there was a possibility that these employees would leave this District (Mean = 2.87), and they reported negativism on wanting any more responsibilities added onto their daily work load (Mean = 2.95).

4.4 Methods of motivation used in Nyagatare District;

The results in the table below regarding the methods of motivation used in Nyagatare district revealed that the District does not motivate the employees to work hard (Mean = 2.79) and in addition, the employees felt that the responsibilities and tasks the District assigns them, do not match with the remuneration (Mean = 2.48)

Table 4.4.1 Methods of Motivation Used In Nyagatare District

Methods of motivation	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
A part from salaries the District motivates me in other ways to work hard	84	1.00	5.00	2.79	1.35
The responsibilities and tasks the District assigns to me match with the remuneration	90	1.00	5.00	2.48	1.39
The responsibilities and tasks the District assigns to me do not match with the remuneration	89	1.00	5.00	4.02	1.17
There are differences in the District staff salaries	89	1.00	5.00	4.40	0.86
The above differences are based on experience	86	1.00	5.00	2.13	1.30
The differences in salary are based on post held	89	1.00	5.00	4.25	1.03
Staff at the same work level(job category) get uniform remuneration	87	1.00	5.00	4.05	1.28
Staff at the same work level(job category) don’t get uniform remuneration	87	1.00	5.00	2.57	1.53
Supervision at work is a necessary function	89	1.00	5.00	4.03	1.21
Supervision at work is necessary	89	1.00	5.00	4.38	0.92
Supervision of staff is done once a week	83	1.00	5.00	2.19	1.28

Supervision of staff is done twice a week	83	1.00	5.00	2.04	1.19
Supervision is done twice a month	83	1.00	5.00	2.41	1.37
Supervision is done weekly	74	1.00	5.00	2.27	1.30

Source: Field Survey December, 2008-May, 2009.

Furthermore, it was observed that the differences in the District staff salaries are not based on experience (Mean = 2.13), but rather, they are based on post held (Mean = 4.25). Furthermore, it was observed that the Staff at the same work level (job category) get uniform remuneration (Mean = 4.05) though Staff at the same work level (job category) don't get uniform remuneration (Mean = 2.57). Furthermore, it was revealed that though the employees feel that the Supervision at work is necessary (Mean = 4.38), there was disagreement as to whether the Supervision of staff is done even once a week (Mean = 2.19) and a further indication that the Supervision of staff is not even done twice a week (Mean =2.04)

Table 4.4.2 Methods of Motivation Used In Nyagatare District

Methods of motivation	**N**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
My job attributions are clear and known to me	88	1.00	5.00	4.13	0.92
The District has had a training of its staff in the last ten month	89	1.00	5.00	2.66	1.48
Performance appraisal is done often and results communicated to us	89	1.00	5.00	3.06	1.55
The District rewards excellent performing staff at the end of every year	90	1.00	5.00	2.48	1.47
Every District staff takes part in the decision making process chain	87	1.00	5.00	2.43	1.42
The job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done	85	1.00	5.00	3.33	1.25
Many things are standardized and not under my control but I can make some decisions about the work	87	1.00	5.00	3.43	1.26
The job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well iam doing.	90	1.00	5.00	3.41	1.23
The District has a demonstratively better team-building approach	89	1.00	5.00	3.71	1.26
The District uses diversity approach(wisdom and experience of all the staff) to shape solutions to problems eminent in the District	90	1.00	5.00	3.33	1.37

District staff with needs to further their education career are supported	88	1.00	5.00	2.47	1.52
The District develop its action plans depending on critical people issues(staff opinions are given attention)	89	1.00	5.00	3.13	1.51

Source: Field Survey December 2008-May 2009

In the continuation of the factors regarding motivation at Nyagatare, it was further revealed that though job attributions are clear and known to employees (Mean =4.13), The District has had no training of its staff in the last ten months (Mean =2.66) and when the Performance appraisal is done if at all, the results are never communicated to employees ((Mean =2.04). The results further showed that the District doesn't reward excellent performing staff at the end of every year (Mean =2.48). In addition, Not every District staff takes part in the decision making process chain (Mean =2.43) and as a result, the job gives employees almost no personal 'say' about how and when the work is done (Mean = 3.33). The results also showed that Many things are neither standardized nor under employee control so that employees cannot make some decisions about their work (Mean =3.43).

It was also observed that the job is set up so that employees cannot get almost constant 'feedback' as they work about how well they are doing (Mean =3.41). In addition, it was observed that the District has a demonstratively better team-building approach (Mean =3.71) but it does not use a diversity approach (wisdom and experience of all the staff) to shape solutions to problems eminent in the District (Mean =3.33) and neither does it support the district staff with needs to further their education career ((Mean = 2.47). Finally, the results showed that the district does not develop its action plans depending on critical people issues (staff opinions are never given attention) (Mean =3.13).

A part from the above foreseen immaterial rewards, the District materially has a result-based pay salary structure, special allowances to technical professionals, one month leave every year for every staff, telephone codes for Directors and executives, tax exemption to executives in importing fancy cars, rental and transport allowances, pension offering after service, financial support to any staff in bad times of losing any family member. This was captured through the researcher's personal observation and extended talks with Human Resources office at the District.

Finally an attempt was made by the researcher seeking employees' opinions on what could be done to increase motivation and productivity of the District employees. Below is the summary of their opinions:

I. To apply both positive and negative motivation. How? Apply positive motivation to those who perform well in order to encourage them to keep up their intensity and persistence of their efforts at work through increasing their salaries, paying them over-time, providing refreshments, lunch, recognition gifts etc. And applying negative motivation to poor performers by reducing their salaries, leave without pay, demotion, outside transfers etc as deterrent measures to encourage them to perform better, if they are not fired from their services.

II. Involve the staff in decision making process

III. Increase responsibility information sharing

IV. Positively reinforce and treat all staff fairly

V. Reduce the gap between executive committee and implementation committee (powers, salaries, fringe benefits)

VI. Timely training (capacity building) and adequate facilitation to workers

4.5 The relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District.

The Pearson correlations (r) in the table below were generated to explore the relationship between the level of motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District**.**

Table 4.5.1 Depicting correlation relationship between motivation and productivity

	Employee Motivation	Productivity
Employee Motivation	1.000	
	.	
Productivity	.432**	1.000
	.000	.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

The results in the table above showed that there exists a significant and positive relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity (r = .432**, p<.01). These results show that the better the employee motivation, the more these employees are likely to be productive.

4.6 Factor analysis results

4.6.1 Factor analysis for the exploration of the Performance Behaviour

The factor analysis results in the table below were generated to explore the issues that stand out as regards Performance Behaviour among the employees at the district.

Table 4.6.1 Factor analysis results: Performance Behaviour

Performance behaviour	Punctuality	Commitmen t
I report to work in time all of my work life	.739	
I achieve performance targets all the time	.824	

I am present at work all the time(Absence is always with permission)	.719	
The strength of my commitment to work has been persistent since the start to the present day	.720	
I feel happy identifying myself with Nyagatare District		.732
I have necessary abilities and skills to do my work		.620
I wouldn't mind more responsibilities and tasks added on my daily work load		.862
If I got a better offer elsewhere, I would not feel it right to leave this District		.635
Eigen values	**3.56**	**1.483**
Variance %	**39.56**	**16.479**
Cumulative %	**39.56**	**56.039**

Source: Survey results, 2009

The results in the table above showed that the issues that stand out as regards the Performance Behaviour are Punctuality and Commitment which explained 39.560% and 16.479% of the Performance Behaviour. On performance Behaviour, the most important issues were; Reporting to work in time all of the employees work life (.739), the capacity to achieve performance targets all the time (.824), and the continuous presence at work all the time (.719). Furthermore, the strength of employee commitment to work being persistent throughout the employee tenure was also a key issue that could be used to assess the performance behaviour (.720).

On the other hand, with commitment, the most important issues that were standing out were; the willingness to have more responsibilities and tasks added on the employee's daily work load (.862), feeling happy about identifying oneself with Nyagatare District (.732), having the necessary abilities and skills to do one's work (.620) and the unwillingness to go elsewhere even when an employee has got a better job offer (.635).

4.6.2 Factor Analysis for the Methods of Motivation Used In Nyagatare District

The results in the table below were generated to explore the issues that stand out when it comes to a consideration of the Methods of Motivation Used in Nyagatare District. The results showed that Supervision, Remuneration Criteria and Performance assessment are the three most important considerations and they comprise variances of 47.862%, 13.314%, and 10.362%. With supervision, the results revealed that the most important factors have to do with the necessity of the Supervision at work (.815), and frequency with which it is done, either done twice a week (.828), weekly (.864) or twice a month (.827).

Another important factor emergent from the Methods of Motivation had to do with criteria for remuneration and it was observed that the important issues on this particular dimension were; the fact that remuneration differences in remuneration are based on experience (.802), the responsibilities and tasks the District assigns employees to do don't match with the remuneration (.789), the responsibilities and tasks the District assigns employees match with the remuneration (.627) and the fact that there are differences in the District staff salaries (.699). Finally, it was observed that another issue that employees consider is that Staff at the same work level (job category) don't get uniform remuneration .673

Table 4.6.2 Factor analysis for the Methods of Motivation Used In Nyagatare District

Methods of motivation	Supervision	Remuneration Criteria	Performance assessment
Supervision at work is necessary	.815		
Supervision of staff is done once a week	.777		
Supervision of staff is done twice a week	.828		
Supervision is done twice a month	.827		
Supervision is done weekly	.864		
The above differences in remuneration are based on experience		.802	
The responsibilities and tasks the District assigns to me do not match with the remuneration		.789	
The responsibilities and tasks the District assigns to me match with the remuneration		.627	
There are differences in the District staff salaries		.699	
Staff at the same work level(job category) don't get uniform remuneration		.673	
The District has had a training of its staff in the last ten month			.784
Performance appraisal is done often and results communicated to us			.746
The District rewards excellent performing staff at the end of every year			.840
Every District staff takes part in the decision making process chain			.842
Eigen value	6.222	1.7305	1.347
Variance %	47.862	13.314	10.362
Cumulative %	47.862	61.176	71.538

Source. Survey results, 2009

CHAPTER V

RESULTS DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter considers the discussion of the results of the research project. The discussion was done as per the study findings for each objective and these were linked to the extant literature of other scholars in the same field.

5.2 Discussion

5.2 .1 Identifying the performance behaviour in terms of punctuality, Absenteeism, work morale, ability at work and a sense of responsibility

The results in the previous chapter showed that the district employees are actually willing to leave the institution in case they got a better offer elsewhere and they don’t even have a sense of responsibility towards the operations they are supposed to oversee. The scenario among the Nyagatare District employees can be explained by the work of Bjerke, *et. al.* (2007) which reveals that the employee satisfaction with an institution can only be high when the organisational cultural practices with issues such as criteria for promotion, rewards are perceived to be fair. In this case, the employees will also feel that it’s worth identifying one’s self with the institution. The desire of employees to take up better offers in other institutions has caused a scenario at the Nyagatare district which is no different from those faced by institutions elsewhere which are trying and struggling hard to ensure that their employees don’t leave due to poor motivation (Ramlall, 2004).

5.2.2 The methods of motivation that are used in Nyagatare District;

The employees perceive the remuneration to be unfair compared to what they are doing and in addition, there is unfair distribution of rewards for instance the employees at the same work level don’t get the same remuneration. The employees concluded that the

Nyagatare district management has not done enough to motivate them to continue working with the government institution. However, as Lord (2002) reveals, it is very essential that the Nyagatare District council makes it a point to address the displeasure of the employees since the retention and the consequent productivity of these employees is directly hinged upon their motivation. He further reveals that the management should ensure that the major motivators such as work accomplishment, job responsibility, recognition, etc are availed to the employees.

The researchers believe that the two most significant elements of employee motivation are adequate pay and recognition for work based achievements (Mani, 2002). Others have been found to be the other non-monetary benefits for instance health insurance, a good working atmosphere with friendly and cooperative co-workers.

5.2.3 The relationship between the level of employee motivation and productivity in Nyagatare District.

The results in the previous chapter further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between the level of employee motivation and the productivity of the employees. These results show that among the Nyagatare district employees, the more transparency and fairness in rewarding the employees, the more the employees are likely to be productive and consequently achieve their performance targets, happily identify with the District Administration and also reduce absenteeism levels. These results are further supported by the work of Islam and Ismail (2008) which reveals that the lack of employee motivation within an institution results in the underutilisation of the potential and skills of these employees since they feel their efforts are not being rewarded in a fair fashion.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

In this chapter conclusions and recommendations drawn in relation to the findings are indicated. The areas that future researchers should consider are also highlighted.

6.1 Conclusions

With reference to the afore mentioned discussion, the following conclusions can be drawn;

I.) The organisational reward practices and the motivation system, has a lot to do with determination of the employee turnover. When the employees perceive that for instance they are not being rewarded well enough for the work they are doing, they are likely to take up an offer in another institution when the offer arises.

II.) A failure to adequately motivate the employees results in the employee departure which in turn has financial implications for the institutions losing them. For instance it has been argued that today's institutions incur great financial losses estimated at the tune of $1million for every ten key administrative and technical persons who depart from an institution (Islam, and Ismail, 2008).

III.) Employees perceptions that fellow employees with whom they are at the same rank are rewarded more, is a strong factor that causes the loss of motivation for these employees in so much that they feel they are not wholly responsible for the tasks that they are officially assigned.

IV.) The style or management style within an institution becomes a very crucial issue when it comes to motivating employees. If the leadership is too dictatorial, always makes decisions that directly affect the employees yet these employees are never consulted for instance about the work schedules which are most convenient for them, they become very demotivated.

V.) Employee motivation is also enhanced when the employees successfully and proficiently accomplish their tasks assigned to them. After this the employees would at least expect some recognition for outstanding performance.

6.2 Recommendations

In light of the conclusions that have been drawn from the discussion, the following recommendations can be drawn;

I.) There is a need for training and enlightening of the management of the Nyagatare district personnel about the importance of the fair distribution of rewards among employees. Having trained them, issues to do with favouritism among the employees will completely be eradicated.

II.) The persons assigned the management positions at the Nyagatare district should be assigned these offices purely on merit and it is such persons who will be able to implement the strategies that are needful for employee motivation which consequently results into improved productivity as revealed by the findings in the previous chapter.

III.) There is also need for a formalised structure of rewarding the employees; as such employees will not again have to struggle with the idea of being rewarded less than others with whom they are at the same organisational level. Furthermore, outstanding performance of the employees should be fairly and justly rewarded so that the employees can perform better in seasons to come. In this case, awards such as ‘Performer of the Month’ or ‘Employee of the Year’ become very handy.

IV.) The Nyagatare District Management officials should ensure that there are free and open channels of communication which the employees can use to voice their grievances to the management officials. If the management is too rigid to listen to the complaints of the employees, it leads to a scenario whereby the employees complain silently and thus end up leaving without management realising the actual cause of the employee departure.

V.) Management should ensure that the employees are well facilitated and equipped for their work since research has shown that the task accomplishment also motivates the employees. With regard to this, the management should ensure that the employees for instance have the computers Software and other such facilitation that they need to accomplish their work well.

6.3 Areas for further research

This study focused upon the Motivation and the productivity of employees in Nyagatare-Rwanda. The study identified some areas of motivation and left out others of importance that ought to be explored to understand the dynamic nature of employee motivation that affects productivity. Future researchers should therefore aim at exploring the remaining gaps. Future research should focus on understanding how Nyagatare District will have responded to research recommendations. Also a related research could be extended to other sectors and institutions of the economy to validate whether the same factors that influence motivation and productivity holds.

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APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE TO NYAGATARE DISTRICT EMPLOYEES

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire is for the purpose of helping Mr Nimusima Pereez a student of Masters of Business Administration of Bishop Stuart University, to obtain information that will assist him to write a thesis that is a requirement for this course. It is **NOT** meant for any other purpose; and the information provided herein will be kept with utmost confidentiality. You are therefore kindly requested to cooperate in answering the questions honestly to provide the required information. The topic of study is "The effect of motivation on productivity in Nyagatare District-Rwanda"

Thank you

PART A: Personal identification

Instructions: You are requested to pick the answer among the various alternatives

Provided to you and give your views in the spaces provided

1. Sex

   a) Male……………………………… ☐

   b) Female………………………… ☐

2. Age group

   a) 18-27………………………… ☐

   b) 28-37………………………… ☐

   c) 38-47………………………… ☐

   d) 48-55………………………… ☐

3. Marital status

a) Married……………………………… ☐
b) Single………………………………… ☐
c) Divorced……………………………….. ☐
d) Widowed……………………………… ☐

4. Level of Education

Degree…………………………………

a) Diploma……………………………… ☐
b) Senior six or equivalent………………… ☐
c) Senior four……………………………… ☐
d) If below senior four specify…………………………………………

5. Length of service with Nyagatare District

a) Below one year…………………… ☐
b) 1-2 years……………………………… ☐
c) 3-5 years……………………………… ☐
d) Over five years……………………… ☐

6. Post held in the District

a) Executive committee member………… ☐
b) Director of the Unit………………… ☐
c) In charge……………………………… ☐
d) Secretary……………………………… ☐

PART B: PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOR MEASUREMENT

Please indicate with a tick in a box(√) the extent to which you agree with the following statements

No	Statement	Strongly agree(5)	Agree(4)	Never agree nor disagree(3)	Disagree(2)	Strongly disagree(1)
1	I report to work in time all of my work life					
2	I achieve performance targets all the time					
3	Iam present at work all the time(Absence is always with permission)					
4	The strength of my commitment to work has been persistent since the start to the present day					
5	I feel happy identifying myself with Nyagatare District					
6	I feel obliged to keep serving the District of Nyagatare					
7	If I got a better offer elsewhere, I would not feel it right to leave this District					
8	I have necessary abilities and skills to do my work					
9	I wouldn't mind more responsibilities and tasks added on my daily work load?					

PART C: METHODS OF MOTIVATION USED IN NYAGATARE DISTRICT

Please indicate with a tick in the box (√) the extent to which you agree with the statements

No	Statement	Strongly agree(5)	Agree(4)	Never agree nor disagree(3)	Disagree(2)	Strongly disagree(1)
1	A part from salaries the District motivates me in other ways to work hard(Below this table mention various ways how the District motivates you)					
2	The responsibilities and tasks the District assigns to me match with the remuneration					
3	The responsibilities and tasks the District assigns to me do not match with the remuneration					
4	There are differences in the District staff salaries					

5	The above differences are based on experience					
6	The differences in salary are based on post held					
7	Staff at the same work level(job category) get uniform remuneration					
8	Staff at the same work level(job category) don't get uniform remuneration					
9	Supervision at work is a necessary function					
10	Supervision at work is necessary					
11	Supervision of staff is done once a week					
12	Supervision of staff is done twice a week					
13	Supervision is done twice a month					
14	Supervision is done weekly(For others specify how in the space below this table)					
15	My job attributions are clear and known to me					
16	The District has had a training of its staff in the last ten month					
17	Performance appraisal is done often and results communicated to us					
18	The District rewards excellent performing staff at the end of every year					
19	Every District staff takes part in the decision making process chain					
20	The job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done					
21	Many things are standardized and not under my control but I can make some decisions about the work					
22	The job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well iam doing.					
23	The District has a demonstratively better team-building approach					
24	The District uses diversity approach(wisdom and experience of all the staff) to shape solutions to problems eminent in the District					
25	District staff with needs to further their education career are supported					
26	The District develop its action plans depending on critical people issues(staff opinions are given attention)					

27. Employee motivation affects productivity in Organizations. To what extent do you

agree with the statement?

a) Strongly agree………………………….. ☐

b) Agree…………………………………… ☐

c) Undecided……………………………… ☐

d) Disagree……………………………….. ☐

e) Strongly disagree……………………… ☐

Explain the choice you made

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

28. In your own opinion, what can be done to increase motivation of Nyagatare District Employees so that productivity can be improved? ....

....

END

Thanks for your time and cooperation