DETERMINANTS OF MOTIVATION AMONG A SELECTED GROUP OF CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN NIGERIA: THE HERZBERG DUAL-FACTOR THEORY OF JOB SATISFACTION

by

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SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to identify those job factors that determine the level of motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission and to establish how this knowledge can be used to increase motivation and job satisfaction across the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. A wide variety of theories on motivation and job satisfaction were studied. Herzberg’s dual-factor theory of job satisfaction was used as the defining basis for the empirical part of the study. The findings both supported and refuted the theory. Both intrinsic and extrinsic job variables influenced the work motivation of respondents, with specific extrinsic variables having a significant effect, contrary to Herzberg’s findings. A difference was also recorded among senior staff who appeared more motivated by intrinsic variables and junior staff who tended to emphasise extrinsic job variables.

KEY TERMS

Civil service; dissatisfiers; dual factor theory; extrinsic factor; hygiene factor; intrinsic factor; job satisfaction; job performance; job content factor; maintenance factor; motivation; Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission; satisfiers.
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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This study focuses on the determinants of motivation, with particular reference to the Herzberg dual-factor theory, and was carried out among a select group of civil service employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission (FCSC) in Nigeria. This introductory chapter provides a background, rationale and motivation for the study in order to put the research problem in the proper context. The research scope is demarcated in order to highlight the delimitation of the study. The statement of the problem and research question addressed in this study are identified before explaining the research objectives and hypothesis. The methods used to collect information are discussed, as well as the research design and research method that were used. Terms frequently used in the thesis are concisely defined in order to avoid misinterpretation or misunderstanding. This chapter concludes with an overview of the chapters contained in the thesis.

1.2 Background and rationale for the study

Job satisfaction and motivation have been widely investigated in many job situations and measured against many different theoretical formulations.

Motivation is everybody’s problem. It does not matter what people do in life, or where they think they are in the pecking order; the critical need to motivate others remains. Motivation is based on meeting people’s needs. Frederick Herzberg, the behavioural scientist, has provided a new approach to people and their relationship to work. Since the publication of the Herzberg theory in Motivation to Work in 1959 (Herzberg et al. 1959), Herzberg continued to explore this issue in extensive studies, asking his subjects to think of times when they felt particularly
bad about their jobs. His dual-factor theory (motivation-hygiene), although considered non-traditional when it was introduced in 1959, has become one of the most used, well-known and widely respected theories for explaining motivation and job satisfaction.

According to Herzberg, money is not a prime motivator in getting people to do better work - although it may be very important as a means of getting things that do motivate, such as prestige or recognition. He learned that security is not a prime motivator either; nor is a bright, cheery atmosphere in the work place (Rostowsky 1987:14).

Herzberg showed that all managers have two different kinds of factors they must consider in dealing with their employees. Both kinds are absolutely necessary in getting jobs done, though they must be considered separately: the factors are labelled intrinsic motivation factors (motivators) and extrinsic maintenance factors (hygiene).

Intrinsic motivation factors (motivators) directly affect the motivation of the employee, heightening or lowering motivation according to whether or not the manager is using a particular factor. The presence of these factors will both satisfy and motivate. Though their absence may not necessarily cause dissatisfaction, it will ensure an absence of motivation. The factors are:

- Achievement: Employees need to feel that they have accomplished something.

- Recognition: Employees need to feel that their achievements have been noticed.

- Interesting duties: Employees need to feel interested in the work itself.

- Responsibility: Employees need to feel they are responsible for themselves and their own work. Responsibility for new tasks and duties is also important.
• Opportunity for growth: Employees need to feel that they have the opportunity to grow through training and advancement within the organisation.

• Communication: Employees need to feel that management communicate well with employees.

These factors are all related to the job content and to the actual doing of the job. They act as incentives in the satisfaction of growth needs.

Extrinsic maintenance (hygiene) factors simply keep employees on the job. They keep them from going elsewhere for work. The presence of these factors causes satisfaction; their absence causes dissatisfaction. However, their presence or absence has no effect on motivation. The factors are:

• Supervision: Employees feel that management is willing to teach and delegate responsibility. Interpersonal relations with supervisors, fellow employees and subordinates also relate to this aspect of the hygiene factors.

• Security: Employees feel secure about their jobs. This also relates to the status and security that are part of the job environment, and the institution/company's policy and administration.

• Salary: Employees feel adequately compensated for their work.

• Personal life: Employees feel that the job (hours, transfers, etc.) does not adversely affect their personal lives. This also relates to working conditions.

The hygiene factors act as incentives in the satisfaction of the pain-avoidance needs, for example, the need to adjust to the environment.

Since psychological growth can only be achieved through successful completion of meaningful tasks, only the factors having to do with the intrinsic aspects of the
job – true motivators – can influence these inherent growth needs. These motivator factors are neither able to relieve pain nor to satisfy the avoidance needs, just as the hygiene factors cannot satisfy growth needs (Rostowsky 1987:15).

The hygiene (maintenance) factors must be met to ensure that employees keep doing their jobs. But the manager must separately use these motivating factors to get employees to do their work better.

Maidani (1991) made a comparative study of Herzberg’s theory in private and public sector jobs. His analysis showed that, for employees in both sectors, the motivation to work tended to emphasise intrinsic, or motivating factors. One interesting result of his work was that public sector employees tended to value extrinsic, or hygiene factors significantly more than employees in the private sector.

Herzberg’s theory divides motivation and job satisfaction into two continua. The dual-factor theory differentiates between factors that are considered to be intrinsic to a job, such as working conditions. The factors that are inherent to the job are those that affect motivation. To put it in Herzberg’s (1968:55) own words: “The only way to motivate the employee is to give him challenging work in which he can assume responsibility.” Conversely, extrinsic factors affect job satisfaction. Moreover, problems with job satisfaction factors can serve as barriers to motivation, even if the motivating factors themselves are addressed satisfactorily.

The distinction made between the factors related to the job itself and the factors related to issues found within the job environment itself has been the major contribution to the dual-factor theory. But Herzberg became more than simply a formulator of a theory. He provided a thorough understanding to those who cared to listen of the basic dynamics of the various motivational factors for job satisfaction. He spent more than twenty years working to give researchers and employers an understanding of the importance of all those factors that are the driving forces behind people in their jobs. He emphasised in all his publications
that it is just as important to treat people well than to use them well – this is the key to job satisfaction and higher productivity.

The stream of guidance and stimulation on the motivation of people gained tremendous momentum with Herzberg’s *One more time: How do you motivate employees*, printed in the *Harvard Business Review* (1968). He identified in this article the commonly used carrot-or-stick factors, or KITA, introduced to make people move. For the first time, Herzberg made managers realise that their carrot-or-stick style of management was the main reason why employees lost interest in their work. He gave formulae for the proper management of hygiene factors (treatment), but his biggest contribution was the creation of the concept of job satisfaction and job enrichment. With co-workers all over the world, he spelled out what should and should not be done to ensure job enrichment. Thus, he chalked up scores of successes achieved with job enrichment in terms of increased job satisfaction and higher productivity (Cf. Herzberg 1976).

It should be noted that people work in organisations to satisfy their personal needs much in the same way that organisations exist to achieve specified goals. No organisation can achieve the desired level of performance without an efficient workforce. It is only a satisfied employee, whose needs are being met within the organisation, who will work satisfactorily. Even if satisfied employees do not always work better, unsatisfied employees cannot freely give their best to the job.

It is a truism that without people there will be no performance upon which the anticipation of a result can be based. It is generally believed that when employees are well motivated, they tend to work better, but when they are inadequately motivated, their performance tends to be impaired. The explanation of employee performance certainly goes beyond just motivation. This is because the performance of individuals in the work place is in many respects a function of some of their own personal characteristics such as their knowledge of the job, attitudes, skills and certain aspects of the environmental situation, as well as the nature of their jobs, the leadership style under which they work and the rewards expected from performance.
This fact notwithstanding, motivation must not be ignored or underestimated because employees’ knowledge, skills, expertise and commitment must be energised or activated before effective performance is accomplished in any organisation. It is therefore imperative for an organisation to create an environment in which its employees are not only reasonably motivated to perform their work-related activities satisfactorily, but also one in which they have a reasonable opportunity to fulfil some of their own (individual) goals.

In a developing country like Nigeria, the motivation of public employees should be given serious attention by the government in view of the fact that it is the public sector that is expected to play the leading role in bringing about the rapid social, economic and political development of society. The need for the government to pay adequate attention to the motivation of its employees is underscored by the popularly held view of the poor performance of the public services in Nigeria. Some of the labels that have been ascribed to the public service in the country are that it is a bureaucracy characterised by gross inefficiency, laziness, corruption, waste, lack of motivation, absenteeism, nepotism, neglect of duties and generally poor performance. It is also generally agreed that the public service contributes to development goals such as resource utilisation, employment generation, as well as acting as a catalyst for gradual social change (Okere 1999:1-25).

The workforce in the Nigerian public service is also associated with poor commitment, low productivity, irresponsiveness, truancy, lateness, idleness and laxity (Khan 1981:7-11). Indeed, the average public employee in Nigeria is generally perceived as a non-performer or at best a poor performer. The contention is that the poor performance of the Nigerian public sector is due partly to the inadequate motivation of employees. As Sanda (1993:4-16) put it, "largely because of the low level of motivation among workers, there has been little or no production efforts in Nigeria’s public sector."

The situation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service also supports this criticism. According to Jakande (1993:1-3), it is common knowledge that the morale of Nigerian civil servants is at its lowest ebb. He observed that there is little or no
motivation at all in the civil service. Jakande’s assertion still holds true today. In this regard, Okoh (2000:102), among other factors, identified low morale and a lack of motivation as contributory factors to poor performance in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

But Sanda (1993:4-16) acknowledged that only a highly motivated workforce could rejuvenate public bureaucracies, enhance performance, improve productivity and efficiency at all levels, and restore the trust and confidence of the people in the government. As such, the subject of motivation is pertinent to civil service employees.

To discharge its task effectively, the civil service must make efforts to improve performance to the fullest extent possible. Since the civil service, like any other organisation, depends on people for accomplishing its objectives, the performance of the civil service is therefore partially dependent on the performance of the civil servants who are employed in the service. In this regard, Kast and Rosenzweig (1985:642) rightly noted that the “organizational performance [that] results from the need to derive optimal performance from civil service employees cannot be over-emphasized.” In the words of Phillips (1992:7-21):

“the performance of the civil service can be ignored only at the peril of the country and the government of the day. In fact, there is a strong sense in which a country is a close reflection of the effectiveness, efficiency and sensitivity of its civil service.”

This implies that the Nigerian Federal Civil Service is supposed to reflect the human resources capacity of the government. Employee performance is considered to be a function of not only ability and effort, but also of motivation. Hence it is necessary to focus on identifying the determinants of motivation among employees of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, as proper motivation can invigorate and propel them to greater heights in their work accomplishment.
Given the unique and vital role of the civil service in Nigeria, the motivation of civil servants in the country to bring about improved performance has become an issue of concern and interest to scholars, the government and the general populace alike. According to Ikelegbe (1995:200-214):

"The public (Civil) service generally, and particularly in developing societies like Nigeria, are critical to development and play such important roles that their performance is of concern to all. They design and plan most of the public programmes and implement them."

It is instructive in this regard that President Olusegun Obasanjo promised in 2003 that his government "will seek to create a civil service that is smaller, highly skilled, motivated and more productive" (Obasanjo 2002:14).

1.3 Motivation for the study

More than eight years of teaching Public Administration at university level in Nigeria has resulted in a deep understanding of the vital role of the public service in Nigerian society, particularly the Nigerian Federal Civil Service that represents its core. The Nigerian Federal Civil Service is the vehicle used by the federal government of Nigeria to execute government decisions and implement policies. As such, the Nigerian Federal Civil Service plays a critical role in the management of the nation's affairs. As Nigeria is a developing country, its civil service is expected to function as an instrument of development by advancing human welfare and bringing about accelerated socioeconomic progress. Indeed, the focus falls on the civil service as the sine qua non for all developmental endeavours.

It is important to identify and understand the job factors that motivate employees, since this knowledge is crucial in deciding how to apply these factors appropriately in motivating people. This study is thus concerned with empirically determining those job factors that motivate civil servants in Nigeria with a view to
making suitable suggestions towards increasing their level of motivation in order to enhance their performance.

Public Administration and management literature, in general, is replete with reviews of what does and does not motivate people at work (see chapter two). For a scientific management scholar like Frederick Taylor, money was the great motivator, whereas for a human relations scholar like Elton Mayo, interpersonal relations determine motivation predominantly with colleagues at work. Similarly, behavioural scientists such as Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg attempted to identify the factors that motivate people in the work place. Maslow believed that both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors could motivate employees. But Herzberg submitted that only intrinsic job factors can motivate employees and that extrinsic job factors are merely hygiene factors. Their absence cause dissatisfaction, but their presence does not lead to satisfaction (see chapter two). The extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic job factors influence the motivation of employees remains the subject of controversy among scholars to this day.

Researchers and academics have continued to show a keen interest in identifying those job factors that are responsible for stimulating the “will” to work. This study is therefore consistent with the continuing and persisting academic and intellectual interest in the subject of motivation, which is mainly informed by the need for productivity improvement in the face of challenging economic situations particularly in developing countries such as Nigeria.

The study is intended to foster improved job performance among employees in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, in particular, and the public service, in general, if the recommendations arising from the findings of this research are accepted and implemented by the government and other relevant authorities in Nigeria. In this way, it is hoped that the study will help to improve the practice of public personnel administration in Nigeria by helping to achieve improved performance through the more effective motivation of employees.

Also, the research will contribute to the existing body of literature on the subject of motivation by using Herzberg's dual-factor theory in an innovative application
to the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria – the work environment from which the sample of respondents for this study was drawn. The research will contribute to scholarship by providing a fresh synthesis of information shaped by the researcher’s own insights.

The study has an additional academic value in that it seeks to put to empirical test the Herzberg dual-factor theory in the context of the Nigerian work environment with particular reference to the Federal Civil Service Commission.

1.4 Research scope

The fields of research in which this thesis is situated is the academic disciplines of Public Administration and Industrial Psychology. The study includes an empirical investigation of the determinants of employee motivation in Nigeria’s Federal Civil Service Commission. Theoretically, the study is premised on Herzberg’s theory of motivation (Herzberg 1968:53-62). Herzberg conducted a study of employee motivation among 200 qualified professional accountants and engineers, using the critical incident technique developed by Flanagen (1973:327-358), in nine different private organisations in the United States in the late 1950s.

Respondents were asked to recall those critical incidents (events) that caused them to feel either exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their work. The researcher then investigated and analysed both the positive and negative job factors that caused these feelings. Herzberg found that the respondents’ job experiences that produced positive work attitudes were associated with the content of the job and, conversely, that the job experiences that resulted in negative work attitudes were associated with the context of the job or the work environment.

Based on this research, Herzberg postulated the dual-factor theory of motivation in which he explicitly distinguished between two sets of factors. The motivators (or satisfiers) are those factors that actually motivate employees to improve job
performance, and the hygiene factors (or dissatisfiers) are those that do not motivate, but merely eliminate the sources of dissatisfaction. The Herzberg et al. study (1959) indicated that satisfaction and those factors that contribute to satisfaction are separate and distinct from those factors that contribute to dissatisfaction. The study argued that satisfaction is not opposite from dissatisfaction as they both operate on separate continua. The opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, while the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction.

Under the Herzberg motivator-hygiene model, there is no neutral point, if neutral is defined as not engaged on either side. Herzberg argued that the motivator continuum runs from no satisfaction to satisfaction with one end of the scale being the zero point and all of the other points on the continuum being positive. The basis for the theory is predicated on two extremely different human needs. One set of needs may be thought of as stemming from people's "animal" nature; these drivers are related to the need to avoid pain. These are the needs upon which the hygiene factors act. The other need is the growth need, which can only be achieved through the successful completion of meaningful tasks. It is in this sphere that the motivator factors operate.

The hygiene scale runs from no dissatisfaction to dissatisfaction; therefore, all of the other points on the continuum are negative.

The primary value for this investigation of Herzberg's motivation theory lies in the clarity with which the framework focuses the attention on the motivational distinction between task and environment. The perspective that Herzberg advanced related hygiene needs to extrinsic job factors and motivational needs to intrinsic job factors.

However, this study differs from Herzberg's in a number of ways. A major point of difference in this investigation from Herzberg's study is the research location or environment. Whereas Herzberg carried out his research in the United States, which is an affluent (developed) society with a predominantly Western culture, this study is conducted in Nigeria, which is a relatively less affluent (developing)
society with an African culture. Also, while Herzberg’s study was conducted across selected private sector organisations, this investigation is carried out in one specific public sector organisation. Moreover, Herzberg’s sample consisted only of highly educated skilled professionals (engineers and accountants), while the sample for this study cuts across civil servants representing all salary grade levels, as well as junior and senior cadres of the service with varied educational and skills levels. By implication, unlike Herzberg’s respondents, the sample of this study is not restricted only to highly educated professionals.

Herzberg’s dual-factor theory has been underemphasised in research and practice with regard to its application to the Nigerian work environment. This may be due to the tendency to see Herzberg’s theories as more applicable to job satisfaction than to motivation. This study seeks to close this gap by applying Herzberg’s theories to the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission, which epitomises the inadequate or low motivation that is prevalent in the Nigerian public sector in general.

The universe of the study is delimited in scope to the Federal Civil Service Commission in Abuja. Hence, all other government organisations such as the state civil services and their civil service commissions, local government authorities and public enterprises, which are normally properly included in the definition of the Nigerian public service, fall outside the purview of this investigation. This clearly indicates that the study does not intend to cover the whole of the Nigerian public service.

1.5 Statement of the problem and research question

The problem examined in this thesis is necessarily multifaceted. Since Herzberg’s theory was published in 1959, there has been significant controversy among scholars who questioned the viability of the theory. The opponents of the theory claim that the approach used by Herzberg et al. (1959) in developing the theory was not sufficiently rigorous and, as a consequence, the findings cannot be replicated unless the author’s exact methodology is followed (see chapter
Opponents also argued that the Herzberg study results applied only to professional employees. Yet, the authors, in postulating their theory, applied it to all classes of employees. Critics also argued that the findings were biased because the researchers did not recognise the influence of the defensive behaviour patterns that could have been developed by the study participants. Vroom (1967:126) defined defensive behaviour as the action taken by individuals to preserve and maintain their self-concept and sense of well-being. Finally, critics stated that the environmental differences that existed between the nine plants involved in the original Herzberg study could have affected the study outcome (see chapter three).

One of the major areas of impact, as a result of the disagreement among scholars, has been the reluctance of the industrial community to accept the Herzberg theory. The theory, if fully accepted, would result in significant changes in both management theory and practice.

For the past 15 years, a controversy has existed within the field of Industrial Psychology between the different theories of job satisfaction. The theories involved in this dispute are Herzberg’s dual-factor theory of job satisfaction and the traditional theories of motivation (see chapters two and three).

Koontz (1961) wrote a classic article, entitled The Management Theory Jungle, in which he tried to unravel some of the confusion that has resulted from the various management and motivation theories. Today, it is just as appropriate to speak of “The Motivation Theory Jungle”. Managers who are in the frontline of having to achieve results through people are bombarded by a host of theories on how to motivate subordinates.

Sadly enough, many managers have written off the theorists and continue to manage by the seat of their pants. Yet, most of these theories give some very relevant insights into the issues of motivation that can be of valuable help to managers who are faced with people problems almost every day of their work lives. By incorporating and synthesising various motivation theories, this thesis is an attempt to give practising managers in the Nigerian public sector some
guidelines on how to motivate their subordinates in order to comply with the needs of job satisfaction.

In applying existing motivation theories in a work environment, Amana (1992:16-19) noted that “the level of well-being and sophistication of the workforce determines what it perceives as important.” This implies that the job factors that influence the work motivation of individuals may differ from place to place, from person to person, and from culture to culture.

This therefore negates attempts to evolve a single unifying theory of motivation. Moreover, motivational factors are difficult to determine because of the unending nature of the individual wants of the average person, as once one need is satisfied, another emerges. It is in this regard that this thesis sets out to determine the actual job factors that motivate civil servants in Nigeria with particular reference to the Federal Civil Service Commission in order to be able to advance appropriate suggestions towards enhancing their level of motivation. The study intends to apply the Herzberg dual-factor motivation theory to the Commission to determine its relevance to the Nigerian work environment.

In view of the background provided above, the main research problem to be addressed by this study will therefore be to determine:

In applying the dual-factor theory, which job factors determine the level of motivation among employees in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission and how can this knowledge be used to increase their level of motivation and job satisfaction?

1.6 Research problems/questions

The need to reflect on the problem statement above is important, because the necessary measures to motivate employees and provide job satisfaction within government institutions can form a useful benchmark against which the progress of effective and efficient service delivery can be assessed.
The research problems/questions to be addressed by this study therefore are:

- What are the meaning and rationale for work?
- Do both intrinsic (motivators) and extrinsic (hygiene factors) variables of the job motivate employees?
- What effects, if any, do these motivation and hygiene job factors have on employee motivation and job satisfaction?
- Are the Herzberg et al. findings applicable to other than professional employees?
- Do the same job factors (motivators and hygiene factors) motivate junior and senior civil servants in Nigeria’s Federal Civil Service Commission?
- Is the influence of the motivators and hygiene factors similar for senior and junior civil servants in the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria?
- How can motivation be enhanced among Nigerian public sector employees?

1.7 Research objectives

In order to achieve the aim of the study, the objectives of the study are to provide:

- An integration of variables influencing the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction through the application of a literature study of the concept and theories of motivation and the motivational strategies and techniques employed to ensure employee motivation and job satisfaction;
- A historical overview of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory and an explanation of the concept “job satisfaction” as a determinant of motivation through an
exploration of available literature in order to provide an exposition of the rationale of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory;

- A historical background to and the rationale of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission as the study population for this thesis, as well as an explanation of the structure and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and an overview of the Federal Civil Service Commission in order to provide the context of the African environment of the public sector and to justify the sampling population; and

- A description of the methodology and the data collection process utilised in this study and to make a factual analysis and evaluation of the data and findings of the study in order to answer the research question(s) and to fulfil the study objectives.

1.8 Hypothesis

The level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is only dependent upon intrinsic or internal variables of the job, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and personal development.

Contingent on the research problem and hypothesis that were developed and tested by this study, the following assumptions become pertinent:

- A motivated employee is likely to work better.

- Employees in Nigeria’s Federal Civil Service Commission are not motivated by extrinsic or external variables of the job like pay, interpersonal relations, working conditions, supervision, job security or organisational policy and administration.
• The level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is enhanced by the presence of intrinsic or internal variables of the job such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and the work itself.

• The general belief that a happy or satisfied employee is an efficient and productive worker is not necessarily true.

• Junior and senior civil servants in Nigeria react differently to various job factors based on their perception and level of remuneration.

All of the assumptions were formed in such a way that acceptance of any or all of them constituted support for the findings obtained in the literature studies of motivation and job satisfaction provided in chapters two and three.

1.9 Collection of information and research methods

This study draws on a variety of sources for the purpose of obtaining information and relevant data. Besides the observational method, use was also made of a survey questionnaire and a literature study. The survey questionnaire was used to generate primary data, while secondary data was obtained from the literature study. A detailed examination of the methodology employed in this thesis is contained in chapters four and five of this study. The purpose of this section is to present a brief introductory discussion of the study design, statistical techniques and the method used in the thesis. A comprehensive literature study, as well as a survey questionnaire are thus the two main research methods employed in this study.

1.9.1 The research design

The cross-sectional survey is used in the study design. In this type of study design, the research elements or respondents are studied at a particular point in
time. Surveys are particularly versatile and practical, in that they identify present conditions and point to present needs. Surveys provide information on which to base sound decisions. However, the survey's lack of control precludes a definitive test of crucial hypotheses (Osuala 1985:122). This weakness of using a survey will be overcome by using a fairly sophisticated statistical tool, namely the chi-square, in testing the research hypothesis of this study.

1.9.2 The research technique

The approach used in this thesis was designed to incorporate the elements that have already been identified by scholars in the field as being the critical components that must be considered for an impartial assessment of the dual-factor theory. Therefore, the choice of method for this study was based on the following requirements:

- The method must be as objective as possible so that the appearance of factors in a satisfying or dissatisfying situation will not be dependent on an evaluation decision by the researcher.

- The format used must prevent biasing elements from influencing the subjects' responses. In other words, consideration must be given to the structure of the questions in order to avoid the possible defensive behaviour of the respondents.

- In order to minimise the effect of varying environments, it is essential that the study must be conducted in one organisation at one location.

- Employees in more than one occupational group should be studied to examine the validity of the dual-factor theory across a broader spectrum.

In view of these requirements, it was decided to conduct the study using the survey questionnaire technique (see chapters four, five and appendix one).
1.9.3 Collection of information

In an effort to obtain information and knowledge relevant to the field of study and research methods, the researcher relied on both primary and secondary sources of data. In this regard, two main research instruments were employed, namely the questionnaire and the literature study or document analysis.

The questionnaire – which constitutes the major instrument for the collection of primary (quantitative) data – was used to elicit information on respondents’ socio-demographic characteristics, objective perceptions of the work situation and the determinants of motivation in the workplace. The questionnaire is preferred here because it is a faster and cheaper means of eliciting comparable and quantifiable information from a large population within a short period.

The document analysis of secondary (qualitative) data complements the primary data generated by the survey questionnaire. Document analysis helped to verify the respondents’ claims on the subject matter of this study. However, it is important to note that these research instruments are not mutually exclusive; rather, they serve to complement each other.

Appropriate, relevant and high quality information on the subject of motivation is available in the literature. However, the review of relevant literature indicates that studies of motivation have been approached mainly from a foreign or international perspective. Leading motivation theorists such as Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, Victor Vroom, Lyman Porter, Edward Lawler, David McClelland, Clayton Alderfer, B.F. Skinner, J.S. Adams and J. Locke are all foreigners and non-Nigerians. Indeed, the dual-factor theory of motivation on which this study is premised was propounded by an American named Frederick Herzberg (see chapters two and three).

The studies of motivation by these foreign scholars are culture-bound. Therefore, these literature sources do not adequately reflect the Nigerian work situation. To overcome this perceived deficiency in the literature, the researcher deliberately had to source local literature that addressed the Nigerian situation.
1.9.4 Literature study

The particular focus of the researcher in the literature search was on the following concepts: motivation, job performance, leadership, management and civil service. The researcher specifically concentrated on the conceptualisation, as well as theories and models applicable to these concepts. Documentary sources from which secondary data was obtained include:

- Relevant published textbooks and other literature on motivation, job performance, leadership, bureaucracy, management and civil service;

- Unpublished dissertations and theses;

- Published and unpublished research reports;

- Articles from scientific journals, reference works and newspapers, as well as magazine reports;

- Official and unofficial government publications such as the 2000 annual report of the Federal Civil Service Commission and the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, public service rules and regulations, the Civil Service Handbook and speeches;

- The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria of 1999 and other relevant legislation and statutes;

- Unpublished lectures, documented interviews, periodic reports and documentation of the civil service in Nigeria; and

- Internet sources.
1.9.5 Survey questionnaire

The survey questionnaire was used to obtain voluntary data from respondents concerning the subject matter of the study. The questionnaire was administered to selected respondents. Based on the objectives and hypothesis of this study, the purpose of the survey was to generate quantitative primary data from the respondents, particularly concerning their bio-data, perceptions of the motivational effects of the various identified job factors, and the relative importance they attach to these job factors.

The specific target group of the research consists of all career civil servants (junior and senior) currently working in the Federal Civil Service Commission. Since it would pose practical and financial difficulties to account for all persons in the population, the researcher made use of a survey sample, which is a representative subset of the population (see chapters four and five). The stratified (proportionate) random simple sampling technique was applied in selecting the research subjects. The technique was used because the population cut across departments/units, and includes both junior and senior cadres of the service. The ultimate function of stratification is to organise the population into homogeneous subsets (with heterogeneity between subsets), and to select the appropriate number of elements from each subset. The effect of stratification is to insure the proper representation of the stratification variables and to enhance the representation of other variables related to them.

The application of simple random sampling within each stratum ensures that all elements within the strata have an equal and independent chance of being selected in the sample. A total of 420 respondents were identified for the survey sample. To choose this sample, a preliminary listing of all employees on the commission’s payroll was obtained. From this list, the employees were stratified on the basis of their departments/units, as well as cadres – junior and senior staff. Then the simple random sampling technique was used to select the actual number of respondents needed. This procedure was to ensure that the sample was truly representative of the survey population or universe.
With representative sampling, the researcher ensured that the sample of respondents used in the survey has essentially the same composition as the general population to which the researcher hopes to extrapolate the findings. Since the sample is representative of the population from which it was drawn, the researcher is confident of the possibility to generalise based on the data. Of the 420 respondents that constituted the sample, 50% (210) were junior staff and the other 50% (210) were senior staff. The questionnaire was administered to the sample on the basis shown in table 1.1 below.

**Figure 1.1: Composition of sample of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Sample size (n)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment and appointment department</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion department</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline and appeals department</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel management department</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning, research and statistics department</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance and supplies department</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-departmental units (20 respondents each from the public relations unit, internal audit unit and liaison office, Lagos)</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>420</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sample size of 420 respondents selected from the population of 726 career civil servants working in the Federal Civil Service Commission is adequate and large enough to provide reliable data for this survey. Although 420 respondents were targeted, only 362 questionnaires were returned in such a condition that responses could be used. The effective sample size was therefore slightly below 50% of the survey population.

The questionnaire was structured and consisted of close-ended questions in order to achieve easy aggregation, tabulation and analysis of responses. Specifically, the structured type of questions is used to reduce variability in the meaning of questions in order to ensure comparability of responses. The questions were made simple, standard and unambiguous. The questions were
subjected to a test of validity and reliability through a pilot study and by consulting experts in social science methodology.

The Likert scale development by Rensis Likert (Cf. Babbie 1973:269-270) was applied to the study. Following the Likert scale method, the respondents were served with the questionnaire consisting of a set of statements and they were asked to indicate how important each identified job variable is to them. The scale is shown in table 1.2 below.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unimportant</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very unimportant</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Likert attitude scale measure technique is noted for making use of positive statements, but it is possible to express an unfavourable attitude by indicating disagreement with the statements. In comparing this scale and others, Osuala (1982:151-155) stated that the Likert scale was equally and more reliable than the Thurstone scale, as well as faster and equally valid. This formed some of the reasons why the technique was chosen for this study. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire to the respondents in order to ensure an adequate response rate. Respondents completed the questionnaire anonymously. The data was analysed using frequency counts and simple percentages, as well as the chi-square statistical technique. The chi-square was used to test the hypothesis formulated for the study while the Yule's Q was used to test the strength of the relationship between variables. The choice of the chi-square was based on the fact that this study is purely descriptive. The chi-square test enables a researcher to determine whether or not the difference observed between the dependent and the independent variables is a mere chance occurrence or a true difference.
Two methods of data analysis are used in this study – univariate analysis and bivariate analysis. The univariate analysis was used in the first part of data analysis to present frequency distribution for some of the factors or variables contained in the questionnaire. In the second part of the presentation of data, the bi-variate analysis was used to analyse some independent variables that were cross-tabulated with some dependent variables.

1.10 Terminology

Comprehensive conceptual clarifications of terms specific to the research appear in the appropriate chapters. However, to avoid uncertainty and ambiguity in the interpretation of concepts, terms utilised throughout the thesis are concisely defined below.

- Motivation

Motivation refers to forces or drivers that propel people to embark on goal-directed behaviour towards the satisfaction of some needs. It implies the force or drive to do something or carry out certain actions.

- Job performance

This refers to the ability of employees to work and how well they accomplish the tasks assigned to them.

- Motivation theories

Motivation theories describe an employee’s mental state and the external influences on it of issues such as job characteristics, incentives, organisational culture, job satisfaction, job enrichment, and so on.
• Civil service/civil servant in Nigeria

The services of the government of the federation or the component states by an individual in a civil capacity who is given the responsibility of any business of the government of the federation or the component states (Nigeria 1999:173). Civil servants are people appointed by the civil service commission and to whom civil service rules and regulations are applicable.

• Federal Civil Service Commission

This is a constitutional body established under section 153(i)(d) of the Constitution of Nigeria of 1999.

• Herzberg's dual-factor theory

Although the Herzberg theory represents only one concept, various authors who have written about this field have employed a variety of terms. The basic theory is known as the motivator-hygiene theory, the two-factor theory, the Herzberg theory, and the dual-factor theory. The dual-factor theory is the term that will be used in this thesis.

• Two (dual) factors

The two factors comprising this theory are known by many names. One factor has been called the “hygiene factor”, the “maintenance factor”, the “extrinsic factor”, “dissatisfiers”, and the “job context factor”. For the purposes of this thesis, this factor will mostly be called the “hygiene factor”.

The second factor has been called the “motivator factor”, the “intrinsic factor”, “satisfiers”, and the “job content factor”. For the purpose of this thesis, this factor will mostly be called the “motivator factor”.

Chapter 1 25
1.11 Overview of chapters

Chapter one of this thesis has provided a general introduction to the entire study and a justification for the choice of theoretical framework adopted in this thesis. It includes the background, rationale and motivation for the study, research scope, statement of the research problem and research question(s), research objectives, hypothesis, collection of information and research methods, as well as the terminology used for the purposes of the thesis.

Chapter two provides a literature study aimed at integrating the variables that influence the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction. The meaning and rationale for work is examined. It also provides a theoretical scouting of the meaning of the concept motivation. A study is made of the theories of motivation, as well as special motivational techniques and strategies.

Chapter three provides a historical overview of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory of job satisfaction as a determinant of motivation. Consideration is given to definitions, a general overview, historical perspective, and determinants of job satisfaction to provide the context for the exploration of literature dealing with the dual-factor theory that follows.

Chapter four is devoted to the background of and rationale for the research study population. The historical evolution and a structural functional analysis of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and the Federal Civil Service Commission are provided. Attention is paid to the structure, functions and categories of staff of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service as well as an overview of the membership, structure, powers and functions of the Federal Civil Service Commission. The application of representative bureaucracy is explained as an influencing phenomenon of motivation for employees in Nigeria. The chapter concludes with current motivational strategies in the Nigerian civil service.

Chapter five addresses the aspects surrounding the research design, study population, sampling design and procedures, as well as the method of data collection and analysis. It also explores the survey and questionnaire
presentation and application. The reliability, validity and limitations of the study, as well as the aspects surrounding the presentation of the findings of the study are presented.

Chapter six provides a synthesis of the study through a summary of the research objectives of the study. Certain observations are made of the role of job satisfaction in the Federal Civil Service Commission and conclusions are drawn based on the findings of the study. The hypothesis is tested. Recommendations are advanced and proposals are made for possible future research arising from this thesis.

Finally, the sources consulted are listed, and a copy of the survey questionnaire is appended.
CHAPTER TWO

AN INTEGRATION OF VARIABLES INFLUENCING THE DETERMINANTS OF MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to fulfil the following study objective:

- An integration of variables influencing the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction through the application of a literature study of the concept and theories of motivation and the motivational strategies and techniques employed to ensure employee motivation and job satisfaction.

In the first instance, the meaning and rationale for work are explored, as work is the crucial element in the study of motivation. As soon as an individual is employed, management's main concern will be to get the new employee to do his or her work as well as possible. This is why people are employed. To understand why some people perform better than others, it is therefore essential to understand why people work and what benefits they derive from a job and from working.

Closely related to the idea of "work" as something pursued by human beings for a variety of reasons, is the concept of "a job", or the formalisation of work within a specific environment. This concept is also explored and the variety of meanings attached to the concept is examined.

The concept of motivation is turned to next. This part of the chapter includes an exploration not only of the concept, but also of leading theories of motivation. Although no single theory provides an adequate explanation and predication of human motivation with regard to job satisfaction, different motivational theories that have been formulated over the years, are classified and explained in terms of
their relative strengths and weaknesses. These theories are grouped under the following classification: early ideas on motivation, content theories of motivation and process theories of motivation.

Scholars whose works are discussed under early ideas on motivation are Frederick Taylor and Elton Mayo, while under content theories of motivation, the views of Abraham Maslow, C.P. Alderfer, Chris Argyris and David McClelland are examined as major theories of motivation. Major approaches explained under process theories of motivation include the equity theory of Stacey Adams, the expectancy-based theories of Victor Vroom, Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler, and the goal-setting theory of Edwin Locke. The reinforcement theories of Burrhus Skinner and McGregor (X and Y theory) are also briefly discussed.

To provide a theoretical background for later chapters, this chapter also reviews the techniques and strategies that can be employed to influence the milieu of motivation and its relationship to job satisfaction and performance. This discussion refers to the implications of the different theories and assumptions about the nature of motivating employees for job satisfaction in general and motivation in particular. The concept of job performance is clarified and a model of job performance is also presented.

The chapter concludes with a summary of the major criticisms levelled against the theories of motivation discussed below.

2.2 The meaning of and rationale for work

In the study of motivation, work is an important consideration. Work is of interest to most people because it provides the opportunity for them to share in the task of sustaining and developing their environment or society. The terms “work” and “job” are closely related and could be used interchangeably where appropriate. In clarifying the definition of “work”, Wanous and Zwany (1977:278) declared:
“Work may be defined in general terms as activity directed to goals beyond the enjoyment of the activity itself though this does not exclude enjoyment but it merely indicates that enjoyment is not part of the definition. Work can vary from momentary exertion through to effort sustained over a period of time. Sustained activity almost always takes place within a network of social roles and institutions.”

A major point made by Wanous and Zwy (1977:278) is that any goal-oriented activity pursued for the sole purpose of pleasure or enjoyment does not qualify to be classified as work. Another important point he made is that sustained work activity usually takes place in social and organisational settings. In the words of Lewis (1988:188): “Our understanding of the word work is that of an activity directed by others by which we participate in producing goods or services and for which we are paid.” Lewis (1988:188) also believed that work is pursued for purposes other than sheer pleasure or enjoyment. To Bennett (1997:287), “work is the effort directed towards the attainment of a good. It involves the completion of tasks and the assumption of responsibilities.” Work for Armstrong (2000:175) is “the exertion of effort and the application of knowledge and skills to achieve a purpose.”

Having explored the meaning of the concept work, the definition of the term “job” has to be explored. A job, in the words of Cole (2002:xiii), is “[t]he name given to a particular set of tasks allocated to a particular individual or position, for which the job-holder will be held accountable.” According to Daft (1997:544), “a job in an organisation is a unit of work that a single employee is responsible for performing.” Similarly, Burton and Thakur (1997:287) asserted that a “job may be defined as a unit of work for which one employee is responsible.” To Cole (2002: 106), all organisations can be thought of as networks of jobs. The inference to draw here is that a collection of jobs equals work or, put differently, work consists of a set of jobs. The terms “work” and “job” are thus interrelated and interwoven.

Work means different things to different people depending on their specific social influences and environmental variables. Holt (1998:672) puts it this way: “the concepts of work and a job evoke different meanings among people from other
cultures, and therefore, incentives to work must also differ." Whether work is enjoyable, or little more than a means for achieving a material end, depends on a number of factors, including:

- Individual inclinations towards work;

- Whether a job provides creative opportunities and responsibilities to undertake varied and interesting duties;

- The culture of the society in which the employee lives; as well as

- Childhood socialisation and upbringing (Bennett 1997:287).

Agreeing that a job, like work, is many different things, Mills (1978:253) posited the following:

"To an employee it is both a way of earning a living and a situation in which a person spends much of his or her life. To an employer it is both a method of getting work done and a major item of cost. To the society as a whole, jobs are the context in which large numbers of people live together, interact with each other, and from which social and political attitudes emerge. It is not surprising, therefore, that much interest revolves around jobs, for they are the heart of modern industrial civilization."

Work is of principal importance to people mainly because its performance provides a variety of rewards that satisfy their needs. This implies that people work to meet many of their human needs. Armstrong (2000:175) stated that most people work to earn a living – to make money. But, according to him, they also work because of the other satisfactions it brings, such as doing something worthwhile, a sense of achievement, prestige, recognition, the opportunity to use and develop abilities, the scope to exercise power, and companionship.
Work is an economic necessity for nearly everyone, and income from a job is tied to basic physiological needs. Work contributes to self-perception and it helps to define purpose within individual societies. Through work, people pursue many of their achievements and social activities (Holt 1998:677). According to Bennett (1997:287), people with jobs have income, status and a means for interacting socially with others.

The views of Armstrong (2000:175), Holt (1998:677), and Bennett (1997:287) seem to suggest that the vast majority of people engage in work activity essentially for what they believe they are getting or can get from it. This means that only few people like work for its own sake. Rather, work for most people is intimately related to achievement of personal goals – a person tends to work with zeal if the satisfaction from his/her work is high and in keeping with what he/she wants. Fubara (1985: 137) summarised the reasons why people work as follows:

- Subsistence – for food, clothing and shelter;
- Security – to be sure of a constant source of income;
- Self-development – people may look upon certain jobs as a "stepping stone" to better positions;
- Status – to be recognised in society and to build self-confidence;
- Outlet of sublimation – to have the opportunity to express wishes and impulses; and
- Personality gratification – to derive joy or attachment to the place of work.

In essence, the reason why people give much of themselves to work is because work gives to them much of what they seek. People want work that they find personally meaningful. When this is not the case, motivational efforts tend to be
in vain. Hackman and Oldham (1976:250-279) identified five core dimensions that determine a job's motivational potential:

- Skill variety – this refers to the number of diverse activities that constitute a job and the number of skills used to perform it.

- Task identity – this is the degree to which the job requires doing a task with a visible outcome, as well as a recognisable beginning and end.

- Task significance – it is the degree to which the job is perceived as important and having substantial impact on the lives or work of others in the organisation.

- Autonomy – it refers to the degree to which the employee has freedom, discretion and self-determination in scheduling work and determining procedures.

- Feedback – this concerns the amount of direct and clear information that is received about job performance as jobs vary in their ability to let employees see the outcomes of their efforts.

Hackman and Oldham (1976:250-279) further stated that variety, identity and significance contribute to the meaningfulness of the job while autonomy gives people a feeling of responsibility, and feedback contributes to a feeling of achievement and recognition.

From the above it is clear that motivation is part of work. The concept “motivation” will be explored below.

2.3 The concept of motivation

Motivation is a subject matter that has attracted the attention of great thinkers since human beings began to team up for the purpose of accomplishing work-
related tasks. This is due to the realisation that it is important to create a work environment that will foster effective job performance and the reasonable fulfilment of the personal goals of employees. Employees will be motivated to carry out duties assigned to them to the extent that doing so also satisfies their personal needs.

Since people carry out work, it follows that work is a function of human behaviour. But human behaviour is a complex subject to comprehend. In essence, the main aim of human motivation studies is to discover what it is that triggers and sustains human behaviour. Motivation studies seek to explain why people behave the way they do in organisations. All human beings are wanting “animals” and they engage in behaviour that facilitates the attainment of their goals and desires.

Scholars across the globe have shown an immense interest in finding out what motivates people to work due perhaps, to the widespread belief that employees should be well motivated in order to encourage them to add effective value to their organisations. Two options are open to the employer: forcing people to work or making them want to work. Both approaches can be effective, but experience has shown that the latter is the most effective approach in the long term.

People will usually do the minimum amount of work if they have to be compelled to work, but are likely to do much more if they really want (are willing) to work. Motivation can change and propel employees to greater heights in the discharge of their assigned duties. An employee who is forced or compelled to work is like an automobile that is pushed and therefore cannot go too far. A motivated employee is like a self-driven or propelled automobile that can go the length. Motivated employees will act (work) without being pushed, threatened or compelled to do so by their superiors. Employees act because they are convinced that it is in their best interest to do so. Levinston (1973:71) made an interesting observation about unmotivated employees: “The characteristics of a jackass are stubbornness, stupidity, wilfulness and unwillingness to go to where
someone is driving him. These, by interesting coincidence are also characteristics of the unmotivated employee." A satisfied employee is motivated from within to work harder whereas a dissatisfied employee is not. Indeed, as noted by Quible (1996:201), "motivation provides employees with the 'fuel' they need to attain their goals."

Scholars define motivation from different perspectives. The term motivation originated from the Latin word movere, which simply means "to move". However, this definition is rather simplistic in describing the very complex process of motivation. Motivation is derived from motive(s). A motive is simply the reason for doing something. The drives and desires of employees have to be substantially satisfied in order to induce them to act in a desired manner geared towards achieving organisational goals and objectives. A motive is therefore a stimulated need that an individual seeks to satisfy. Human motives are predicated on needs whether consciously or subconsciously. Hunger, a need for security and the desire for prestige are examples of motives. Behaviour directed towards the satisfaction of these needs is motivated behaviour or simply "motivation". Since all human beings have needs, it follows that they are capable of being motivated. However, it is not easy to motivate an individual, for the success of any motivational effort depends on the extent to which the motivator meets the needs of the individual employees for whom it is intended (Nwachukwu 1988:181).

Motivation and satisfaction do not mean the same thing. Weihrich and Koontz (1994: 465) distinguished between motivation and satisfaction as follows:

"Motivation refers to the drive and effort to satisfy a want or goal. Satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is satisfied. In other words, motivation implies a drive towards an outcome, and satisfaction is the outcome already experienced."

In the same vein, Atkinson and Birth (1978:346) concluded that "[m]otivation refers to the drive and effort to satisfy a want or goal while satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when want is satisfied."
A person may have high job satisfaction, but a low level of motivation for the job. Conversely, an individual may be highly motivated, but experience low job satisfaction (Atkinson & Birth 1978:346). To Weirich and Koontz (1994:462), "[m]otivation is a general term applying to the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces." Motivation, according to Cole (2001:28), is the term used to describe "those processes, both instinctive and rational, by which people seek to satisfy the basic drives, perceived needs and personal goals, which trigger human behaviour." Griffin (1999:474) asserted that "motivation is the set of forces that cause people to behave in certain ways." In the same vein, Bartol and Martin (1998:383) defined motivation as "the force that energizes behaviour, gives direction to behaviour, and underlies the tendency to persist."

Motivation, as defined by Holt (1998:710), is the "stimulus that drives behaviour, consisting of all the forces that cause people to behave in certain ways." Batesman and Snell (1999:440) declared that "motivation refers to forces that energize, direct and sustain a person’s efforts." According to Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2002:442), motivation "includes the factors that cause, channel and sustain human behaviour in a particular committed direction." Daft (1997:526) appears to have taken into account intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of motivation when he submitted that "motivation refers to the forces either within or external to a person that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action." Armstrong (2000) described motivation as goal-directed behaviour. According to him, people are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward - one that satisfies their needs. He further stated that well-motivated people are those with clearly defined goals who take action that they expect will achieve those goals (Armstrong 2000:106).

Virtually all of these definitions tend to see motivation in terms of forces, drives, factors or even things that induce people to choose a particular course of action from other alternative courses of action. As such for the purpose of this study, motivation refers to forces or drivers that propel people to embark on goal-
directed behaviour towards the satisfaction of some needs. No matter how motivation is conceptualised, there is no denying the fact that motivation entails a goal-directed behaviour with the aim of satisfying a felt need. In other words, the process of motivation starts from a felt need or desire of a person that drives him or her to pursue a course of action, on a sustained basis, in order to satisfy the need or desire. This process is illustrated in figure 2.1 below.

**Figure 2.1: The motivation process**

| Need        | Goal-directed behaviour | Satisfaction |

The implication is that motive is the basic ingredient of motivation, for without it there can be no motivation. As such, motivation can be viewed as a mental process by which people are moved or incited to goal-directed action. Motivation helps in explaining why people behave the way they do. The underlying concept of motivation is some driving force within individuals by which they attempt to achieve some goal(s) in order to fulfil some need or expectation. People's behaviour is determined by what motivate them while their performance is the product of both ability and motivation (Mullins 1999:406). Motivation concerns the state of mind of employees, as it is linked to the will to work. The inference here is that the ability to work is not enough to make employees perform effectively. The fact that employees are capable of doing a job does not guarantee that they will perform well. If they have no will to work (motivation), they may deliberately avoid their jobs, be indifferent to their jobs, or even work against fulfilling their job purposes. Both the ability and the will to work are therefore essential. No wonder then, that Beach (1985:427) conceived of motivation as a willingness to expend energy to achieve a goal or a reward. According to Sullivan (1988:104-115), "motivation is important because of its significance as a determinant of performance and because of its intangible character."

Some basic assumptions to guide the interpretation of human needs and behaviour have been advanced:
• That all human behaviour has a cause and this in itself is the result of combined effect of heredity and environment;

• That at the root of all human behaviour are needs, motives and any particular behaviour aimed at satisfying a felt need; and

• That human behaviour is goal-seeking if people work towards achieving a specific need (Okoh 1998:195-196).

A motivated employee, according to Petri (1981:4) can be described as follows:

• The person works hard.
• The person sustains a pace of hard work.
• The person’s behaviour is self-directed towards important goals.

Petri (1981:4) therefore concluded that motivation involves effort, persistence and goals. However, since a person may work hard without achieving satisfactory results, it is important for a motivated employee not only to work hard but also to work better.

Nwachukwu (1988:181) similarly pointed out that motivated behaviour has three basic characteristics:

• It is sustained – it is maintained for a long time until satisfied.
• It is goal-directed – it seeks to achieve an objective or goal.
• It results from a felt need – an urge directed towards a need.

Mitchell (1982:80-88) identifies four common characteristics that underline the definition of motivation:
• Motivation is typified as an individual phenomenon. Every person is unique and all the major theories of motivation allow for this uniqueness to be demonstrated in one way or another.

• Motivation is described, usually, as intentional. Motivation is assumed to be under an employee's control, and behaviours that are influenced by motivation, such as effort expended, are seen as choices of action.

• Motivation is multifaceted. The two factors of greatest importance are that which gets people activated (arousal); and the force of an individual to engage in desired behaviour (direction or choice of behaviour).

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

Different scholars have identified a variety of factors that motivate people to work. To achieve increased employee productivity, according to Fein (1970:145), management must provide the basic conditions that will motivate employees to increase their output, including job security, good working conditions, good pay and financial incentives. What motivates people to work, according to Petri (1981:281), includes:

• Security, offering the possibility of continuous employment;

• Challenge, offering the opportunity for tackling and solving difficult problems;

• Power, motivating people to strive for position because of the authority it will carry;

• Social contact, offering social intercourse and contact with other people rather than financial reward;
• Exploitation of personal attitude, offering people the opportunity to strive to do their best according to their capacity; and

• Prestige, providing recognition and personal esteem rather than monetary attraction.

On his part, Mullins (1999:407) proposed a threefold classification for work motivation. The first relates to economic rewards such as pay, fringe benefits, pension rights, material goods and security — this is an instrumental orientation to work and concerned with "other things". The second is intrinsic satisfaction that is derived from the nature of the work itself, interest in the job, and personal growth and development — this is a personal orientation to work and concerned with "oneself". The third refers to social relationships such as friendships, group working, and the desire for affiliation, status and dependency. This is a relational orientation to work and concerned with "other people". It is interesting to note that these scholars — Fein (1970:145), Petri (1980:261) and Mullins (1999:407) — clearly identified both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors as affecting the motivation of employees.

Broadly speaking, there are two kinds of motivation, namely positive and negative motivation. If people work due to compulsion and fear of punishment and reprimand, it is negative motivation. If, on the other hand, people work willingly and without coercion, it is positive motivation. Motivation can also be classified as being either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation centres on psychological rewards, such as a sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation and positive recognition. Extrinsic motivation emphasises physical rewards like payment, good work environments and job security. The main purpose of motivation is to induce employees to give their best to their jobs, and by so doing, bring about increased work output. Motivation also helps to retain and maintain the present workforce in an organisation, as well as to give them a sense of belonging. Moreover, motivation helps to reduce labour costs through increased productivity.
It is essential for managers to understand the difference between being “moved” and being “motivated”. According to Herzberg (1968a:54), “move” can be summarised as follows: “When a person carries out a task for the sake of the remuneration (i.e. for what he can get out of it), he is being moved.”

Mol (1993:83) argued that, when managers attending training seminars are asked what they understand by the term “motivation”, the most common definition is “influencing a subordinate to achieve the goal that the manager wants him to achieve.” He questioned the validity of this definition of motivation by illustrating it in the following argument: “If I want my dog out of the house, I yell at him and aim a kick in his direction, so that he runs out. Did I motivate the dog? After all, he did what I wanted him to do. Most managers will agree that is not motivation since I ‘forced’ the dog to go out. But what if I take a bone and lure him out? Now he has done what I wanted him to do out of his own free will. Is that motivation? No, it is movement” (Mol 1993:83).

This implies that, even though individuals do not particularly like the task they have to do, they are willing to do it for the sake of what they can get for doing it. According to Mol (1993:83), his involvement with commerce and industry would seem to indicate that the majority of employees are in this position; that is, they are being moved to carry out their tasks, rather than being motivated.

Mol (1993) stated further that employees could be moved from behind (e.g. with threats) or from the front (e.g. with incentives). He also said “that it isn’t wrong to move employees. We’ve been doing it for years. Just think of the plethora of incentive schemes that we find in organisations today. Do they motivate employees? I believe not. Such incentive schemes only move employees” (Mol 1993:83).

What then is “motivation” in a management context? What gives subordinates that extra commitment and dedication? The answer is relatively simple according to Mol (1993:83): “When a person carries out a task because he enjoys doing it, he is being motivated.”
This may be a rather simplistic definition, yet it highlights the fact that real dedication and commitment to a task can only come when the task itself is enjoyable for the individual concerned. In other words, motivation stems from intrinsic factors, while movement stems from extrinsic factors.

Much of the confusion over the issue of motivation is the fact that the theorists do not always distinguish between "motivation" and "movement". Agreement on what is meant by the term "motivation" would eliminate a great deal of misunderstanding. For example, the argument whether money motivates or not would become an irrelevant question. The more appropriate argument would be whether money can get employees to enjoy their tasks more – and the answer to this is most likely "no". Theories of motivation are therefore explored below to arrive at an understanding of what motivates employees.

2.4 Theories of motivation

The actual process of motivation to enhance job satisfaction is influenced by a myriad of variables. There are also innumerable studies on the subject of motivation. It was therefore impossible to review all of them within the scope of this thesis. Only some of the major or more influential theories of motivation have been explored in details. These are all appropriate for an understanding of the determinants of employee motivation that has a bearing on job satisfaction.

Following a review of approaches (views) to motivation, Schein (1988) proposed a classification scheme that follows a broadly chronological order: the rational economic view, the social view, the self-actualising view and the complex view.

- **The rational economic view:** This approach assumes that people are rational economic beings motivated primarily by economic incentives. This perspective suggests that the pursuit of self-interest and the maximisation of gain are the main motives that motivate people. The classical school of thought to which scholars like Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol, and Frank and
Lilian Gilbreth belong is premised on this perspective. The approach also corresponds to McGregor’s theory X.

- **The social view:** This viewpoint believes that people are predominately motivated by social needs. Accordingly, the approach that is advanced is that placing emphasis on attending to people’s needs over the needs of the task will lead to greater productivity as well as higher morale. This view is heavily indebted to the human relations school of thought. This view corresponds to Elton Mayo’s theory on the basis of his Hawthorne studies.

- **The self-actualising view:** This perspective is largely predicated on Abraham Maslow’s theory of human needs that, while allowing for the influence of other needs, stresses the individual need for self-fulfilment as the prime motivator. The implication of this is that people need challenge, responsibility and autonomy in their jobs if they are to work effectively. Besides Maslow, exponents of this approach include Alderfer (ERG theory) and Chris Argyris (immaturity-maturity theory).

- **The complex view:** This approach assumes that people are complex hence they cannot be adequately predicated. This is because people have many motives that combine into a complex pattern. This viewpoint presupposes that understanding human motivation is complex and difficult due to the fact that people are not only different and have varied needs but that they and their needs are dynamic rather than static. In other words, this perspective holds that people’s motivation may vary according to situations. Schein (1988:12-15) regards motivation, in the context of the complex person view, as a form of “psychological contract” based on the expectations that the respective parties have of each other and the extent to which these are fulfilled. This perspective also takes into account the three approaches discussed above, rather than exclude them. The contingency approach to motivation corresponds to this perspective.
For the purpose of this thesis, motivation theories are classified into four broad categories: early ideas on motivation, content theories of motivation, process theories of motivation and reinforcement theories of motivation. Early approaches to motivation refer to views on motivation exposed by classical (scientific management) and human relations theorists such as Frederick Taylor and Elton Mayo. Motivation theories that focus on stimulus in terms of what specifically causes motivation are called content theories while theories that focus on behaviour are called process theories (Cole 2002:96). According to Holt (1998:675), content theories explain motivation largely in terms of human needs while process theories explain motivation largely in terms of expectations about perceived outcomes of behaviour. This implies that content theories seek to address those factors in the workplace that motivate employees (Swanepoel et al. 2000:354). Process theories, on the other hand, focus on finding out how employees are motivated. As such, content theories are mainly concerned with identifying motivational factors whereas process theories focus on how motivation occurs. Reinforcement theories focus on how people can be conditioned to exhibit the desired behaviour. These theorists try to establish how people learn to exhibit desirable behaviour (Swanepoel et al. 2000:354).

A number of motivation theories, classified under the appropriate categories, are therefore examined in this review of literature. Under early ideas on motivation, the scientific management and human relations perspectives are discussed with reference to the work of Frederick Taylor and Elton Mayo. The major content theories of motivation that are examined are Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, Argyris’s immaturity-maturity theory, Alderfer’s modified need hierarchy model, Herzberg’s dual-factor theory and McClelland’s achievement motivation theory. The major process theories explained are Adams’ equity theory, expectancy theories as postulated by Vroom, Porter and Lawler, Locke’s goal-setting theory, and Skinner’s reinforcement theory.

2.4.1 Early ideas on motivation

Moving employees to act in a desired manner has always consumed the thoughts of managers. This section reviews the literature of earlier motivational theorists
and draws from their approaches to job satisfaction and the role of motivation as a determinant of job satisfaction.

2.4.1.1 The scientific management approach

Earlier approaches to management grew out of the belief that the application of scientific principles to work processes would not only increase productivity, but would also help to reduce the cost of production. These beliefs provided the impetus for the emergence of the scientific management approach between 1890 and 1930. Frederick Taylor (1911) was a leading proponent of the scientific management approach. Indeed, he was the first scholar to carry out a study on how to increase the productivity of employees by relating pay to output. Hence, Taylor is widely acclaimed as the father of scientific management. Taylor's ideas on scientific management emerged during the later part of the 19th century when the industrial revolution was in its state of maturity.

Taylor's principal concern was that of increasing efficiency in production, not only to lower costs and raise profits, but also to make increased pay possible for employees who attained higher levels of productivity. Taylor was of the view that the problem of productivity was a matter of ignorance on the part of both management and labour. He saw increased productivity as the answer to both higher wages and higher profits and believed that the application of scientific methods, instead of customs and rules of thumb, could yield greater work output without the expenditure of more human energy or effort (Taylor 1911).

Taylor's basic assumption was that the human being is principally an economic being and because of this, he thought that people could only be motivated if rewards and penalties are tied to performance. Taylor saw people basically as economically rational, self-centred and mercenary with their only concern being the maximisation of material gain. Essentially, then, Taylor (1911) believed that people are only motivated to increase their output through monetary incentives – the more employees produced, the more they earned. Taylor (1911) concluded that high salaries would motivate employees, and that the chance for advancement is conditioned by continuous and efficient performance in a
mechanically pre-described manner. A typical contemporary example of this practice is the payment of commission to sales persons based on the volume of their sales.

For Taylor, money was the prime motivator of employees. On the contrary, studies have shown that employee motivation goes beyond money. As such, Taylor's assumption on this has been faulted. For example, Schaffer (1950) reports a study of 7,000 employees in one organisation. Only 7% of this sample indicated that their rate of pay was the most important thing to them in their jobs. A steady job and work they could enjoy were said to be the most important by as many as 36% and 15%, respectively.

Obviously, Taylor had a simplistic and generalised view of people and assumed a totally economic-instrumental orientation towards work, while forgetting that the average employee may derive some satisfaction from the act of the work itself or from association with others in the workplace. Taylor's single or sole factor explanation of motivation takes no account of other influences on behaviour at work.

Moreover, Taylor's scientific management approach paid inadequate attention to the role of the human factor in productivity improvement. Taylor did not reckon with the emotional side of people whom he treated like an inanimate resource. He oversimplified both the work process and employee motivation while treating employees more like machines than human beings with feelings.

Some of the techniques developed by Taylor had certain mechanistic aspects – for instance, to determine what a fair day's work was and to help in discovering the one best way of doing any given job, the careful study of time and motion was widely applied. Likewise, various pay plans based on output were used in an attempt to ensure that employees who produced more were paid according to their productivity and to give employees an incentive for performance. Even though these techniques may be regarded as inappropriate, many of them still form part of the control procedures in many organisations at present. On the whole, it may be said that Taylor was a trailblazer in the development and
analysis of work methods in a scientific manner. One of the main positive contributions made by the scientific management approach was that it emphasised the importance of planning and the concept of control in management.

2.4.1.2 The human relations approach to motivation

The human relations approach emerged as a reaction to the scientific management school of thought. This approach originated from a famous series of studies carried out by Elton Mayo and his co-researchers at the Western Electric Company factory at Hawthorne near Chicago in the United States. This series of studies, which were conducted from 1924-1932, became universally known as the "Hawthorne studies" (cf. Mayo 1933).

The Hawthorne studies began as an attempt to investigate the impact of lighting and other physical variables on the productivity of employees. From the results of the experiments, no clear relationship could be established between lighting and the work output of employees – productivity increased under both high and low lighting situations.

The findings of the research was consequently interpreted to mean that, when management pays special attention to a group of employees, this is likely to lead to an increase in output regardless of actual variations in the physical working conditions such as the level of lighting. It also pointed out that the behaviour of the work group affects productivity.

This implies that, contrary to the popular notion that physical and environmental conditions and temporal things such as money affect the performance of employees, the studies found that factors other than physical variables affect productivity. Mayo (1933) discovered, for example, that employees respond to group norms and, as a result, group attitudes are vital factors that affect employee performance. Moreover, Mayo also found that group behaviour has an important role to play in motivating employees. He thus identified the necessity not only to preserve but also to encourage the formation of work groups.
By relating employees' performance to variables like illumination, fatigue and group influence, Mayo inferred that affiliation and cordial relationships with co-employees are the most potent variables in determining satisfaction and motivation in the work environment. In short, what Mayo (1933) advanced was that employers should cater for the social needs of employees in order to motivate them. From Mayo's work it can be argued that people obtain their sense of identity by their association with others — that meaning at work is sought through social relations and that employees are more responsive to the social pressures of their peer groups than the control exercised by management.

It seems as if the human relations approach has its drawbacks. One of the weaknesses of the approach is that it is too simplistic. The positive attitude of employees is a multidimensional variable impossible to explain in simplistic terms as the human relations model tried to achieve. This is due to the fact that the human relations approach oversimplified motivation, as did the classical approach, by focusing mainly on just one factor — money (in the case of classical theorists) and social relations (in the case of human relations scholars). Also, the human relations approach de-emphasises the use of material incentives to obtain compliance with organisational goals.

The Hawthorne experiments ensured that, for the first time, social relationships, group norms and other human factors were recognised as important determinants of employees' attitude towards work. It also acknowledged that individuals have their own perceptions and ideas in forming a group and if their needs and preferences are not fulfilled, maximum work output will be undermined.

The human relations approach emphasised the social needs of employees while it accommodated the basic tenets of the work itself unchanged. It has therefore been suggested that the human relations orientation made work more tolerable and so reduced employee dissatisfaction, while it did little to provide motivation or to satisfy higher order needs, such as those for challenge and self-actualisation on the job (Strauss 1974:5-6).
Another criticism of the human relations school of thought is directed at the philosophy that happy employees are productive employees. Work output depends not only on employees' morale, but also on their individual goals and motivation. Happy employees are not necessarily productive employees. By attempting to equate high morale with high productivity, the approach ignored the fact that there are many happy but unproductive employees. Generally, the human relations approach has been widely criticised as being manipulative, insincere and, most importantly, as ignoring the reality of economic variables.

However, it must be highlighted that the Hawthorn studies identified the need to encourage the existence of working teams, as well as employee participation in the decision-making related to their jobs. The studies also brought to the fore the effectiveness of group pressure on the individual, as well as the need of group members for recognition, security, belonging to and identification with a group. The important point here is that, for the first time, group pressure and other human factors were recognised as important determinants of employee productivity and performance as a result of the outcome of the Hawthorne experiments.

Another significant contribution of the Hawthorne studies was in discovering the phenomenon of informal organisation. It is now accepted that this exists in every formal organisation. The Hawthorne studies also revealed that the employee is more than just an economic being but also a social being, thereby debunking Taylor’s postulations in this regard.

2.4.2 The content theories of motivation

In order to elicit the content theorists; views of motivation, it is necessary to understand that content theories focus on factors that allegedly motivate people, for example, "needs". These theorists try to answer the question: What motivates people? In general and particularly for the purposes of this thesis, this section focuses on the implications of motivation for job satisfaction. Hertzberg’s dual-
factor theory is classified as a content theory, but will be analysed in the next chapter as a specific unit of analysis and the main focus of this thesis.

2.4.2.1 Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory

In a classic work published in 1943, Abraham Maslow formulated a theory of motivation based on a classification of human needs (Maslow 1943:370-396; Maslow 1954). He postulated that human needs are divided into five categories and are arranged hierarchically in order of priority from the lowest level to the highest level needs: physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation needs.

Physiological needs are the primary needs related to the physical being of all people such as the need for food, drink, shelter, and the relief from or avoidance of pain. People must satisfy these basic needs just to keep alive. In the workplace, such needs are expressed in concern about salaries and basic working conditions (e.g. heat, air conditioning and eating facilities). Salaries provide the means of satisfying most, if not all, of these basic needs, as well as other needs. A person deprived of everything would need to satisfy these basic needs first.

Safety and security needs relate to the needs for survival and personal protection. These needs are concerned with self-protection, job security, avoiding harm, stable and non-hostile environments, and provision for the future. In the organisation, concern for safety and security would be reflected in terms of safe working conditions, salary increases, job security, and an acceptable level of fringe benefits, health and safety measures and membership of trade unions to provide collective security.

Social needs are concerned with the need for friendship, affiliation and satisfactory interaction with other people for recreational or work purposes. In the work environment, such needs are manifested by a concern for interacting frequently with fellow employees, employee-centred supervision or leadership, and an acceptance by others.
Esteem needs focus on the need to be shown respect by others for an individual’s accomplishments, and a need to develop a feeling of self-confidence and prestige.

The need for self-actualisation is the highest human need and includes the need to realise individual potential as fully as possible and to achieve all that people are capable of becoming in life. Maslow (1943:370-396) stressed that individual differences are the greatest at this level. He also contended that people tend to satisfy their needs systematically beginning from the lower order needs before moving on to higher order needs. According to Maslow, only one need is usually predominant at any particular time. As soon as this need reaches a high level of satisfaction, its position of pre-eminence is taken by the next (higher) need in the hierarchy. Maslow (1943:370-396) maintained that, only when the lower order needs have been satisfied, the individual would pursue needs that occur higher in the hierarchy. When a need has been satisfied, it ceases to be a motivator, hence motivation results from the promotion of the next higher need in the hierarchy. The hierarchy of needs theory draws attention to the fact that the needs of individual employees have to be identified at all times in order to be able to know how best to motivate them.

Despite its merits, there are certain shortcomings in the hierarchy of needs theory. Since its development, a number of research studies have been carried out on the need hierarchy theory in organisations. Wahha and Bridwell (1976:212-240) reviewed research on the need hierarchy theory and concluded that there was little clear or consistent support for the theory. They also raised doubts about the classification of basic human needs. For instance, according to them, research does not bear out the proposition that needs become less powerful as they are satisfied, except at the very primitive level of primary needs like hunger and thirst.

Scholars have also found that needs do not follow a specific hierarchy, especially after lower level needs are satisfied. This means that, for some individuals, needs may spread over the entire spectrum of Maslow’s hierarchy. People’s
needs do not necessarily follow a sequential pattern as propounded by Maslow. Accordingly, Hall and Nougaim (1968:12-35) did not find strong evidence of a hierarchy in their examination of Maslow’s need hierarchy theory in the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. They insisted that the upward movement of need prominence resulted from upward career changes and not from the satisfaction of lower order needs. It is therefore not possible for the needs of all individuals to fall in the same strict order as postulated by Maslow, as most people reorder the levels of their needs at one or other point of their lives.

Wilcox (1969:53-63) observed that Maslow paid little attention, if any, to the impact of culture in the determination of needs and how they are to be satisfied. In fact, he felt that Maslow was led astray by his assumption that the five basic needs are innate in human beings. Wilcox expressed the view that culture makes a difference. For example, he believed that self-actualisation means different things to different people. In other words, people from different cultural settings are likely to have different need categories and hierarchies.

Also, the correlational study of the need hierarchy theory carried out by Lawler and Suttle (1972:265-287), based on 187 managers in two different organisations, found little support for the existence of a hierarchy of needs. Rather, this study identified two levels of needs instead of five: at the biological level (lower-order need) and the global level (corresponding to higher-order needs).

Moreover, as Invancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace (1977:107) argued, an individual’s needs should not be viewed in a static but rather in a dynamic context. According to them, individual needs are constantly changing due to the various situations in which people find themselves (Invancevich et al. 1977:107). They also disagreed with Maslow’s assertion that only one need at a time can motivate. To them, more than one level of need may be operational at the same time for an individual. A person may be striving to satisfy a self-actualisation need, while simultaneously being concerned with safety needs. It implies that needs must be continually and repeatedly fulfilled if any individual is to be motivated.
A number of scholars also noted that some outcomes or rewards at work satisfy more than one need. This position fits the view of Lawler and Porter (1963:41-49) and is supported by considerable research evidence that shows that some outcomes are relevant to the fulfilment of more than one need. Adequate pay, for example, appears to satisfy not only physiological and safety needs, but also esteem needs.

Pearce and Robinson (1989:456) raised the issue of sufficiency in needs and asserted that individuals will almost never feel that a need is totally satisfied. Most people, they contend, want more money, security, friends, esteem and self-confidence, no matter how much they have achieved. Indeed, they argued that individuals move up the hierarchy not when a need is totally satisfied, but when it is sufficiently satisfied (Pearce & Robinson 1989:456).

Lawler and Porter (1973:34) observed that “which higher-order needs come into play after the lower ones are satisfied and in which order they come into play cannot be predicted. If anything, it seems that most people are simultaneously motivated by several of the same-level needs.”

Self-actualisation is also not easily attainable as human beings rarely ever get to the top of the hierarchy in real life. In addition, it is difficult to predict behaviour using the hierarchy of needs theory.

Maslow’s theory applies to motivation in general and not just in a work environment; it is therefore difficult to put the theory in practice in organisational settings. It is true that needs can be satisfied by aspects of a person’s life outside work. However, since work provides a livelihood and accounts for a substantial part of the satisfaction of a person’s needs, it is important to take account of organisational work life in any theory of motivation.

It is important to emphasise that Maslow himself recognised the limitations of his theory and did not expect that it should command widespread empirical support.
He suggested only that the theory should be considered as a framework for future research (Maslow 1943:370-396).

Although Maslow's theory has done well under actual testing, the theory is a useful framework for the discussion of the human needs people may experience at work and the way in which their motivation can be enhanced. Thus Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory provides a good basis for a further study of the subject of motivation.

2.4.2.2 Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth theory

The existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) theory proposed by Alderfer (1969:142-175) was similarly based on human needs. Like Maslow and Herzberg, Alderfer believed that there is a basic distinction between lower-order and higher-order needs. This theory can also be seen as a reformulation of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Alderfer's ERG theory condenses the Maslowian hierarchy into three need categories: existence, relatedness and growth. In place of Maslow's physiological and safety needs, existence needs in Alderfer's terms relate to different types of material and bodily needs or wants such as hunger, thirst and shelter. In the organisational setting, this manifests in the need for pay, benefits and conducive physical working conditions. This category of needs is comparable to Maslow's physiological and certain of his identified safety needs.

Relatedness needs concern interpersonal relationships with others such as family members, friends, superiors, colleagues, subordinates and so on. The satisfaction of relatedness needs rests on cooperation and the mutual sharing of thoughts and feelings with other people who are important or significant to the employees concerned. The relatedness needs include Maslow's social and esteem categories.

Growth needs refer to those needs that involve people's efforts towards creative or personal growth in their jobs. Growth needs involve the desire to be self-confident, productive and creative. These needs overlap with Maslow's esteem
and self-actualisation needs. Although the ERG concepts draw upon Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, the two theories differ in three important respects.

Firstly, ERG proposes only three needs rather than five needs as in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory. Secondly, the assumption of pre-potency is not fixed in the ERG concept as it is in the Maslowian model. The ERG theory requires very little ordering of categories, as one need does not have to be satisfied before another need is activated or becomes active. Alderfer stressed that when higher-order needs are frustrated, lower-order needs will return even though they had already been satisfied.

Finally, while Alderfer’s ERG theory recognises a frustration-regression process, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory holds that a need level ceases to play an active role once it is satisfied. Alderfer put forward the argument that all needs can be concurrently active. Alderfer’s notion of the frustration-regression process depicts a situation whereby a higher-order need remains unsatisfied or frustrated thus resulting in greater importance being placed on the next lower-order need. In this way, Alderfer maintained that even when a need is satisfied, it may remain the dominant motivator if the next need in the hierarchy cannot be satisfied. Thus, it is possible that a particular need may never cease to be a motivator.

Alderfer’s theory appears more complex than Maslow’s. By putting his needs in a continuum, Alderfer avoided the implication that the higher up the hierarchy a person is, the better. In addition, Alderfer drew attention to chronic needs that are situational and can alter according to the environment. Alderfer also accepted that two or more needs can operate or be active simultaneously – when one need is blocked, a person can find solace in another need. Alderfer added a new dimension to human needs and behaviour, which should be well noted.

A number of studies have been carried out to examine the ERG theory. In general, these studies have found more support for the ERG theory than for Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory. For instance, Wanous and Zwany (1977:78-97) found research evidence that supports the classification of needs into three
categories. Alderfer, Kaplan and Smith (1974:507-532) also found support for Alderfer’s basic proposition that a satisfied need may remain a motivator.

Schneider and Alderfer (1973:489-505) conducted studies to test the ERG theory using samples of students, managers and bank employees. Their studies also generally reported stronger support for the ERG theory than for either Maslow’s postulations or a simple need frustration foundation – that any frustrated need will increase in strength. But the researchers could not establish any connection between needs of different types. They therefore concluded that need satisfaction is perhaps most appropriately conceptualised as a general state of the organism that may be greater than the sum of its parts.

2.4.2.3 Argyris’s immaturity-maturity theory

The immaturity-maturity personality model of Chris Argyris (1957) is specifically directed to the study and analysis of organisational behaviour. Argyris was concerned about the relationship between people’s needs and the needs of the organisation. He postulated that the reason for employee apathy (dissatisfaction) was not because of laziness but due to the fact that they were treated like children. His theory suggests that human beings develop from immaturity to maturity in a continuum in which a number or key changes occur:

- From passivity to increasing activity;
- From dependence on others to relative independence;
- From a few restricted forms of behaviour to many varied ones;
- From shallow to deep interests;
- From short to long-term perspectives;
- From subordinate to equal or superior positions; and
- From lack of awareness of "self" to self-awareness and self-control (Argyris 1957:50).

According to Argyris, the limitations of the society in which a person lives and the limitations of the person’s own basic personality will always prevent the
emergence of a situation where everyone achieves complete and ultimate maturity. Argyris (1957) subsequently applied his immaturity-maturity theory to the organisation and posited that people will have a tendency to grow from immaturity to maturity in their personalities. Figure 2.2 below provides an indication of the continuum of characteristics involved in the immaturity-maturity theory.

The assumption here is that the personalities of organisational members can be generally described by the mature end of the continuum. As such, in order to obtain full expression of employees’ personalities, the formal organisation should provide a work environment in which all employees have a chance to grow and mature as individuals.

Argyris (1957) agreed with other motivation theorists like Maslow, Herzberg and Alderfer that people have strong self-actualisation needs. He pointed out that organisational controls leave employees feeling submissive and dependent. According to him, the greater the disparity between individual needs and the needs of the organisation, the more an employee who is a mature organisational participant is likely to reflect dissatisfaction, apathy, tension or subversion and consequently be in conflict with the organisation.

Figure 2.2: Argyris’s immaturity-maturity characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Immaturity characteristics</th>
<th>Maturity characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passivity</td>
<td>Activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>Independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few ways of behaving</td>
<td>Diverse behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shallow interest</td>
<td>Long time perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short time perspective</td>
<td>Long time perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate position</td>
<td>Subordinate position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self-awareness</td>
<td>Self-awareness and control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Argyris (1957) asserted that people are self-directed and creative at work if they are properly motivated. To enhance motivation, the organisation must offer job challenge and responsibility as well as provide the opportunity for employees to grow while at work. The effective leader or manager, according to Argyris (1957), will help employees move from a state of immaturity towards a state of maturity. If the organisation does not provide opportunities for employees to mature or treat them like mature individuals, anxiety and frustration will set in and this will act inconsistently with the accomplishment of the goals of the organisation.

Argyris (1957) further maintained that if an organisation uses the classical approach to motivation such as Taylor's scientific management and McGregor's theory X, employees' natural development will be stunted or frustrated as they will display childlike behaviour. To counter this, individuals will seek ways of minimising difficulty by, for instance, creating informal groups. When employees are given opportunities to grow and mature in the organisation, they will find their jobs satisfying, which will facilitate the productive use of their potential in achieving organisational goals.

Argyris (1957) also suggested that changes should be made in the organisation to enable the individual to grow and mature. Without taking into account the cost implications, the costs of bringing about changes in an organisation may exceed the benefits. Since people tend to have different maturity requirements and expectations, the implementation of Argyris's approach to motivation also becomes difficult.

However, it is hardly debatable that the conditions described by Argyris do exist in some organisations. Though his position may be regarded as an over generalisation, it does make a point; specifically, it focuses attention on the need to provide meaningful work whenever possible and to organise and manage in such a way that the uniqueness, maturity and sense of responsibility of employees are respected, preserved and developed.
2.4.2.4 McClelland’s achievement motivation theory

David McClelland related motivation directly to business drive and management (cf. McClelland 1962:99-11; McClelland 1963). McClelland saw motives as central to the analysis of human behaviour, since they are the mainsprings of action. McClelland posited that, throughout life, certain stimulus situations become associated with a person’s affective or emotional states. Emotions, according to him, are not motives, although they form the basis for the emergence of motives by providing the force that causes or propels people to action. McClelland was mainly concerned with secondary motives since he believed that primary motives that are physiologically based and not acquired.

McClelland identified four main arousal-based and socially developed motives:

- The achievement motive relates to the need for a challenge, for personal accomplishment and success in competitive situations. It has to do with the drive to excel and to attain a high standard of performance at work.

- The affiliation motive concerns the need for companionship, friendly relations with others or the fulfilment of the need to belonging and to be love. It has to do with the desire to interact socially with people and to be considered well by others.

- The power motive has to do with the desire to dominate, influence and control other people. It entails influence and control of the actions of another person or persons.

- The avoidance motive relates to the desire to avoid harm and unpleasant situations or consequences.

McClelland’s achievement motive and power motive correspond roughly to Maslow’s self-actualisation and esteem needs, while affiliation motive and
avoidance motive also roughly correspond to Maslow’s social and safety needs respectively.

McClelland considered three secondary motives to be of critical importance: the need for achievement, power and affiliation.

McClelland (1962:99-112) believed that the organisation offers an opportunity to satisfy at least three needs of employees, namely the need for power (N-Pow), the need for affiliation (N-Aff) and the need for achievement (N-Ach). McClelland argued that the need for achievement is the key human motive. According to him, the achievement need is the most vital for a country’s economic growth and success as it is linked to entrepreneurial spirit and the development of available national resources.

McClelland (1962:99-112) found that a strong achievement need was related to how well individuals were motivated to perform tasks and that the relative intensity of the need for achievement varies between individuals. Persons with high achievement needs tend to be highly motivated in challenging and competitive work situations. They are not motivated where the work situation is routine and non-competitive. Conversely people with low achievement needs tend to perform poorly in competitive or challenging work situations.

The three motives, the N-Pow, N-Aff and N-Ach are pertinent in considering ways of motivating employees. Employees who are known to place a high premium on the need for power and who are effective speakers, for example, may be motivated when they are assigned responsibility to communicate management policies to other employees. The characteristics of persons who desire power include:

- They show great concern for exercising influence and control over others.
- They are forceful, outspoken, hard-headed and demanding.
- They enjoy teaching and public speaking.
On the other hand, employees with strong affiliation needs may be grouped together to perform similar jobs. The characteristics of people who have a need for affiliation include:

- They derive pleasure from being loved.
- They tend to avoid the pains of being rejected.
- They are likely to be concerned with maintaining pleasant relationships.
- They enjoy intimacy and understanding.

People with strong achievement needs may be motivated if they are given moderately challenging assignments. The characteristics of people who place a high premium on the need for achievement include:

- Their need for achievement is consistent as they have an intense desire for success and a fear of failure.
- They seek tasks in which they can exercise personal responsibility.
- They value concrete feedback results on how well they are doing.
- They are not motivated by money but instead use money as a standard for evaluating their achievement.
- They set moderately difficult goals for themselves.
- They tend to be restless as they are addicted to work.

According to Pettinger (2000:53), the need for achievement is based on a combination of intrinsic motivation – the drives from within the individual – and extrinsic motivation – the drives, pressures and expectations exerted by the organisation, peers and society.
McClelland (1962:99-112) believed that the need for achievement could be strengthened, to some extent, through training. As such, managers might be able to improve their own motivation and performance or that of their subordinates through the use of appropriate training techniques. He concluded that superiors (managers) must try to raise the N-Ach level of their subordinates or employees by permitting them a measure of independence, increasing their responsibility and autonomy, gradually making tasks more challenging for them, and finally praising and rewarding them for excellence in task accomplishment. This, in turn, will lead to the higher achievers being satisfied with their job content and the job environment they work in.

The implications of McClelland’s findings for management practice are mainly twofold. Firstly, it highlights the importance of finding an appropriate match between individuals and the job. Employees who manifest a high achievement need (or who are found to have such a need through personality testing) would probably be considerably underutilised and unmotivated working on routine, non-challenging tasks. On the other hand, employees with low achievement needs would probably not perform well in competitive or very challenging work situations.

Secondly, it shows that managers, to some extent, can raise the achievement need level of subordinates by creating the proper work environment – permitting their subordinates a measure of independence, providing them with tasks that gradually become more challenging, and praising and rewarding high performance.

There is considerable evidence to support McClelland’s claim that a positive relationship exists between high achievement needs and high performance levels. Indeed McClelland (1963) himself found that people who succeeded in competitive occupations were well above average in achievement motivation. For example, he found that successful managers, who presumably operated in one of the most competitive of all environments, had a higher achievement need than other professionals. McClelland even later claimed considerable success in
teaching adults to increase their achievement motivation and, in turn, to improve their work performance.

Similarly, Wainer and Rubin (1969:178-184) found that the performance of organisations with managers who had high achievement need levels was better than the performance of organisations whose managers had lower achievement need levels.

On the negative side, however, it is important to note that the evidence to support McClelland's achievement motivation theory is fragmented and doubtful. Also, contrary to McClelland's claims, it is doubtful if achievement motivation can be readily taught. Moreover, achievement motivation appears to be only a temporarily induced feeling rather than a permanent change in behaviour.

Though studies have shown that people with high achievement needs perform better, especially on important entrepreneurial jobs, this is not the case with high achievers who work in a typical bureaucracy — they may become frustrated by the constraints imposed by delegated responsibility and these constraints, in turn, may cause job dissatisfaction with the attendant consequences of high staff turnover, absenteeism and poor performance.

2.4.3 Process theories of motivation

Process theories of motivation try to analyse the process or manner in which people are motivated. These theorists focus on the question: How are people motivated? This should lead to the determination of the motivational factors of job satisfaction. The process theories that are examined below include Stacey Adams' equity theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Porter and Lawler's expectancy-based theories.

2.4.3.1 Equity theory

A process approach to motivation is the equity theory, also called the social comparison theory. Stacey Adams (1963:422-436) has been associated with the
initial development and testing of the equity theory. The equity theory focuses on people's feelings of how fairly they have been treated in comparison with the treatment received by others. Social relationships involve an exchange process and most exchanges involve a number of inputs and outcomes.

This theory postulates that the degree of equity or inequity that a person perceives in work situations is the major determinant of performance and satisfaction. The degree of equity is defined in terms of a ratio of an individual's inputs (such as pay) as compared with similar ratio for relevant "others".

To Adams, inequity exists whenever people perceive that the ratio of their job outcomes to job inputs, in comparison with the outcomes to inputs ratio of "reference persons", are unequal. According to Adams, the "reference person" may be someone in the individual's group, in another group or even outside the organisation. From Adams's definition, it can be inferred that an inequitable relation occurs not only when the exchange is not in the person's favour, but also when it is to the person's advantage. The feeling of inequity might arise when an individual's ratio of outcomes to inputs is either less or greater than that of other people.

In equity theory, inputs are such aspects as effort, skills, education and task performance that an employee brings to or puts into the job, while outcomes are those rewards that result from task accomplishment: pay, promotion, recognition, achievement and status. Adams (1963:422-436) argued that employees prefer equitable pay to overpayment. When there is an unequal comparison of ratios, the person experiences a sense of inequity. If rewards and effort are not commensurate, motivation reduces.

Though this theory is often seen as a theory of job satisfaction, it is also a theory of motivation because the presence of inequity will motivate an individual to achieve equity or reduce inequity. The strength of the motivation to do so will vary directly with the magnitude of the tension created. Adams (1963:422-436) suggested several possible methods for reducing perceived inequity:
• A person may increase or decrease his/her inputs (for example, by decreasing either the quality or quantity of his/her work).

• A person may increase or decrease his/her outcomes (for example, by asking for a pay rise or giving part of his/her pay to charity).

• A person may change his/her companion or reference group.

• A person may leave the field himself/herself (quitting, seeking transfer or by being absent).

• A person may distort his/her own perceptions. People may distort perceptions of equity if they are unable to change inputs or outcomes (i.e. distort others’ perceived rewards to reduce inequity).

The equity theory states, in effect, that people will be better motivated if they are treated equitably and will be demotivated if they are treated inequitably (Armstrong 2000:118-119). This implies that employees' efforts at work can be sustained and even enhanced when they find that they are equitably treated and, if not, their efforts and morale can decline significantly. The implication of the equity theory for management is that it highlights the need to provide a system of equitable payment and fringe benefits for employees and also to ensure that employees perceive rewards for efforts as fair. Figure 2.3 illustrates the equity theory.
In contrast to the need theories, the emphasis of the equity theory is on group influences and individuals’ perceptions of others. Another distinguishing factor is the fact that, whereas need theories focus on the identification of specific factors in the individual that determine behaviour, equity theory focuses on an understanding of the processes through which behaviour is energised and sustained.

This model is important in enhancing organisational performance because managers are challenged to be fair in the workplace in view of the fact that people who produce less prefer equal compensation for all, while high producers prefer equity. Managers must realise that if rewards are to motivate employees, they must be perceived as being equitable and fair.

Equity theory, like most other motivation theories, has some defects. It is not always easy to clarify the “reference person” on which basis comparison is made. Indeed, a review of studies of equity theory reveals that the reference person is not always clarified. Also, it is usually difficult to generalise equity theory among different occupational levels in various types of organisation (Invancevich et al. 1977:107-109).
The impact of equity theory, as pointed out by Goodman and Abraham (1971:271-288), is limited in work situations because most of the research on the theory have focused on pay as the basic outcome and have ignored other relevant outcomes. Moreover, there is evidence to show that employees may tolerate inequity for some time. For instance, Middlemist and Peterson (1976:335-354) found that employees often seek to establish competitive edges. A competitive edge, according to them, occurs when two or more individuals attempt to outperform the others, say, for their superior's favour, and one employee's performance exceeds the other(s). When these competitive edges are established so that one person's ratio of inputs to outcome is greater than another's in the same workplace, the person with the competitive edge may tolerate the accompanying inequity for a period of time. One of the problems of the equity theory, according to Cosier and Dalton (1983:311-319), as well as Huseman, Hatfield and Miles (1987:222-234), is that people may overestimate their own contributions and the rewards others receive.

Adams's equity formulation considered one situation at a given point in time, but the work by Cosier and Dalton (1983:311-379) indicates that perceptions of inequities may persist over an extended period of time and could account for people reacting strongly over seemingly small inequities.

Despite these problems, the limited research on equity theory has generally been supportive of the theory. For example, the research findings of Goodman and Freedman (1971:271-288) have supported the notion that subjects who are made to feel underpaid decreased their output, while those who are made to feel overpaid increased their output. One of the strengths of equity theory is its inclusion of interpersonal processes, or what Adams himself calls "social comparison".

2.4.3.2 Expectancy theories of motivation

Victor Vroom, as well as Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler offered expectancy-based models of motivation.
• Vroom's expectancy model

Victor Vroom was the first scholar to formulate an expectancy theory aimed specifically at work motivation (Vroom 1964). His model is based on three key variables: valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Hence it is also referred to as the VIE theory. The theory is predicated on the notion that people prefer certain outcomes from their behaviour and that they anticipate feelings of satisfaction should the preferred outcome be achieved. This implies that the theory considers motivation to be dependent upon the strength of a person's desire for a set of goals and the likelihood that the specific type of behaviour will lead to the achievement of the desired goal (Vroom 1964).

According to this theory, motivation is induced essentially because individuals have a goal i.e. higher pay or promotion) and believe that if they perform well (achieve organisational objectives), they will obtain some rewards.

The salient variables in Vroom's expectancy model are force, expectancy, valence, outcome instrumentality and choice. Force is the strength of a person's motivation. The force exerted to accomplish something will depend on both valence and expectancy. Expectancy is the belief that exhibiting a specific behaviour is associated with a particular outcome. It refers to the probability that a particular action will lead to a desired outcome. When a person chooses between alternative behaviours that have uncertain outcomes, the choice is affected not only by the preference for a particular outcome, but also by the probability that such an outcome will be achieved. Expectancy differs from instrumentality in that it relates efforts to first-level outcomes whereas instrumentality relates first and second-level outcomes to each other (Vroom 1964).

Valence means the strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome. It is the value that a person places on an outcome. An outcome or reward is the end product of a particular behaviour. Generally speaking, first-level outcomes refer to some aspect of performance such as work-goal accomplishment and are thought to be the result of the individual's task
performance effort. Second-level outcomes, on the other hand, are viewed as the expected consequences that result from the first-level outcomes such as pay increases or promotion (Vroom 1964).

Instrumentality is the extent to which the individual perceives that effective performance will lead to desired outcomes. The valence of outcomes derives from their instrumentality. This leads to a distinction between first-level outcomes and second-level outcomes. Choice concerns the particular behavioural pattern that the individual decides upon. The individual weighs the consequences and values of each action taken – as a set of outcomes that can be attained by choosing a particular behaviour (Vroom 1964).

To complete the model, Vroom states that expectancy and valence combine multiplicatively to determine force or motivation. The expectancy theory is consistent with the need-satisfaction theories although it starts with the end needs and works backwards to a choice of action by the individual to fulfil them. The levels of motivation identified by Vroom (1964) are illustrated in figure 2.4.

**Figure 2.4: Levels of motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Valence x expectancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High motivation</td>
<td>High valence x high expectancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate motivation</td>
<td>High valence x low expectancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate motivation</td>
<td>Low valence x high expectancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low motivation</td>
<td>Low valence x low expectancy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The summary of Vroom’s (1964) contribution is that motivation is a function of the value (valence) an individual expects (expectancy) to obtain from the performance (instrumentality) of an activity or action. If the value expected is positive, he/she will be motivated to perform. If it is negative, he/she will not be motivated to perform. In depicting this, Vroom (1964:14) states that $MF = V \times E$, i.e. motivational force is equal to the product of valence $x$ expectancy, where force is the strength of an individual preference for an outcome and expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a desired outcome.
• Porter and Lawler's expectancy model

Porter and Lawler (1968) also advanced an expectancy model of motivation. Their model shows the relationship between performance, satisfaction and rewards and underscores the importance of having individuals performing jobs for which they have the skills, abilities and traits. The model also took into consideration the issue of performance measurement as it is necessary for performance to be measured correctly and accurately so that rewards can be distributed equitably. If rewards are not distributed fairly, then expending the necessary effort to do the job will seem senseless to employees. If no meaningful difference is made in rewards between good and poor performers, high performers will lose motivational intensity and probably cut back on their work output. The underlying assumption of the model is that people act on the basis of how they perceive situations.

The model relates motivational intensity to job performance. The extent to which greater efforts yield higher performance depends on the characteristics of the person and what the individual understand the job's duties to be. Motivational intensity also depends on the rewards received. If rewards are received and distributed fairly, satisfaction results. The key variables in this model are expectancy, performance, performance-expectancy loop, rewards and satisfaction-reward preference loop:

• **Expectancy**: Motivational intensity depends on the attractiveness of the reward and the perception that effort will result in reward.

• **Performance**: The accomplishment of goals is successful performance. Effort must combine with the individual's abilities, needs and other personal traits for the job to be well done, thus leading to successful performance.

• **Performance-expectancy loop**: The feedback loop between performance and expectancy and then to effort and again back to performance suggests learning or a history effect.
• **Rewards**: Rewards are preferred outcomes and could be intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. The notion of reward equity is affected by the level of rewards, type of rewards, and the person’s performance. The extent of satisfaction received is related not only to the level and type of rewards but whether the rewards are considered fair.

• **Satisfaction-reward preference loop**: The feedback loop linking satisfaction and reward preference recycles the motivational process. Individuals weigh what has occurred, then establish a level of effort for the future.

![Figure 2.5: A Simplified model of expectancy theory as based on Lawler & Porter (1967)](image)


The assumption of the expectancy theories that perceptions of value vary among individuals at different times and in various places appears to fit real life more accurately. The expectancy theory is consistent with the need-satisfaction approach, although it starts with the end needs and work backwards to a choice of action by the individual to fulfill them. The expectancy theory focuses on individual motivation and its specific aspects, unlike Maslow’s hierarchy of needs that is more general. The expectancy theory highlights the importance of a clear link between performance and outcomes, as well as the need to offer rewards that have a positive value (valence) for employees (Bartol & Martin 1998:400). The expectancy theory has been validated, at least partially, by several studies. For example, Sheridan, Slocum and Byung (1975:119-121) found that employees
with high expectancy perceptions were significantly higher producers than those with low expectancy perceptions.

Despite the universal appeal of this theory, it is difficult to research and apply in practice. The ability of human beings to make choices among levels of work effort in the ways required by the expectancy theory is questionable. Closely related to this problem, given the complexity of the model, is that it is extremely difficult to test all the variables within the expectancy theory framework.

The expectancy theory is rather assumptive because it believes, for instance, that human beings make decisions based on careful mental calculations, whereas people act impulsively most of the time. In this regard, Invancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace (1977:116) indicated that research evidence does not support the notion that individuals mentally perform the complex multiplicative calculations required by the model before effort is exerted. The theory also does not indicate what type of performance is likely to lead to satisfaction, neither does it explain what expected rewards would energise employees (Invancevich et al. 1977:116). In addition, these scholars believe that the theory lacks a time perspective. Critics are concerned that the expectancy theory is normative because it explains how people should behave, not how they will actually behave (Holt 1998:677).

2.4.3.3 Goal-setting theory of motivation

The goal-setting theory is based mainly on the work of Edwin Locke (cf. 1968:157-189). The basic premise of goal-setting theory is that people’s goals play an important role in determining behaviour. The goal-setting theory assumes that people’s behaviour arises out of their conscious goals and intentions. The goal-setting theory links employee behaviour to goal characteristics and goal commitment. In other words, employees will be most motivated by goals with certain characteristics and those to which they are committed.
The implication is that employees will not be motivated if they do not possess and know they do not possess the skills needed to achieve a goal (Locke & Latham 1981:125-152).

The theory posited that it is the goal that an individual is aiming to attain that motivates him/her, rather than the satisfaction of achieving it. A combination of the difficulty of the goal and the degree of the employee's commitment to accomplish the goal in question determines the level of effort expended. This means that people who have difficult goals to which they are committed will perform better than people with easier goals.

The goal-setting theory submits that motivation and performance are higher when employees are set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted, and when there is feedback on performance. The participation of employees in goal-setting is vital as a means of obtaining agreement to the setting of higher goals. There must be agreement concerning difficult goals and their achievement, reinforced by guidance and advice.

Finally, feedback is important in maintaining motivation, particularly towards the achievement of even higher goals. In general, much of the theory of goal-setting can be related to the concept of "management by objectives" (MBO) that is often viewed as the application of goal-setting. However, goal-setting theory preceded management by objectives – which relies for its success on the mutual agreement between superiors and their subordinates on the goals to be set. According to Bartol and Martin (1998:400) goal-setting theory is also compatible with expectancy theory in that it can help to pinpoint the performance levels associated with both the effort-performance expectancy and performance-outcome expectancy.

A number of empirical studies have found a positive relationship between goal-setting and job performance. In this regard, Erez and Zidon (1984:69-78) stressed the need for acceptance of and commitment to goals by employees. They found from their study that, as long as employees agree on goals, demanding goals will lead to better performance than easy ones. The study of
Erez and Zidon (1985:50-66) also shows that motivation and commitment are higher when employees participate in the setting of goals. Erez (1997:624-627) also emphasised the importance of feedback in the relationship between goal-setting and work performance.

The research by Naylor and Ilgen (1984:95-140) indicates that when goals are specific and challenging, they function more effectively as motivators in both individual and group performance. Locke (1975: 457-480) himself subsequently indicated that goal-setting is more appropriately viewed as a motivational technique rather than a formal theory of motivation. However, no matter how it is viewed, the goal-setting theory is a useful approach to motivation and work performance.

2.4.4 The reinforcement theories

Burrhus Frederic Skinner carried out a pioneering investigation into the effect of reinforcement on motivated behaviour. This theory is called the reinforcement theory and is also known as operant conditioning, as well as the behaviour modification approach (Skinner 1953). This theory emphasises that behaviour or motivation is a function of its consequences or rewards. This theory therefore holds that all behaviour is determined to some extent by the rewards or punishments obtained from previous behaviour, which has the effect of reinforcing current actions.

The reinforcement theory has major links with learning theory and is also closely related to Vroom’s preference expectancy theory. Reinforcement theorists submit that reinforced behaviour will be repeated while behaviour that is not reinforced is less likely to be repeated. As such, the consequences of an employee’s behaviour will determine his/her level of motivation. It is thus the view of reinforcement theorists that a high output can be achieved through a system of reward and punishment – behaviour that results in a pleasing outcome (rewarding consequence) is likely to be repeated while behaviour that results in an unpleasant outcome (punishing consequence) is not likely to be repeated.
Reinforcers could therefore be either positive or negative. Positive reinforcers include special favours, rewards, bonuses and compliments. Negative reinforcers include punishment, verbal reprimand, criticism, withdrawal of privileges, and fear generation. Principal areas of concern in applying reinforcement theory to motivational behaviour have to do with both types and schedules of reinforcement. There are four types of reinforcement that can be used to influence the behaviour of employees: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment. There are also two major categories of schedules: continuous and partial schedules.

Employees behave in ways that will ensure that they gain certain rewards. Positive reinforcement is the type of reinforcement that, when presented, increases the probability that a desired behaviour will be repeated by employees. There are two types of positive reinforcers. Primary reinforcers are unlearned and consist of biological satisfiers such as water and food. Secondary reinforcers, which are rewarding because of the individual's past experiences, are reinforcers that have acquired their value through association with other established reinforcers. Secondary reinforcers include praise, promotion, recognition and money.

Punishment is the use of negative or unpleasant consequences to decrease the likelihood for a repeat of undesirable behaviour - such as harsh criticisms, docking pay, demotion and denying privileges. Avoidance learning occurs when employees learn to behave in ways that help them to avoid unpleasant consequences. Extinction refers to the withholding of reward or positive reinforcement for undesired behaviour or previously desirable behaviour so that the behaviour will eventually disappear with continued non-reinforcement. Simply put, extinction is the withdrawal of a positive reward.

Schedules of reinforcement refer to the plan for the administration of reinforcement. They specify, for example, the plan for the timing of payment and other forms of rewards to employees. There are two broad classifications of reinforcement schedules: continuous and partial reinforcement schedules. In a continuous reinforcement schedule, the individual receives a reward every time
he/she exhibits a desired behaviour. In the case of a partial reinforcement schedule, rewards are provided on a somewhat intermittent basis – meaning that only some occurrences of the desired behaviour are reinforced. An intermittent reinforcement schedule results in slower learning, but stronger retention of what is learned. Schedules should be designed to reinforce desired behaviour. It is suggested that positive reinforcers can be freely used while negative reinforcers should be applied with extreme caution. Figure 2.6 provides a diagram of reinforcement flow.

**Figure 2.6: Diagram of reinforcement flow**

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Stimulus (positive reinforcement) → Desired response → Positive consequence → Repeated desirable behaviour
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Some critics have argued that the idea of rewarding or reinforcing performance equals bribery, manipulation and control rather than reinforcement. They charged that the method is used by managers to manipulate an employee to fit in with their concept of the ideal employee. This kind of treatment, according to these critics, is inhuman (cf. Waird 1976:15-20). Schneidner (1974:528-548) pointed out that motivating employees through behaviour modification neglects the importance of intrinsic rewards such as the feelings and challenge of doing a good job through its overemphasis and reliance on extrinsic rewards such as pay and promotion.

The reinforcement theory appears to have oversimplified behaviour by ignoring individual characteristics such as individual needs. Weihrich and Koontz (1994:475) observed that the reinforcement technique “[s]ounds almost too simple to work, and many behavioural scientists and managers are skeptical about its effectiveness.” However, a number of organisations have found the approach beneficial. Perhaps the strength of Skinner's postulations is that it closely approximates the requirements of good management as the approach emphasises the removal of obstructions to performance, careful planning and organising, control through feedback, and the expansion of communication (Weihrich & Koontz 1994:475).
Although Douglas McGregor’s theory is typically regarded as a theory of leadership, it is included in this section because his assumptions about people fundamentally influence motivational strategies. His greatest contribution to the study of working people is precisely his focus on the importance of underlying assumptions about people in directing their behaviour towards co-employees, peers and especially subordinates (Swanepoel et al. 2000:367).

MacGregor’s theory consists of two subsections, which are known as “theory X” and “theory Y”. Relating McGregor’s theory to that of Maslow, it should be apparent that theory X assumes that lower-order needs dominate individuals, whereas theory Y assumes that higher-order needs are mainly dominant in persons. McGregor himself argued for the adoption of theory Y, and therefore proposed ideas such as participative management, responsible and challenging jobs and good group relations as strategies that would optimise employees’ motivational levels. Once again, as is the case with Maslow’s theory, there is little empirical validation of McGregor’s theory, but its singular virtue is that it draws attention to the fact that implicit (and frequently unconscious) assumptions about fellow human beings direct behaviour towards others (Swanepoel et al. 2000:368).

2.5 Special motivation techniques and strategies

Other important aspects of motivation, besides theories, are techniques and strategies of motivation. Employee motivation techniques and strategies refer to practical measures employed in organisations to motivate employees. A number of techniques and strategies are useful in motivating employees for improved performance. Some of these techniques and strategies are discussed below.

2.5.1 The carrot-and-stick approach

This motivation strategy involves the use of rewards and punishment in order to induce the desired behaviour in employees. The “carrot-and-stick” approach to motivation emanated from the old fable that the best way to make a donkey move
is to put a carrot in front of it or jab it with a stick from behind. The carrot symbolises rewards such as money, recognition and promotion. The stick relates to negative consequences or penalty such as the fear associated with losing a job, loss of income, reduction in income, reduction in bonus, forfeiting annual salary increments, demotions and transfers. This strategy seems to be popular in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service where the emphasis is on discipline defined in terms of acceptable standards of behaviour.

2.5.2 Incentives

Incentives are used as a motivational tool to reward employees for increasing their productivity. According to Quible (1996:328), "[t]he more employees are rewarded for increasing their productivity, the more likely they will try to improve their performance." There are monetary and non-monetary incentives. With monetary incentives, money occupies an important position as a motivator. Money can influence action, extra effort or extra creativity. Money is instrumental in the satisfaction of most of the desires or needs of human beings. Monetary incentives consist of salary and wages, bonuses, holiday pay and all other financial benefits accruing to an employee.

Non-monetary incentives refer to a variety of factors that make employees "feel good" when carrying out the tasks assigned to them. It includes social rewards such as praise, recognition and "a pat on the back", which tend to reinforce desired behaviour in employees. Such rewards are effective positive reinforcers with no cost to the organisation. Monetary rather than non-monetary incentives are commonly used in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service mainly because of the high level of poverty in the country.

2.5.3 Management by objectives

Management by objectives can be described as managing by demonstrable, measurable results towards jointly predetermined goals and objectives. It can be simply taken as a process where subordinates and their superiors jointly set goals for the subordinates to work towards and achieve within a given period of
time, after which their performance is appraised and new goals are set for a new period of time. Management by objectives relates all employees in the chain of command to the organisation’s plans and commits them to its implementation. The targets that are set are SMART – specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound. Because both the superior and his/her subordinates jointly set targets, commitment to the achievement of these goals is strengthened (Odiorne 1965:49).

Management by objectives is based on the concepts of goal-setting, self-control and self-evaluation. After setting goals, subordinates are allowed a free hand in discharging their duties, but under the guidance of their superior. In this way, self-control is ensured. The employee feels that he/she is trusted and therefore feels motivated. Many studies have shown that management by objectives has salutary effects as employees were reported to have been motivated to work harder and achieve self-actualisation through the use of this technique (Odiorne 1974:13:21).

One major advantage of management by objectives is that it offers an opportunity to subordinates to discuss their needs and problems with their superior officer and to reach agreement on issues. One of the shortcomings of management by objectives is that it increases pressure for output on the individual employee because of its focus on end results. This drawback has given rise to criticism by trade unions that it is only concerned with how to increase output and less concerned with the welfare of employees. Management by objectives is yet to be widely accepted in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service because of what has been described as the qualitative nature of the work of the service, which makes quantification inappropriate.

2.5.4 Employee participation

The concept of employee participation refers, in general terms, “to the participation of non-managerial employees in the decision-making processes of the organisation” (Cole 2002:451). Employees are motivated by their involvement in decision-making. As Quible (1996:19) put it, “[t]he recognition
employees receive from the participation process has a positive impact on their motivation.” Participation is an important means of recognition. It appeals to the need for affiliation and acceptance. Above all, it gives a sense of accomplishment to the individual. According to Weihrich and Koontz (1994:478), people are virtually always motivated by being consulted on action affecting them.

Employee participation is a motivational technique that gives people an opportunity to take part in the making of decisions that directly affect them and their work. Kreitner (1995:414) identified four key areas of participative management that employees may be involved in as setting goals, making decisions, solving problems, as well as designing and implementing organisational changes. In Nigeria, the participation of subordinates in decision-making in the civil service is limited, especially given that only a few top civil servants are usually involved in decision making processes to the exclusion of the majority. This implies that employee participation, as a motivational technique, is yet to gain acceptance in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

2.5.5 Employee empowerment

The latest trend in motivation is empowerment, which entails the delegation of power or authority to subordinates in an organisation (Hollander & Offermann 1990:179-189). Empowerment, as conceptualised by Imhanlahimhin (2001:2), is “the equipping and strengthening of the capacity of employees in order to perform their assigned functions much more satisfactorily in the tripartite interest of the organisation, themselves and the larger society or market.” Empowering employees implies giving them four elements that enable them to act more freely to accomplish their jobs: information, knowledge, power and rewards (Bowen & Lawler 1992:31-39; Coye & Belohav 1995:4-17).

According to Conger and Kanungo (1988:471-482), motivation for task accomplishment is enhanced when employee power is increased as people improve their own effectiveness, choosing how to do a task and using their creativity. This technique is still unpopular in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.
Indeed, empowerment of subordinates is one major problem area of concern in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

2.5.6 Job enrichment

Job enrichment is a motivational technique that focuses on motivating employees through their jobs. Job enrichment involves "redesigning a job to increase its motivational potential" (Cunningham & Eberle 1990:56-61). Job enrichment seeks to reverse the trend towards greater specialisation by emphasising the importance of making the job challenging and meaningful. According to Daft (1997:545), in an enriched job, employees have control over the resources necessary for performing it, make decisions on how to do the work, experience personal growth and set their own work pace.

In job enrichment, the effort is thus made to include a higher sense of challenge, importance and achievement into jobs. The motivational effect of job enrichment comes mainly from the opportunities this provides to employees to experience challenge, recognition, personal achievement and job growth. This is consistent with Herzberg's theory of motivation, which sees job content factors like challenge, achievement, recognition and responsibility as the real motivators. Upgrading the five core dimensions of work can enrich a job: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and job feedback (cf. Hackman & Oldham 1976:250-279).

Another variant of job enrichment is job enlargement. However, job enrichment and job enlargement are different from each other. Unlike job enlargement that merely involves the horizontal extension of the job by combining a variety of simple tasks without actual increases in responsibility and control, job enrichment denotes the horizontal extension of the job by building more complexity and depth into jobs through the addition of increased responsibility, autonomy and challenge.

Job enrichment provides an opportunity for an employee to grow psychologically, while job enlargement merely makes a job structurally bigger (Cole 2001:113). A
job enlargement strategy would combine a series of tasks into one new, broader job that is more challenging and interesting. Job enlargement therefore provides greater job variety and an increased challenge for most employees, but it has relatively little impact on improving employee productivity.

2.5.7 Quality control circles

Quality control circles — also simply called quality circles — are small, voluntary problem-solving groups of employees who perform similar or related work and who meet regularly to identify, analyse and solve work-related problems particularly concerning quality improvement and ways of reducing costs. By relying on voluntary participation, quality circles attempt to tap the creative potential inherent in every employee. Although quality circles do not work in every situation, researchers have reported benefits such as direct cost savings, improved employee-management relations, and greater individual commitment (e.g. Marks et al. 1986:61-69; Adams 1991:25-39). According to Shipper (1981:12), "[t]he invisible force behind the success of QC's is its ability to bring the psychological principle of Maslow, McGregor, and Herzberg into the workplace through a structured process." Furthermore, quality control circles are said to foster employee participation within the confines of the existing power structure. Although quality control is currently emphasised in the Nigerian private sector, it is yet to gain currency in public institutions like the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

2.5.8 Quality of work life

The quality of work life theory is based on a systems approach to job design and enrichment that seeks to make jobs more interesting and challenging (Weihrich & Koontz 1994:478). The quality of work life concept impacts on the following elements of an employee's position: working conditions, economic rewards and benefits, interpersonal relations and a variety of organisational contributions. The outcome of the quality of work life technique is the improvement of employees' attitudes and morale, which will impact positively on their productivity. When their quality of work life is improved, employees have more positive feelings toward
their jobs and the organisation for which they work (Quible 1996:326). Some of the strategies used to improve the quality of employee work life are management by objectives, job enrichment and employee participation. This motivational strategy is largely neglected in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

2.5.9 Sabbaticals

A sabbatical refers to a motivational strategy used by organisations to give selected long-serving employees paid leave of between three months and two years duration after a certain number of years of service. This allows these employees time to attend to personal matters such as family, recreation and travel. The purpose is to refresh long-term employees and hopefully bolster their morale, motivation and loyalty in the process (Kreitner 1995:425).

2.6 The concept job performance and a model of performance

The essence of motivation is to affect employees' behaviour positively to bring about improved job performance. As such, it is imperative to consider the concept of job performance as well as a model of performance. Figure 2.7 shows how motivation affects performance through a change in behaviour.

Figure 2.7: How motivation affects performance through a change in behaviour

| Motivation | → | Behaviour | → | Performance |

2.6.1 The concept of job performance

It is necessary to conceptualise job performance in order to be able to know how to facilitate it positively. As Armstrong (2000:430) noted, "it is important to clarify what [performance] means because if performance cannot be defined you cannot measure or manage it." The term job performance can be simply defined as the execution of a work-related task(s). It expresses the level at which employees
carry out their assigned tasks. The concept of “high level of performance” is used to describe the work output of staff who discharge their duties satisfactorily whereas a low level of performance depicts unsatisfactory work output.

Wright and Noe (1996:290) defined job performance as “behaviours that are relevant to the organisation’s goals and can be measured in terms of each individual’s proficiency or level of contribution.” These scholars admitted that their conception of job performance describes what people do (behaviours), not the results of those actions.

However, Brumbach (1988:387-402) advanced a more comprehensive view of performance embracing both behaviour and outcomes or results:

“Performance means both behaviour and results. Behaviours emanate from the performer and transform performance from abstraction to action. Not just the instruments for results, behaviours are also outcomes in their own right – the product of mental and physical effort applied to tasks and can be judged apart from results.”

No matter how job performance is conceived, it obviously involves the determination of how well employees carry out or execute their assigned duties or tasks. Employee performance is a function of both motivation and ability. This implies that, although an individual may be highly motivated, this motivation alone does not automatically bring about better performance, unless the staff member also possesses the ability to perform the assigned duties. On the other hand, no matter how high the ability of an employee, if he/she is not well motivated, his/her performance will be similarly low. The implication of this is that a task can only be carried out successfully when the employee concerned has the ability to execute it. According to Wright and Noe (1996:290), it is logical, even obvious that a person with greater abilities will perform better than someone with lesser abilities. Indeed, to them, even physical abilities are important for many kinds of job performance.
The concept of performance is quite encompassing. In the words of Oshienobo (1999:41): "performance is a multidimensional phenomenon whose elements include effectiveness, efficiency, economy, productivity and quality." Each of these identified elements will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.6.1.1 Effectiveness

Effectiveness concerns the extent to which the individual employee achieves the work output expected of him/her, with the emphasis on "what" was achieved not necessarily on "how" it was achieved. An employee is therefore deemed effective if the results he/she obtained are identical with those intended or expected. Effectiveness thus measures the ratio of actual output or results to targeted (expected) output or results. The higher the ratio, the greater the degree of effectiveness of the individual employee in question. In other words, effectiveness refers to the level of attainment or realisation of goals and objectives. It determines whether the stated outputs or objectives are realised or not. In assessing effectiveness, actual results or achievement are compared to targeted or planned achievement usually within a specified period of time.

2.6.1.2 Efficiency

Efficiency is not synonymous with effectiveness. An effective employee is not necessarily an efficient one. Efficiency denotes the ratio of inputs invested to output obtained. Efficiency measures how well resources are being used to produce a given output during a specified time period. Basically, the concept compares actual achievement with the cost of attaining it during a given period. In this sense, efficiency concerns the maximisation or optimisation of outputs from an outlay of inputs or resources. Everything being equal, the higher the ratio of actual achievement to cost, the greater the degree of efficiency in the production process. Therefore, an efficient employee is one who achieves high output with minimum input. In short, efficiency means lower costs in terms of resources or inputs and maximum output in terms of accomplishments or results. Thus, efficiency is closer to economy in meaning. However, the concept of efficiency is more relativistic.
2.6.1.3 Economy

The term economy refers to the actual cost of achieving a given output as compared to the least possible cost of achieving it during a given timeframe. An output has been produced economically if its cost is as close as possible to the lowest possible cost of achieving that level of output with quality being constant. In other words, a target has been met economically if the appropriate quantity and quality are attained at the lowest cost possible. Thus, economy may be measured by the ratio of actual cost to the least possible cost of achieving a result.

2.6.1.4 Productivity

The concepts productivity and efficiency are closely related to each other. Indeed, some scholars appear to believe that the two terms mean the same thing. One such scholar who holds this view is Oshienobo (1999:13) who said: "productivity is the efficiency ... of production." However, some other scholars distinguish between the two terms. To Armstrong (2000:27), for instance, productivity relates to the output from one particular factor of production while the term efficiency concerns the output from total inputs. This distinction is salient because it is the output from the labour input (human resources) that is of paramount concern in this study. It is in this context that Armstrong (2000:336) declared: "Fundamentally, productivity represents the output of goods and services that can be obtained from a given input of employees." Productivity was defined by Weihrich and Koontz (1994:11-12) as "the output – input ratio within a time period with due consideration for quality." They further posited that productivity implies effectiveness and efficiency in individual and organisational performance. According to them, effectiveness is the achievement of objectives while efficiency is the achievement of the ends with the least amount of resources.
2.6.1.5 Quality

Quality can be defined "as those characteristics of a product or service that affect its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs. In general terms, quality means error-free, totally reliable products or services" (Burton & Thakur 1995:471). Thus, the term quality is used to denote the desired characteristics of the achieved result or output.

Depending on the situation, the desirable characteristics could include reliability, accuracy, timeliness, convenience, or accessibility. It is therefore often not sufficient for a product or service to be available, but rather that the product or service of high quality should be available as and when needed for best results and maximum satisfaction. Since the concept of performance encompasses all these elements (as discussed earlier), it should therefore be obvious that this concept is broad, all embracing and not easily amenable to measurement. This is not to say, however, that performance is not quantifiable or measurable. What this indicates is that it would be best to use a composite index in its measurement.

2.6.2 Model of work performance

The work performance of an employee is generally determined by three factors: motivation (the desire to do the job), ability (the capability to do the job), and the work environment (the work conditions and resources needed to do the job). Vroom (1964) proposed a model of work motivation. This model shows that performance is dependent upon motivation, as well as upon employees' ability and environmental conditions. This relationship is represented as an equation:

\[ P = f (M, A, \text{ and } E) \]

Performance is a function of motivation, ability and environment, where
\[ P = \text{Performance; } M = \text{Motivation; } A = \text{Ability; and } E = \text{Environment} \]

Motivation refers to those factors that energise, channel and sustain employee work behaviour. Motivation releases human energy to enhance performance.
Given a certain level of ability, improvement in performance can be achieved through increasing the level of motivation.

Abilities have a direct impact on performance. Ability is the quality that makes an action possible (Armstrong 2000:94). It refers to the knowledge, experience and skills of the individual employee. These may result from education and training that are relevant to a specific task. The higher the ability of the employee, the higher the probability of successful performance, other factors remaining constant or equal.

Environment is the physical, organisational and social context in which the work takes place (cf. Akpekpe 2000:1-20). It consists of the physical environment, organisational conditions, organisational support and the character of the job itself:

- Physical environment refers to heat, noise, dust and other conditions in which the work is done. It also includes the availability of basic infrastructure such as water, electricity and telephones. Where the physical conditions are unsuitable, performance is adversely affected.

- Organisational conditions refer to the conditions that are subject to the control of management. Among these are role clarity and role conflict. Role clarity is the extent to which the employee understands and accepts the requirement of the job – what to do, when to do it and how to do it. The objectives of the job should be understood and accepted by the employee. Role conflict refers to situations where the expectations of the individual employee and those of other relevant persons, particularly those in positions of authority over him/her, do not concur.

- Organisational support includes adequate budget, equipment and materials and also affects the performance of employees.
• The characteristics of the job itself also have an impact on performance. The core job dimensions are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These define the job scope, which may either be high or low. When the job scope is high, the outcomes are high internal work motivation, high quality of work, high satisfaction, low absenteeism and low turnover. This is because the work is perceived to have a high level of meaningfulness, responsibility and feedback. On the other hand, where the job scope is low, these elements are absent. Employees whose capability match the job conditions would perform well while those whose capabilities do not match the job condition are likely to perform poorly.

2.7 Summary

This chapter aimed to provide an integration of those variables that influence the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction. This was achieved through an in-depth study of the available literature on the concept and theories of motivation and the motivational strategies and techniques that are employed to ensure employee motivation and job satisfaction.

The meaning and rationale for work were explored as the background against which motivation and job satisfaction was examined. The reasons why people work were considered as these often provide information about what motivates people to work better. This section of the chapter established a clear linkage between work, motivation and job satisfaction.

The concept of motivation was considered next. Motivation is widely seen as that which makes people want to work, rather than that which forces them to work. Motivation is also considered to be a necessary ingredient in the process of higher levels of productivity and increased performance. Motive, which is an essential part of motivation, is born from a specific need that an individual wants or needs to satisfy, whether consciously or subconsciously. Several scholars see motivation as something that drives behaviour in a sustainable manner towards the attainment of some identified objective or goal. Motivation can be driven by
either positive or negative forces, but it remains a highly individual characteristic that is consequently difficult to achieve within organisational settings. What has been established is that motivation stems from intrinsic factors, rather than from extrinsic factors.

Following from the exploration of the concept motivation, several theories of motivation were considered in this chapter. The focus fell on four broad categories of theories: early ideas on motivation, content theories of motivation, process theories of motivation and reinforcement theories of motivation.

The early ideas on motivation included the scientific management approach and the human relations approach to motivation. One of the studies that were consulted was that by Taylor (1911). Although Taylor considered money to be the prime motivator of employees, this has been refuted by studies that showed that employee motivation goes beyond money. Taylor’s views assumed a totally economic-instrumental orientation towards work, and took no account of other influences on behaviour at work. His scientific management approach also did not pay adequate attention to the role of the human factor in productivity improvement. Some of his techniques showed mechanistic approaches – for instance, the careful application of time and motion studies. Even though these techniques are no longer regarded as appropriate, many of them still form part of the control procedures of some organisations. However, Taylor was a trailblazer in developing and analysing work methods in a scientific manner. One of the main contributions made by the scientific management approach was that it emphasised the importance of planning and the concept of control in management.

The study of the human relations approach to motivation has shown that it too had certain drawbacks. The positive attitude of employees is clearly a multidimensional variable that is impossible to explain in the simplistic terms of the human relations model. The approach oversimplified motivation by mainly focusing on just one factor – social relations. It also de-emphasised the use of material incentives to obtain compliance with organisational goals.
The human relations approach emphasised the social needs of employees while it accommodated the basic tenets of the work itself unchanged. The human relations orientation thus resulted in work becoming more tolerable while subsequently reducing employee dissatisfaction, but it did little to provide motivation or to satisfy higher-order needs, such as those for challenge and self-actualisation on the job.

The content theories of motivation that were examined in this chapter were Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth theory, Argyris's immaturity-maturity theory and McClelland's achievement motivation theory. The study of Maslow's hierarchy of needs found that it had certain shortcomings. Research did not bear out the classification of needs in a hierarchy, as all needs did not become less powerful once they were satisfied. For some individuals, needs also appeared across the spectrum of those identified in Maslow's hierarchy. Some scholars also criticised the fact that Maslow paid little attention to the impact of culture on the determination of needs. For example, it was found that self-actualisation differed significantly between people from different cultural backgrounds. Maslow's theory also fell short as it viewed needs in a static rather than dynamic context, while rewards could often satisfy more than one need at a time. However, Maslow's theory did provide a good basis for the study of motivation.

Alderfer's resistance, relatedness and growth theory was found to be more complex than Maslow's hierarchy of needs. He put these needs in a continuum and distinguished between chronic needs that were defined by a specific situation and could therefore alter when the environment changed. There was generally more support for Alderfer's theory in subsequent studies by other scholars, but they failed to find a suitable connection between the three different kinds of needs.

Argyris's immaturity-maturity theory was specifically directed at the study of organisational behaviour. His concern lay with the relationship between people's needs and the needs of an organisation. He postulated that employee behaviour was directly linked to the way in which they were treated by the organisation.
Although Argyris described this phenomenon in simplistic terms, there is no doubt that the conditions he described still exist in some organisations, where people are treated as if they are extremely immature. Argyris successfully focused the attention on the need to provide meaningful work whenever possible and to organise and manage in such a way that the uniqueness, maturity and sense of responsibility of employees are respected, preserved and developed.

The achievement motivation theory of McClelland was also examined. The implications of McClelland's findings for management practice are that it highlights the importance of finding an appropriate match between individuals and the job. Employees who manifest a high achievement need would probably be underutilised and unmotivated working on routine, non-challenging tasks, while those with low achievement needs would not perform well in competitive or very challenging work situations. However, the evidence to support McClelland's achievement motivation theory is fragmented and doubtful. Contrary to McClelland's claims, it is doubtful whether achievement motivation can be taught. It also appears to result only in a temporarily induced feeling rather than a permanent change in behaviour.

The next section of the chapter considered four process theories of motivation: equity theory, expectancy theories, goal-setting theory and reinforcement theories. Equity theory focuses on people's perceptions of fair treatment in comparison with others. Like most motivation theories, equity theory showed some defects. A review of studies of equity theory revealed that the reference person is not always clarified, and that it is difficult to generalise equity theory among different occupational levels in various types of organisation. The impact of equity theory is also limited in work situations because most of the research focused on pay as the basic outcome while ignoring other relevant outcomes. Evidence showed that employees may tolerate inequity for some time through the establishment of competitive edges, which occur when two or more individuals outperform the others. When these competitive edges are established, the person with the competitive edge may tolerate inequity for some time. Another problem with the equity theory is that people may overestimate their own contributions and the rewards others receive. Despite these problems, the
research on equity theory generally supported the theory. For example, some findings supported the notion that employees who feel underpaid decreased their output, while those who feel overpaid increased their output. One of the strengths of equity theory is its inclusion of interpersonal processes.

The expectancy theories of motivation discussed in this chapter included the models developed by Vroom, and Porter and Lawler. Vroom’s expectancy theory is consistent with the need-satisfaction theories even though it starts with the end needs and works backwards to a choice of action by the individual to fulfil them. Vroom saw motivation as a function of the value (valence) an individual expects (expectancy) to obtain from the performance (instrumentality) of an activity or action. If the value expected is positive, individuals will be motivated to perform, and if it is negative, they will not be motivated to perform. Porter and Lawler related performance, satisfaction and rewards and underscored the necessity to match individual skills, abilities and traits to job requirements. Expectancy theories focused on individual motivation and its specific aspects, unlike Maslow’s hierarchy of needs that is more general. They highlighted the importance of a clear link between performance and outcomes, as well as the need to offer rewards that have a positive value (valence) for employees. Expectancy theories were validated, at least partially, by several studies. Despite their universal appeal, it is difficult to research and apply these theories in practice. The ability of human beings to make choices based on careful mental calculations between different levels of work effort in the ways required by the theory is questionable. It is also extremely difficult to test all the variables within the expectancy theory framework. The theory also does not indicate what type of performance is likely to lead to satisfaction, neither does it explain what expected rewards would energise employees. In addition, the theory lacks a time perspective. Critics are also concerned that the expectancy theory is normative because it explains how people should behave, not how they will actually behave.

The goal-setting theory of motivation was considered. The basic premise was that people’s goals play a significant part in their behaviour. Research found that when goals are specific and challenging, such goals function more effectively as motivators both for individual and group performance. However, even Locke, the
theorist who put this forward, later indicated that goal-setting was more a motivational technique than a theory.

A study of reinforcement theories focused on Skinner's investigation into the effect of reinforcement on motivated behaviour. This theory appears to have oversimplified behaviour by ignoring individual characteristics such as individual needs, even though some organisations have found the approach beneficial. The strength of Skinner's postulations might be that it closely approximates the requirements of good management as the approach emphasises the removal of obstructions to performance, careful planning and organising, control through feedback, and the expansion of communication.

Some motivational techniques and strategies were explored: the carrot-and-stick approach, incentives, management by objectives, employee participation, employee empowerment, job enrichment, quality control circles, quality of work life and sabbaticals. The concept job performance was examined and a model of performance was presented. Job performance was found to be characterised by effectiveness, efficiency, economy, productivity and quality. The model of job performance proposed that performance is a function of motivation, ability and environment.

The results of the literature study presented in this chapter lead to the exploration of Herzberg's dual-factor theory of motivation, which will be presented in the next chapter. Herzberg's theory will be explored in terms of the variables that are seen to influence job satisfaction. The findings of the next chapter will form the basis for the survey that was conducted as part of this study.
CHAPTER THREE

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF HERZBERG’S DUAL-FACTOR THEORY OF JOB SATISFACTION AS A DETERMINANT OF MOTIVATION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to fulfil the study objective to provide:

- A historical overview of Herzberg's dual-factor theory and an explanation of the concept "job satisfaction" as a determinant of motivation through an exploration of available literature in order to provide an exposition of the rationale of Herzberg's dual-factor theory.

The purpose of this chapter is therefore to compile a systematic exploration of the conceptual knowledge about the subject of job satisfaction as a determinant of motivation.

In the first instance, definitions of the concept job satisfaction are explored. By using the available literature, job satisfaction is placed within historical perspective by referring to the findings of studies undertaken at specific times by different scholars. From this, some generalised approaches to job satisfaction are identified and discussed.

Determinants of job satisfaction are subsequently examined. The focus is particularly on job content, supervision and promotional opportunities. The linkages between job satisfaction and job behaviour are identified in relation to the following factors: productivity, and absenteeism and staff turnover.

Against the background provided by the above, Herzberg's dual-factor theory is explored. Ten distinct factors in job satisfaction are discussed: intrinsic aspects of
the job, supervision, working conditions, wages, opportunity for advancement, security, company and management, social aspects of the job, communication and benefits. The findings of follow-up studies undertaken by Herzberg and other scholars are also recorded. The findings of this chapter form the background against which the survey was conducted among selected employees of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service (see chapters four and five).

3.2 Definition of job satisfaction

Brayfield and Crockett (1955:417) stated in a survey that the lack of adequate definitions of terms has become the most difficult problem in the study of job satisfaction, and, as a consequence, they did not attempt to define terms such as job satisfaction, morals, motivation, or attitudes in their survey. They found it necessary, instead, to assume that the measurement used in the different investigations defined the variables involved. They further stated that definitions are conspicuous in their absence in most current work in this field (Brayfield & Crockett 1955:417).

Katz and Kahn (1966:370) defined job satisfaction as an overall liking for the job situation, as well as intrinsic job satisfaction deriving from the content of the work process.

Vroom (1964:99-100) suggested a more lengthy definition of job satisfaction and argued that the terms “job satisfaction” and “job attitudes” are typically used interchangeably. Both refer to the effective orientation individuals towards work roles that they are presently occupying. He also stated that positive attitudes towards a job are conceptually equivalent to job satisfaction, and negative attitudes are equivalent to job dissatisfaction.

Vroom (1964:121) further expanded on his definition and stated that a variety of meanings had been assigned to the term “morale”, some of which corresponded quite closely to the concepts of attitude, satisfaction and motivation. He quoted other scholars as defining job morale as an individual’s “mental attitude toward all
features of his work and toward all of the people with whom he works" (Vroom 1964:121). Vroom subsequently defined morale as the extent to which the individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his/her total job situation. He also defined motivation as a process governing choices made by individuals among alternative forms of voluntary activity.

Even though their book is called The motivation to work, Herzberg et al. (1959) did not explicitly define motivation. Rather, they implicitly defined motivation in the same terms that Vroom used to explain job attitudes and job satisfaction as the effective orientation of individuals towards work roles.

Recognising the wide variety of definitions proposed by the many scholars writing in this field, perhaps Blum and Naylor's (1967:369) seems the best:

"an individual's attitude or feeling about some aspect of his job where satisfaction is indicated by high scores, or a high frequency of endorsements of statements pertaining to that aspect of the job. Dissatisfaction is indicated by low scores on statements pertaining to that aspect of the job."

3.3 Historical perspective of job satisfaction

According to Vroom (1964:156), Kornhauser and Sharp (1932:393-401) were probably the first formally to recognise job satisfaction as a separate area of research worthy of investigation in its own right.

Kornhauser and Sharp's (1932) classic study, which related attitudes and performance in an industrial setting, was conducted in 1930 in a mill operated by Kimberly-Clark Corporation in Neenah, Wisconsin. Between 200 and 300 young women were studied who fulfilled routine repetitive jobs at machines. Data was collected through survey questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires covered a range of specific attitudes towards supervisors, the repetitiveness and
speed of work, the company's personnel policies and wages. Scores were computed for groups of items, and item responses were analysed.

The finding on the relationship between attitudes and performance is summarised in the statement that efficiency ratings of employees showed no relationship to their attitudes (Kornhauser & Sharp 1932:393-401).

The authors also found that, in a group of 20 women for whom they had comparable output records, three of the four with the most unfavourable attitudes were first, second and fourth in production, and the two most favourable were near the bottom in production (Kornhauser & Sharp 1932:393-401).

Hoppock (1935) published a significant monograph in 1935 on job satisfaction. The research covered 500 teachers from 51 urban and rural communities in the north-eastern United States and used both interview and questionnaire techniques. Hoppock's basic thesis was that job satisfaction could be determined by evaluating the job as a whole, or by assessing the different aspects of the job.

Hoppock's (1935) own preferences were for the overall measurement of job satisfaction, which he felt would not equate with the summation of satisfaction from the various aspects of the job.

Hoppock's questionnaire consisted of four items each with seven choices. The four items asked how individuals liked their jobs, how much of the time they felt satisfied with their jobs, how they felt about changing their jobs, and how they felt they compared with other people in relation to satisfaction with their jobs. By combining scores from these four items, a measure of job satisfaction was obtained.

Of the original group of 500 teachers, the 100 most satisfied and the 100 least satisfied were asked an additional 200 questions. A comparison of their answers differentiated the satisfied from the dissatisfied teachers in the following areas (Hoppock 1935:95):
The satisfied showed less indications of emotional maladjustment.
The satisfied were more religious.
The satisfied enjoyed better human relationships with superiors and associates.
The satisfied were teaching in cities with a population of more than 10,000.
The satisfied felt more successful.
Family influence and social status were favourable among the satisfied.
The satisfied "selected" their vocations.
Monotony and fatigue were reported more frequently by the dissatisfied.
The satisfied were 7.5 years older on average.

One interesting finding was that there were no significant differences in the average earnings between the two groups.

One brief comment is necessary about this survey. No attempt was made to measure the proficiency of the teachers. Therefore, it is not known whether those who were dissatisfied were less "good" than the satisfied group. In the epilogue to his study, Hoppock (1935:204) proposed the following major components of job satisfaction:

- The way individuals react to unpleasant situations;
- The facility with which they adjust to other persons;
- Their relative status in the social and economic group they identify themselves with;
- The nature of the work in relation to the abilities, interests and preparation of employees;
- Security; and
- Loyalty.

Watson (1939) participated in several studies in which he examined the role of salary as a factor in job satisfaction. Seidman and Watson (1940:117-120) conducted a similar study using essentially the same technique – only with the sampling population restricted to young men. These results provided further
evidence that recognition, friendly associations, work fitted to vocational level, and a variety of duties are more important contributing factors in job satisfaction than salary. Figure 3.1 provides a summary and comparison between the study undertaken in 1939 and the one undertaken in 1940 (Seidman & Watson 1940:118).

**Figure 3.1: Reasons why employees preferred one job rather than another**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Watson study</th>
<th>Seidman-Watson study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men (%)</td>
<td>Women (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congenial work in conditions and social contacts</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility, initiative, prestige</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In line with vocational aspirations</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shorter hours</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The literature on job satisfaction has increased greatly since Hoppock’s early study. Since the publication by Herzberg et al. (1957) of the dual-factor theory, the number of studies on this subject has further mushroomed.

In comparing the impact of these early writings on this study, a number of observations can be made. All of these early studies indicated that it was feasible to use a quantitative methodology in analysing job satisfaction. Only Hoppock (1935) considered intrinsic job factor variables. However, all of the studies indicated that extrinsic job factors concerned with interpersonal relationships were important to job satisfaction. Furthermore, these studies all considered job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as the two extremes of a single bi-polar model.
3.4 Generalised approaches to job satisfaction

Blum and Naylor (1967:384) stated that job satisfaction could be measured in one of two ways. One method is to investigate factors specific to the job and the resulting attitudes. The other, which in their opinion is much more comprehensive in its approach, includes the overall factors that contribute to job satisfaction. Their argument was that job satisfaction is a generalised attitude resulting from many specific attitudes in three areas: specific job factors, individual adjustments and group relationships.

Studies that used a generalised approach are discussed below. Unfortunately, there has been little standardisation of job satisfaction measures. Most investigators “tailor-make” an instrument for the particular population they are studying. This practice greatly restricts the evaluation of other studies either based on a general agreed norm or in comparison to one another.

The widely cited “tear ballot for industry” was proposed by Kerr in 1948 and utilised by him for a study of job satisfaction among 98 wage earners (Kerr 1948:275-281). It is in the form of a questionnaire with 10 items, each consisting of five points, which are answered anonymously by making a tear at one of the five points. These items are concerned with such areas as attitudes towards supervision, working conditions, co-employees, income, security and the company in general. Kerr reported a significant correlation between the “job satisfaction” scores and their self-reported tenure (number of years in the labour market divided by number of employers). In a subsequent study of construction employees, Van Zelst (1951) found a positive and significant correlation between the interpersonal desirability of rank-and-file employees as measured by the Kerr tear ballot for industry technique and job satisfaction (Van Zelst 1951:405-412).

Weitz (1952:201-205), in an article in Personnel Psychology, raised the interesting point that a measure of general satisfaction of an individual should be taken in relation to the individual’s job satisfaction. He offered a number of hypotheses: those who have high general dissatisfaction scores and a large
number of job dissatisfactions are less likely to quit than those who have low
general dissatisfaction scores and a small number of job dissatisfactions.

In a monograph published in 1967, Schaffer hypothesised:

"overall satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those
needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually
satisfied: the stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction
depend on its fulfilment."

Schaffer investigated 12 needs, using as his sample 72 employed men, most of
whom were in the professional occupational groups. He found two distinct
categories. One contained needs that were passive or hostility restraining in
nature. The other contained assertive, aggressive needs. A high correlation
existed between the two strongest needs and overall satisfaction. Among the
strongest needs reported in this sample were creativity, challenge, mastery,
achievement and helping others (Schaffer 1967).

The early studies conducted by the Survey Research Center of the University of
Michigan (Katz, Maccoby & Morse 1951; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin & Floor 1951;
Morse 1953) used four dimensions of morale: intrinsic job satisfactions, company
involvement, financial and job status satisfaction, and pride in group
performance.

Blum and Naylor (1967:380) took exception to the fact that the early studies by
the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan appeared to consider
job satisfaction and morale as interchangeable concepts. They argued that job
satisfaction is the result of the various attitudes of individuals towards their jobs,
related factors and life in general. They further defined morale as the composite
expression of the attitudes of various individuals employed by a company.

In the Morse study (1953), a total of 580 clerical employees in the home office of
a large insurance company were intensively interviewed. Intrinsic job satisfaction
was measured by an index that summarised the answers to four questions:
• How well do you like the sort of work you are doing?
• Does your job give you a chance to do the things you feel you do best?
• Do you get any feeling of accomplishment from the work you are doing?
• How do you feel about your work; does it rate as an important job to you?

In this study, employees were grouped into four classes on the basis of job level: high-level technical, semi-supervisory, varied clerical and repetitious clerical. In the high-level group, only 7% of the respondents fell into the category of low intrinsic job satisfaction compared with 41% of the group doing repetitive clerical work (Morse 1953).

One of the underlying generalisations offered by Morse is that satisfaction is a combination of both levels of aspiration and amounts of return from the environment. Satisfaction exists when these two are in line, and job dissatisfaction exists when the return from the environment is much less than the aspiration level of the individual (Morse 1953).

The study further found that productivity and employee satisfaction did not necessarily complement each other. This is similar to other findings of the Michigan studies referred to above. All three studies found that high producers do not differ significantly from low producers in overall satisfaction with their employment (Katz, Maccoby & Morse 1951; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin & Floor 1951; Morse 1953).

In the first reported factor-analytic study of job satisfaction, Katz and Kahn [(1952) used a multiple-group method of factor analysis to determine the relevant dimensions for an unspecified number of blue-collar factory employees. They found four satisfaction factors: satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with the job, satisfaction with the company, and satisfaction with mobility.

Since the Katz and Kahn study, much emphasis has been placed on determining the individual factors that constitute job satisfaction. The principal technique used
in this evaluation has been factor analysis. Even these sophisticated methods, however, have failed to bring agreement on the factors underlying job satisfaction.

Baehr (1954) undertook to examine the responses of two groups to the SRA Employee Inventory questionnaire by using the factor-analysis technique. This SRA questionnaire consists of 78 questions each with three possible answers grouped in 15 scales from two to seven items each (Baehr 1954:319-336). The scales include nearly all aspects of a job, in addition to one scale concerned with the respondent’s reaction to completing the inventory.

The SRA questionnaire aimed to determine which components of the work situation affected employee job satisfaction. The first test group consisted mainly of stenographers and clerical employees, while the second group was evenly split between production employees and clerical employees. The factors that were identified as being common to both groups, and also affected job satisfaction were immediate supervision, integration in organisation, friendliness and co-operation of fellow employees (Baehr 1954:319-336).

Ash (1954:337-64), using essentially the same methods as well as the SRA Employee Inventory, identified the following factors: job rewards, management effectiveness and immediate supervision.

In summarising the research related to generalised job satisfaction theories, Vroom (1967:103) suggested that there are at least four possible explanations for the multiplicity of variables that were identified by the various scholars:

- It is possible that persons have developed a different adaptation level or standards of judgement as a result of differences in the amount or kind of experiences in the work situation.

- It is also possible that the positive interrelationships among measures of satisfaction are due to response sets. On many satisfaction measures, a
tendency to choose the first alternative, or to choose the "yes" or "agree" response, results in high scores indicating a high level of satisfaction.

- A third consideration is that work situations providing one type of reward also tend to provide other types of reward.

- Finally, it is possible that the measures of satisfaction with different aspects of work roles are associated because they are functionally interdependent.

The relationship between the work of the writers reviewed in this section and the Herzberg research with this study is that all of the studies identify job satisfaction as being composed of a number of different variables, both intrinsic and extrinsic. As Vroom pointed out, the problem is that there is no real consensus or agreement on both the type and number of variables. Blum and Naylor (1967:391) suggested that one of the main reasons for the general disagreement over the identification of the appropriate job factor variables occurs because the researchers all developed and used their own unique test instruments.

As a result of reviewing the methodology used in these studies, the conclusion is made in this study that more consistent and verifiable results could be obtained if an already developed and proven test instrument was used. The review of this section of the literature revealed that, while studies were becoming more sophisticated in their approach, the researchers were still considering job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as two extremes in a bi-polar model.

3.5 Determinants of job satisfaction

It has already been shown that one of the problems confronting the researcher of job satisfaction is accounting for the fact that people differ in the extent to which they report satisfaction with their jobs. Vroom (1964:105) argued that it is typically assumed that the explanation of these differences lies in the nature of the job that these people perform. They express different degrees of job satisfaction because
they have different supervisors, different co-employees, work for different companies, or because they have different duties.

As a result of this type of thinking, a significant volume of research has been conducted based on the various kinds of jobs or work role variables that different scholars thought might affect job satisfaction.

Three factors that have an effect on job satisfaction will be considered below: of job content, supervision and promotional opportunities.

3.5.1 Job content

Vroom (1967:126) stated that certain assumptions made by Mayo, Roethlisberger, and other members of the human relations school resulted in a neglect of the motivational consequences of job or task variables in research. Vroom specifically questioned their assumptions that the social relationships established by employees are the crucial determinants of their job satisfaction. However, as a result of continued automation, increased work simplification and growing employee frustration, the number of studies analysing the job content aspect of job satisfaction has increased significantly in the last two decades.

Walker and Guest (1952) found that the degree to which employees in an automobile assembly plant expressed interest in their jobs was related to the number of operations that they carried out. Only 33% of employees performing a single operation reported their jobs as very or fairly interesting; however, 44% of those performing more than five operations reported their work as very or fairly interesting.

Walker and Guest (1952) also found that assembly employees rated mechanical pacing as the most disliked feature of their work. While a small minority expressed enjoyment at the excitement of a moving line, the majority regarded it as highly undesirable.
In another study, Walker (1954) described the results of the introduction of job enlargement into a factory making calculating machines. Before the introduction of the change, the tasks of setting up the work on the machines, operating the machines, and inspecting the product were performed by three different groups of employees. As a result of a management decision, the three tasks were combined, and after one year of operation with the new system, employees unanimously indicated that they preferred the new method.

Mann and Hoffman (1960) studied employees in an automated power plant who had been transferred from an older plant. Primarily because of technological changes, the job duties at the new plant had been significantly enlarged. In addition, employees were rotated among various jobs. In a subsequent survey of these employees, 100% stated that their new jobs were more interesting, and 94% stated that they were either a little more or much more satisfied with their new jobs.

Figure 3.2: Relationship between occupational status and job satisfaction among employed men

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational status</th>
<th>Professional technicians (%)</th>
<th>Managers/Proprietors (%)</th>
<th>Clerical employees (%)</th>
<th>Sales employees (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very satisfied</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not ascertained</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of cases</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational status</th>
<th>Skilled employees (%)</th>
<th>Semi-skilled employees (%)</th>
<th>Unskilled employees (%)</th>
<th>Farmers (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very satisfied</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not ascertained</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of cases</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the most frequently studied aspects of job satisfaction is job level. A positive relationship between the level or status of an employee's job and his/her job satisfaction has been reported by a number of scholars. Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) conducted one of the more extensive studies of this issue. The results shown in figure 3.2 above indicate substantial differences between the levels of satisfaction reported by persons in different occupational categories. Of persons employed in professional technical occupations, 42% reported that they were very satisfied with their jobs, as compared with only 13% of employees in the unskilled category. They generally reported that job satisfaction increased as the occupational level increased.

3.5.2 Supervision

In explaining the effects of supervision on job satisfaction, it is necessary to find some basis for describing and measuring differences in supervision. Blum and Naylor (1967:372) stated that an examination of the literature reveals two somewhat different approaches to this problem. One method is directed towards the personality of the supervisor and the other toward his/her behaviour in the work situation. At the same time, a study by Herzberg et al. (1959:115) suggested that the importance of supervision was overrated.

There is some experimental evidence that extensive changes in satisfaction follow changes in supervision. Jackson (1953:25-44), using a questionnaire, measured the attitudes of members of nine work groups, each concerned with the installation or repair of telephone equipment. Following the measurement, three supervisors whose staff showed relatively positive attitudes towards the leadership they were receiving were exchanged with three supervisors whose staff had relatively negative attitudes towards their leadership.

Four months after the personnel changes, the same questionnaire was readministered. The three work groups with the positive attitudes now showed negative feelings, while the three work groups with negative attitudes showed positive attitudes (Jackson 1953:25-44).
Studies conducted by the Survey Research Center of Michigan University contrasted employee-oriented and production-oriented supervision (Katz, Maccoby & Morse 1951). An employee-oriented supervisor established a supportive personal relationship, while a production-oriented supervisor viewed his subordinates as "people to get things done."

Blake and Mouton (1964), in constructing their managerial grid, essentially use these same two dimensions. However, they agreed that the dimensions were independent and that a supervisor could be high on both.

A study conducted by Halpin and Winer (1967:39-51), as part of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, indicated that the job satisfaction of subordinates is related to the consideration or employee orientation of their supervisors.

In a later study of a truck manufacturing plant, Fleishman and Harris (1962) used the factors developed by the Ohio State University Leadership Studies to measure subordinates' descriptions of three supervisors against grievances and turnover rates. These factors were consideration and initiating structure. Consideration includes supervisory behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth. Initiating structure includes behaviour in which the supervisor organises and defines group activities and his/her relation to the group. Using the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire developed to measure these two factors, the researchers found that, in general, low consideration and high structure correlate with high grievances and turnover (Fleishman & Harris 1962).

As a result of the findings from these and similar studies, there have been persuasive arguments presented by many scholars, especially those arguing for the participative or consultative management style of leadership, that consideration of subordinates on the part of a supervisor results in a high level of job satisfaction.
3.5.3 Promotional opportunities

The promotional opportunities afforded to employees in an organisation are highly varied and are often assumed to have a marked affect on job satisfaction.

Morse (1953:161) found a positive relationship between individuals' statement of promotional possibilities and their job satisfaction. She also reported a negative relationship between employees' ratings of the importance of promotion to them and their job satisfaction.

Brayfield and Crockett (1955:420) stated that people with aspirations to change jobs in the company hierarchy would often be quite dissatisfied with their present positions. They argued that aspirations to move imply not only a desire for a different position, but some degree of dissatisfaction with the present one. In their opinion, the degree of dissatisfaction probably depends upon the length of time the individual has occupied his/her present position.

Brayfield and Crockett (1955) cited a personal communication with Lieberman who reported similar findings in a study of a large appliance manufacturer. Lieberman reported that a year after all employees in the factory had filled out a questionnaire on job satisfaction and promotional opportunities, he compared the earlier responses of those who had been promoted to the position of foreman with a matched group of employees who had not been promoted. The promoted had been significantly less satisfied at the time of the initial questionnaire, than the control group (Lieberman in Brayfield & Crocket 1955:426).

A study conducted by Patchen in a Canadian oil refinery indicated a higher frequency of absenteeism among individuals who felt they deserved to have been promoted as compared to those who felt that they would not be promoted (Patchen 1960:349–60).
Vroom (1967:167) argued:

"We might reason that receiving a promotion will be more rewarding to persons who did not expect it than to those who did. Similarly, failure to receive a promotion might be less frustrating to those who did not expect it than to those who did. Consequently, we would pre-result in a greater increment in job satisfaction on the part of workers who did not expect it than on the part of those who did expect it; and failure to receive a desired promotion would result in a greater decrement in the job satisfaction of those expecting it than those not expecting it."

The next section discusses in detail investigations that addressed specific intrinsic and extrinsic job factors. In general, the results of those studies that examined intrinsic job factors were supported by the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959). Most of the studies, however, implicitly defined job satisfaction in very narrow terms compared to the previous studies reviewed.

3.6 Job satisfaction and job behaviour

In the previous section, some of the factors that affect the job satisfaction of employees were discussed. This section author examines the implications of job satisfaction for job behaviour. The focus is on the relationships, if any, between job satisfaction and productivity, and between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover.

3.6.1 Job satisfaction and productivity

The basic question asked by researchers working in this field is: "Does job satisfaction have any relationship to job productivity?" Brayfield and Crockett (1955:408), in an intensive review of the literature on this question, concluded that there was not. The authors stated:

"In summary, it appears that there is little evidence in the available literature that employee attitudes of the type usually measured in
morale surveys bear any simple – or for that matter, any appreciable – relationship to performance on the job."

In a study of clerical employees, Katz, Maccoby and Morse (1950:54) found that employees in the low producing groups were just as satisfied with their jobs as those in the higher productive groups. In a subsequent study done by Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor (1951) among railroad maintenance crews, these findings were replicated.

Katz (1947) and Kahn (1960) quoted Likert in their agreement that there is little opportunity for differential task involvement in routine and repetitive work and, hence, little chance for a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and performance (Katz 1947; Kahn 1960:374). However, with task variety and greater skill differentiation, Likert maintained that the expected positive correlation would appear.

Katz (1947) and Kahn's (1960) own interpretation of the Likert statement is that productivity is a measure of role performance. For most production employees, such performance has been completely standardised. They stated therefore that individuals have little opportunity to express their craftsmanship with the result that the basic motivation is to maintain an acceptable level of performance rather than to excel.

Prior to this statement, Kahn (1960:275-287) stated unequivocally that productivity and job satisfaction do not necessarily go together. Vroom updated the research in this category from the earlier Brayfield and Crockett paper (Vroom 1967:184). He identified 20 studies that correlated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. He found a median correlation of 0.14, with a range of 0.86 to -0.31. Vroom's position was that there seemed little doubt that only a small relationship existed between the variables.
3.6.2 Job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover

Ronan (1970:4) stated that "[i]t is generally accepted that turnover is a criterion that has shown consistent positive relations in the past with measures of job satisfaction."

Weitz and Nuckles (1953:487-494) conducted a study of 1,200 insurance agents representing a single company in the southern United States. They reported a statistically significant correlation between job satisfaction and survival (or tenure).

Kerr (1952:105-113) correlated tear ballot job satisfaction scores obtained from 98 miscellaneous wage earners with an index of self-reported past job tenure (number of years in the labour market divided by the number of employers). The results indicated a slightly positive relationship between attitudes towards present employment and past employment and respondents' job scores.

Sheppard (1967:567-571) found that "job terminators" — people who quit because of job-related reasons — differed on five areas of satisfaction from those who stayed in their jobs. The areas of difference were opportunity for advancement, working conditions, wages, interesting work and workload. The study also investigated personal and situational characteristics, length of service and effectiveness on the job. The results indicated a fairly strong relationship between length of service and job satisfaction.

Hulin (1966:280-285) found that terminators, after five months, reported significantly less job satisfaction than those who remained on the job. The same was true after a twelve-month interval.

Kahn (1960:376) argued that the same negative relationship exists between job satisfaction and absenteeism: the more job satisfaction an individual experiences, the lower the absentee rate.
In a comprehensive investigation of 1,800 employees located at 18 different plants, Katz and Hyman (1947:221-225) found significantly more job dissatisfaction among absentees than among those present.

Van Zelst and Kerr (1953:159-172), in a study of 340 employees in 14 companies, reported a significant correlation between good attendance and job satisfaction.

This particular section of literature was included in the review because it discussed research that considered the effect of job satisfaction on various aspects of job behaviour. The job satisfaction model that had been used by all of the researchers had been the satisfaction-dissatisfaction bi-polar model. However, if the correct model for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction is the motivator-hygiene model, then the validity of all of the relationships established by the investigators is in doubt.

This is particularly important in the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. In the literature presented, all of the authors argued that their studies had indicated no relationship. In other words, a satisfied employee is not necessarily a productive or motivated employee. But, as mentioned earlier, Herzberg implicitly defined job satisfaction and motivation as one and the same thing. While Herzberg did not specifically examine the relationship, it would appear likely that a satisfied or motivated employee would also be a productive employee. The acceptance of the Herzberg theory would require a complete re-examination of all the relationships between job satisfaction and job behaviour.

3.6.3 Job satisfaction relationships

In summarising the research relating job satisfaction to job behaviour variables, Vroom (1967:186) drew a number of conclusions that are worth repeating here:

- There is a constant negative relationship between job satisfaction and the probability of resignation.
• There is a less consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. This relationship appears to emerge most consistently with measures of unexplained absences, and when using the frequency of absence rather than actual days lost.

• There is no simple relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

In a new approach to job satisfaction, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959:11) stated that a major failing of most previous studies of job attitudes was its fragmentary nature (Herzberg et al. 1959:11). They reached this conclusion as a result of the comprehensive review of research concerned with the field of job attitudes (Herzberg et al. 1959).

3.7 Herzberg’s dual-factor theory

Herzberg (Hertzberg et al. 1957; 1959; 1966; 1968:53-62) proposed a dual-factor theory of job satisfaction paralleling Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory. Herzberg’s theory incorporated Maslow’s concepts – hygiene factors will help individuals attain or satisfy lower-level needs while motivators will satisfy higher-level needs. Herzberg (1968:53-62) suggested that physiological, safety, social and, to some extent, esteem needs can be satisfied by hygiene factors. Motivators or satisfiers can satisfy the remainder of the esteem and self-actualisation needs.

The first group of needs identified by Herzberg is related to the content of the job (job factors):

• The opportunity to accomplish something significant;
• Recognition for significant accomplishments;
• Chance for advancement;
• Opportunity to grow and develop on the job; and
• The chance for increased responsibility.
Herzberg called these factors the motivators or satisfiers since they appear to be effective in motivating employees to superior performance.

The second set of needs identified by Herzberg includes those that relate to the conditions and environment in which work is done (work-centred):

- Fair company policies and administration;
- A supervisor who knows the work;
- A good relationship with one's supervisor;
- A good relationship with one's co-employees;
- Fair pay;
- Job security; and
- Good working conditions.

According to Herzberg, while these factors prevent dissatisfaction, they do not create satisfaction. Hence, he referred to them as "hygiene factors". These hygiene factors create zero-level motivation. This implies therefore that maintenance or hygiene factors are associated with dissatisfaction while motivation factors are the real key to higher performance. These two sets of factors are therefore mutually exclusive. It would appear that Herzberg merely reduced Maslow's five levels of needs into two distinct levels of analysis – the dissatisfiers are equivalent to Maslow's lower-level needs while the motivators or satisfiers are equivalent to Maslow's higher-level needs. In other words, Herzberg believed that human beings operate at two levels:

- The physical level, which is closely connected to the job context; and
- The psychological level, which relates to the job content.

In contradiction to Maslow, Herzberg felt that individuals' lower-order needs are actually serviced by hygiene factors while motivators take care of the higher-order needs such as self-esteem and actualisation.
One interesting observation about Herzberg's findings is that satisfaction and dissatisfaction appear to be independent of each other. The implication of this is that the provision of hygiene factors will eradicate employees' dissatisfaction, but will not motivate them to higher levels of performance.

Herzberg's ideas on motivation have had a tremendous impact on organisations. His theories caused many organisations to pay more attention to intrinsic job factors (motivators) than unduly continue to concentrate on extrinsic job factors (hygiene factors). His theory drew attention to those factors that could promote employee motivation and ultimately enhance the productive capacities of individuals.

Herzberg's theory has also triggered lively debate among scholars. Indeed, his theory has challenged scholars to engage in further empirical research in order to test them. The theory continues to thrive; partly because it is easy to understand and seems to be based on "real life" rather than academic abstractions, and partly because it fits well with the highly respected ideas of Maslow in its emphasis on the positive value of the intrinsic motivating factors (Armstrong 2000:115). In this regard, Herzberg (1968) had immense influence on the job enrichment movement, which sought to design jobs in a way that would maximise the opportunities to obtain intrinsic satisfaction from work and thus improve the quality of working life. His emphasis on the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is vital with regard to job satisfaction (Armstrong 2000:115).

Herzberg made a useful contribution to motivation theory by emphasising the motivating potential of job satisfaction and enrichment. According to Mullins (1999:424), Herzberg at least attempted an empirical approach to the study of motivation at work. His work drew attention to the importance of job design in order to bring about job satisfaction and enrichment. Indeed, Herzberg clearly drew the attention to the value of job-centred factors in work motivation previously given little attention by motivation theorists. Agbadudu and Ogundipe (2000:1-5) carried out a study on motivating future employees using university undergraduates as a sample, and found that future employees in Nigeria perceive intrinsic variables as the determinants of motivation.
It was further observed in the earlier survey (Herzberg et al. 1959) that attitudes towards job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were apparently created by two independent sets of job factors. This review included about 150 studies in which the job factors either pre-designated or required employees to provide their own lists of job factors in answer to a number of open-ended questions.

Herzberg et al. (1959) identified ten factors as encompassing all of the individual job factors noted in the various studies. Further, in summarising the research appropriate to each of these factors, the authors identified the contribution either to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the employee.

The following presents a list of the job factors proposed by Herzberg et al. along with a summary of the job aspects included in each factor and its effect of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

- **Factor 1 – Intrinsic aspects of the job**

Included in this factor were job aspects such as self-respect, creativity and self-expression, responsibility and authority, challenge, interest, and ease of work.

Herzberg et al. felt that this factor would equally influence both the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the employee.

- **Factor 2 – Supervision**

This factor included consideration, ability to handle people, sociability, and technical competence.

As with factor 1, the authors gave this factor equal weight as a satisfier and dissatisfier.
Factor 3 – Working conditions

Important aspects of this factor were attractive surroundings, safety conditions and working hours.

It appeared to Herzberg et al. that this factor was equally significant in contributing either to satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

• Factor 4 – Wages

This included pay, income, frequency of pay rises and fairness of compensation.

This factor contributed much more to dissatisfaction than it did to satisfaction.

• Factor 5 – Opportunity for advancement

Merit promotions, professional advancement and promotional policies were included in this factor.

The authors reported that this factor was frequently a strong dissatisfier for employees, and very rarely a contributor to satisfaction.

• Factor 6 – Security

Job aspects include steadiness of employment and opportunity to learn a trade.

This factor was identified as a strong reason for liking a job, but frequently mentioned as a major reason for dissatisfaction.

• Factor 7 – Company and management

The important considerations in this factor were fairness and good intentions of management, company policies, procedures, and management’s foresight and planning.
The authors claimed that this factor was seldom a strong reason for dissatisfaction, but that it contributed substantially to an employee's satisfaction.

- **Factor 8 – Social aspects of the job**

This included social approval, cooperation and group effort, and competent co-employees.

This factor was recognised as one of the strongest contributors to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

- **Factor 9 – Communication**

Informing employees on status, information on new developments and information on personnel policies were contained in this factor.

This factor was mentioned only as a reason for disliking a job, and never as a reason for liking a job.

- **Factor 10 – Benefits**

Encompassed within this last factor were retirement and emergency provisions, leave, vacations and holidays.

This factor was not mentioned as either a contributor to satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1959:11) stated that the primary need emerging from this study was for an investigation of job attitudes in toto, a study in which factors, attitudes
and effects would be investigated simultaneously. These three aspects of the work situation, according to Herzberg et al., formed the “factors-attitude-effects” (F-A-E) complex that should be the basic structure of a more comprehensive approach to attitudes research in industry.

In 1959, Herzberg et al. undertook this study using approximately 200 accountants and engineers from a total of nine companies, all located in the Pittsburgh area. Eight were engaged in the manufacture of steel, steel products, or other metal goods. The remaining participating company was a major utility.

Of the 200 respondents, the authors did not specify the percentage of the sample that comprised engineers and the percentage accountants. They did state, however, that the individuals selected were a random sample of all the engineers and accountants in each of the participating companies. The authors defined “engineer” and “accountant” in terms of the work they did rather than by job titles.

Herzberg et al. (1959:33) stated:

“Our solution was to include in the sample all personnel involved in the fiscal activities of the company from the level of chief accountant or comptroller, down to the lowest rank at which judgmental functions were exercised. Clerical workers or individuals who were primarily supervisors of clerical workers were, therefore, not included.”

They commented about sampling that “[t]he criteria for choice of engineers were much simpler than for accountants. We included all individuals who had any design function whatsoever. Routine detail draftsmen were not included.”

The authors, using a semi-structured interview with a modified critical incident technique, asked the respondents to describe times during which they felt exceptionally good and exceptionally bad about their jobs. If respondents first described a time when they felt badly about their jobs, the situations were completely explored after which they were asked for a second story. However,
the next time they were asked for a story describing exceptionally good feelings about their jobs.

If the first story had been a long-range sequence, identified by the authors as from two weeks to five years in duration, then the respondent was asked to tell about a short run or single event sequence as a second story.

The authors further categorised the sequences as consisting of first-level, second-level or effects sequences. A first-level factor was defined as an objective element of the situation in which the respondents find a source for their good or bad feelings about their jobs. Second-level factors were described as the reasons given by respondents for their feelings. Finally, the “effects” category was designed to obtain information about the relationship between the attitude sequences and such performance variables as productivity and turnover.

The data obtained in the interviews was analysed using a method of content analysis in which categories were set up in terms of the empirical data. All of the interviews were first broken down into “thought units” and were typed on cards. Two members of the research team then sorted these cards in order to establish preliminary categories for classifying all of the obtained sequences. Three categories, corresponding to first-level factors, second-level factors and effects, were established and used as a framework for coding the sequences obtained in the interviews.

A total of 476 sequences fitted the researchers’ criteria for acceptability and were coded. The three members of the research team carried out the assignment of sequences to categories with disagreements being discussed until a consensus was reached. The authors reported a 95% agreement between two independent coders with an additional check by a third member of the team.

As a result of this analysis, the authors identified 14 first-level factors, and the associated criteria for each, which are as follows (Herzberg et al. 1959:44-49):
• **Recognition** included some act, recognition or criticism of the individual, and could come from any source. The authors distinguished between recognition and their category of interpersonal relations on the basis of where the emphasis seemed to have been placed by the respondent.

• **Achievement** included failure and absence of achievement, as well as success stories such as successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of work.

• **Possibility of growth** included both positive and negative possibilities, such as a change in status that officially included a likelihood that the respondent would be able to rise in a company, communication of the fact that lack of formal education would make it impossible for the respondent ever to advance in the company, and new situations making it possible for the respondent to learn new skills or to acquire a new professional outlook.

• **Advancement** included only the occurrence of an actual advancement in the status or position of the person in the company.

• **Salary** included all sequences of events in which compensation played a role.

• **Interpersonal relations** included those sequences in which there was some actual verbalisation about the characteristics of the interaction between the person speaking and some other individual (superior, subordinate, or peers).

• **Supervision-technical** included those sequences in which the competence, incompetence or fairness of the person's supervisor were the critical characteristics.

• **Responsibility** included sequences in which respondents reported that they derived satisfaction from being given responsibility for their own work or for the work of others, or being given new responsibilities. Also included was the loss of satisfaction due to a lack of responsibility.
• **Company policy and administration** included sequences about the adequacy or inadequacy of communications, authority, company organisation, and the effects of company personnel policies.

• **Working conditions** included stories in which the physical conditions of work, the volume of work, or the facilities available for doing the work were mentioned.

• **Work itself** included sequences about actually doing the job or the tasks associated with the job as the source of good or bad feelings.

• **Factors in personal life** included sequences in which some aspect of the job affected the personal life of a respondent in such a way that the effect was a factor in the respondent’s feelings about this job.

• **Status** included only sequences in which the respondents actually mentioned some sign of status as being a factor in their feelings about their jobs.

• **Job security** included only objective signs of the presence or absence of job security, such as tenure or the stability of the company.

The second-level factors derived from replies to the question: What did these events mean to you? The factors were feelings of:

• Recognition;
• Achievement;
• Possible growth or blockage of growth;
• Responsibility or lack of responsibility;
• Change of status;
• Change in security;
• Fairness or unfairness;
• Pride;
• Inadequacy;
• Interest or lack of interest in the job;
• Feelings about salary; and
• Group feelings of belonging or of isolation.

An integral part of the authors’ analysis was an identification of the first-level factor or factors from which the subjects derived their feelings.

In the analysis of the “effects” category, five major areas were suggested (Herzberg et al. 1959:51-54):

• **Performance effects** included periods of better or poorer performance than usual, and changes in the quality of work. Also included were numerous responses indicating that the respondents never let their feelings about the job interfere with the way they did their work.

• **Turnover** included a whole range of effects from actually quitting a job, to such positive feelings that other attractive offers were turned down.

• **Mental health effects** included changes in tension, smoking and eating habits, psychosomatic effects, physiological symptoms and anxieties.

• **Effects on interpersonal relationships** included changes in relationships both on and outside of the job.

• **Attitudinal effects** included changes in attitudes towards self, colleagues, profession or the company.

Herzberg et al. (1959) presented the results of the study in terms of the percentage of time that a given factor was mentioned in the interviews by the respondents. They further subdivided the data into eight classes, based on first and second-level factors, satisfaction (high) and dissatisfaction (low) of incidents, and long and short-range sequences.
On the basis of their findings, the authors concluded that the factors of recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility and work itself are primarily responsible for job satisfaction. The factors of company policy and administration, technical aspects of supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions cause job dissatisfaction.

The authors also analysed the interrelationships between the different factors and found that the factors of recognition, achievement and advancement were frequently mentioned together.

In their analysis of the effects of performance on the job, the authors stated “that attitudes towards the job exert an extremely important influence on the way in which the job was done” (Herzberg et al. 1959:80). They also concluded that “the tendency for attitudes to have an effect on performance was greater for favorable attitudes toward the job than unfavourable ones” (Herzberg et al. 1959:87).

The effects on turnover and on attitude towards the company were similar to the effects on performance. Dissatisfaction resulted in quitting or steps towards quitting, while satisfaction produced the opposite.

In their analysis of factors and demographic variables, the authors did not find that demographic variables had any effect on the job factors. They stated:

“...In summary, it is our feelings that the general lack of individual differences in the occurrence of factors and effects argues the applicability of our findings beyond the immediate bounds of the small sample with which we worked” (Herzberg et al. 1959:102).

This section of the literature review aimed to provide a description of the theoretical argument, methodology and findings of Herzberg et al. These studies all serve as the foundation upon which the investigation for this thesis was conducted.
Wherever possible, the taxonomy of Herzberg et al. was adopted in this study. Further, the study objectives that were developed were based on the Herzberg findings. Also, the results of this study were compared with the Herzberg findings so that conclusions could be made.

3.8 Follow-up studies

Since the publication of *The motivation to work*, a plethora of writings on the dual-factor theory was published. The criteria used for the research reported in this thesis to help in determining which sources should be discussed revolved around two considerations. If an article or publication, either as a result of its findings or the techniques that it employed, discussed the Herzberg theory, or if an or publication showed a direct link to areas of interest covered by this thesis, it was used in the research.

Schwartz, Jensaitis and Start (1963:45-53) reported an attempt to replicate the Herzberg et al. study by obtaining written descriptions of satisfying and dissatisfying situations. Their subjects consisted of 111 male supervisors, drawn from basic supervisory and lower middle management levels in a number of public utility companies. They reported that the study generally confirmed the findings of Herzberg et al.

Harrison (1960:425-434) reported the results of an application of factor analysis to a questionnaire in order to discover the major sources of variation in managers' attitudes toward their jobs. For each item on the questionnaire, respondents were asked to use a five-point scale to rate how favourable they viewed an aspect of their job situation. Harrison identified eight clusters throughout the factor analysis, with opportunities to advance and accomplish, non-economic stability and security, and communications from top management, being most significant in the sense that they accounted for nearly all the common variance. The author stated: "The present results lend support to Herzberg's theories that self-realisation opportunities are the main source of job motivation for managerial and professional people" (Harrison 1960:433).
Rosen (1963:37-43) utilised a number of job attitude items obtained from the 1957 Herzberg et al. summary of job satisfaction elements. Rosen obtained a 90% return in a mail survey consisting of 118 items among 105 research and development staff in which respondents had to rate each item to indicate the importance of the element for themselves. There were five alternative ratings possible, ranging from "essential" to "unimportant". Rosen's results indicated that the prime occupational motivators of research and development personnel fall within a broad range of job conditions rather than being narrowly delimited. His data also suggested that changes in the intrinsic research nature of the work must accompany salary increases and promotion if these factors are to be effective motivators.

Ewen (1964:161-163) obtained responses to a questionnaire consisting of 58 items from approximately 1,000 life insurance agents, with one-half of them forming a cross-validation group. The data from the validation sample were factor-analysed using the principal components method and rotated by the Varimax method. Three factors interpreted as dissatisfiers (manager interest in agents, company training policies and salary) were identified, as well as two satisfiers (work itself and recognition), and a general satisfaction factor. An external criterion of overall satisfaction was used in the analysis. In analysing the data on the dissatisfiers, only subjects who were neutral on the satisfiers were included. The overall satisfaction of a group, who were satisfied with a particular factor, was compared to the overall satisfaction of a group who were average. The differences were tested for statistical significance. Similarly, the group dissatisfied with a factor were compared with the average group and the difference tested. Ewen found that the Herzberg dissatisfiers actually acted in the predicted manner and sometimes caused both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Specifically, managers' interest in agents and training – supposedly dissatisfiers – actually acted as satisfiers. Work itself was a satisfier, while recognition caused both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Peres (1963), in a study of the top 250 and bottom 250 performance-rated engineers and scientists in a large research and development laboratory, asked respondents to complete a job importance questionnaire consisting of 77 items.
He identified 10 factors that he arbitrarily grouped into two categories corresponding to what the author theorised would be two basic types of people, using the Herzberg classification of motivation seekers and hygiene seekers. The factors of importance of tangible output, autonomy and research atmosphere were placed in the "achievement" category, while the "hygiene" category included the factors of importance of becoming a supervisor, secure environment, freedom of expression, casual approach to the job, status and its trappings, and organisational efficiency. Using his classification, the author found that in the "achievement" group, one factor loaded positively, one negatively, and one neutral on the performance criterion. Under the "hygiene" groups, two factors loaded positively and four negatively on the performance criterion. The author stated that, in his opinion and based on his study, he could not support the Herzberg findings.

Burke (1966:317-321), in a review of 14 studies that had examined the Herzberg theory, found that the findings showed mixed results and conclusions. Studies in which the basic Herzberg methodology – semi-structured critical incident techniques – was used to collect and analyse the data typically upheld the theory; for example, Schwartz, Jensaitis and Stark (1963); Salch (1964:310-312) and Myers (1964:73-88). On the other hand, studies that utilised a structured format and techniques for data analysis such as factor analysis – Ewen (1964) and Friedlander (1964:3883-92) – comparison of means, correlation analysis and variance analysis – Halpern (1966:198-200) and Wernimont (1966:41-50) – either did not support the theory as stated, or at best, did not give unequivocal support to it.

In a 1967 issue of Personnel Psychology, two major articles appeared. Both of them reviewed and analysed studies examining the Herzberg theory. The article by Whitsett and Winslow (1967:391-416) was supportive of the theory and argued that the reasons certain study results had not replicated the Herzberg et al. findings was because of misinterpretations of the theory by the scholars conducting the studies. They specifically identified four areas of conflict. First, there were the attempts to use measures of overall job satisfaction to make statements purporting to be derived from the theory. Secondly, the scaling
measures used by the researchers distorted the theory into a non-dimensional model. The third error involves the use of the term "neutral". Within the Herzberg theory, there is no neutral point on either of the motivator or hygiene continua. However, many of the authors insisted on developing techniques that utilised a neutral point approach. Lastly, the authors stated that the researchers made interpretational errors in analysing their data.

The second article was critical of the theory. House and Wigdor (1967:369-389) put forward their major arguments revolving around the contention that the theory was methodology bound. They stated that the story-telling, critical-incident technique, in which the respondent recounts extremely satisfying and dissatisfying job events, accounts for the associations found by Herzberg et al. They argued that people tend to take the credit when things go well and thereby enhance their own feelings of self-worth, but they protect their self-concept when things go poorly by blaming their failures on the environment. In summation, they argued that other methods are required to test the theory adequately.

Hinrichs and Mischkind (1967:191-200) conducted a study involving 613 technicians performing service work, all of whom were employed by the same large national company. An attitude survey questionnaire was used that required the subjects to indicate, on an 11-point scale (ranging from zero, completely dissatisfied, to ten, completely satisfied) their overall job satisfaction level. The remainder of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions where the subjects were initially asked to list one or two specific things that most influenced their feelings in a positive way.

The respondents were then requested to repeat that procedure for specific items that influenced their feelings in a negative way. For subjects with low overall job satisfaction, the researchers found that job content factors were equally split between positive and negative sources of job satisfaction. For subjects with high job satisfaction, job content factors were sources of positive job satisfaction. The job context factors were a significant source of positive feelings for the low satisfaction respondents and a significant source of negative feelings for persons whose overall job satisfaction was high. The researcher concluded that the
Herzberg dual-factor approach for describing the determinants of overall job satisfaction was not sophisticated enough to reflect the two situations.

Graen (1968:366-371) analysed 167 male and 152 female office employees employed in the home office of a single corporation. The investigation used the Cornell job descriptive index (JDI), which consists of an objective checklist dealing with five job variables: work itself, promotion, pay, supervision and co-employees. As a measure of overall job satisfaction, the study results as a whole did not support the Herzberg findings, but found a linear relationship between satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Kosmo and Behling (1969:327-334) studied 84 registered nurses employed at a state hospital in an attempt to resolve the conflict between the dual and single continuous theories of job satisfaction. Their approach was to translate Herzberg’s dual-factor theory into a single scale by a series of logical steps derived from Herzberg’s taxonomy. The overall job satisfaction of the respondents was measured by the use of a job satisfaction scale consisting of ten items, each examining the individuals’ overall job satisfaction from a different point of view. A questionnaire was then developed to measure the perceived levels of the motivator and hygiene job factors. The Mann-Whitney U Test was used to evaluate the relationships. The results of this study did not support the contention that the dual-single continuous conflict can be resolved in this manner. The investigators also concluded that the Herzberg methodology and conventional scalar approaches are not measuring the same functions.

Soliman (1970:452-461) conducted a study of 98 employees from the public school in Urbana, Illinois, and the Adler Zone Center, a mental health institute in Champaign, Illinois in 1970. The objective was to investigate the possibility that the environment would mediate the relationship between the motivator and hygiene job factors as determined by Herzberg. The researchers hypothesised that, where the environment is characterised as a non-need-satisfying environment, hygiene needs become more dominant than motivator needs, and vice versa. A questionnaire composed of four parts was used. Part 1 consisted of JDI scales. Part 2 used the Herzberg semi-structured critical incident technique.
Part 3 used six seven-point scales to measure the degree to which the environment was needs satisfying or not. Part 4 used a questionnaire to measure overall job satisfaction. The data was subjected to regression and chi-square analysis. The findings indicated that the exact replication of the Herzberg methodology revealed the same motivation and hygiene categories. Further, the organisational environment was found to be an important variable in mediating and explaining the relationship between the motivator and hygiene factors.

Wolf (1970:87-94) suggested in an article that the conflict between the single and dual theories of job satisfaction could be reconciled based on a theory of job motivation built upon Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Wolf's theory differentiated between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as end states and job motivation as a force to achieve an end state. He theorised that Herzberg's motivator and hygiene factors are related to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction in terms of the level of gratification of the various needs within the Maslow hierarchy.

Wernimont, Toren and Kapell (1970:95-102) performed a study among in 775 technical employees at the 3-M Company to determine the relationship of job factors with job effort and job satisfaction. Their study gave general support to the Herzberg findings and indicated that the factors of accomplishment, recognition, responsibility, work itself and good personal relationships with supervisors and co-employees were the important motivating factors.

Davis and Allen (1970:67-76) used the basic Herzberg methodology to determine the length of time that high or low feelings persisted. The study sample consisted of employees of the three largest banks in three states with a total of 1,014 respondents participating. From this sample, the investigators obtained 713 usable responses for low incidents. The results confirmed the Herzberg findings that there is a definite tendency for high feelings to persist for a longer period of time than for low feelings. Moreover, the factors that are primarily responsible for the high feelings are motivators. Low salary, lack of advancement, company policy and administration, and supervision tended to provide low feelings for longer periods. Other factors were more variable or had a shorter run in their effect.
Schwab and Heneman (1970:55-66) investigated two criticisms of Herzberg’s research methodology. Specifically, they were concerned with the reliability of response classification and the analysis and interpretation of individual responses. Using the Herzberg methodology, 85 first and second-level supervisors in the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources described satisfying and dissatisfying job situations. Analysis of aggregate results tended to conform to the Herzberg findings. However, the dual-factor theory was found to be inadequate in predicting individual responses to favourable sequences. In addition, two motivator factors – achievement and recognition – were mentioned by more than 25% of all supervisors in describing both favourable and unfavourable sequences. The investigators concluded that the aggregate analysis of responses associated with the story-telling method results in misleading interpretation of the data.

Grigaliunas and Herzberg (1971:73-79) conducted a study to determine whether irrelevancy is a crucial variable in determining the inconsistent results between the semi-structured critical incident methodology and rating scale methodologies. They analysed one set of data on the same subjects using both methodologies. The sample was composed of 81 junior and senior students at Case Western Reserve University. The findings indicated that the semi-structured critical incident technique resulted in a replication of the original Herzberg findings. The analysis of the rating scale data, without considering the relevancy of the incidents, did not follow the dual-factor predictions. The analysis of only those incidents considered relevant, however, resulted in a replication of the dual-factor theory. The investigators concluded that the rating scale technique led to inappropriate and misleading results. They suggested that, unless the problems of irrelevant ratings can be solved, the use of these techniques in job attitude research will remain a stumbling block to understanding job attitudes.

Armstrong (1971:57-65) investigated occupational levels to determine their effects on the dual-factor theory. His sample was composed of 200 engineers and 153 assemblers. Armstrong hypothesised that, for the high-level occupational group, the job content factors would make a relatively greater contribution to overall job satisfaction than the job context factors. Further, for the
low-level occupational group, the job context factors would make a relatively
greater contribution to overall job satisfaction than the job content factors. The
findings indicated that the job content factors made the greatest contribution to
overall job satisfaction regardless of occupational level.

Bobbitt and Behling (1972:24-27) hypothesised that defence reactions on the part
of the study participants could be an explanation of the Herzberg motivator-
hygiene results. The method they used to test their thesis had two constraints.
First, the techniques employed in gathering the responses should be similar to
the critical incident technique used by Herzberg; second, defensive reactions on
the part of the experimental group would have to be evoked. Three different
groups of first-line supervisors participated in the study: 42 male supervisors from
a regional office of a large insurance company; 32 male and female supervisors
of nursing, dietary, maintenance, and laboratory functions in a paediatric hospital;
and 36 male station managers from a large oil company. Two sets of
questionnaires employing the critical incident technique were used with the
respondents divided into two groups. One group was told that their supervisor
would discuss their answers with them, and the other group was informed that
the study was a university project and only basic aggregate results would be
made available to their companies. The findings did not indicate any difference
between the two groups, and the researchers concluded that defensive behaviour
reactions of the study participants did not influence the Herzberg motivator-
hygiene results.

In a study that examined some cross-cultural effects on job satisfaction, Simonetti
and Weitz (1972:107-118)) were concerned with the factor composition of overall
job satisfaction as a function of nationality and occupation. Employee attitude
questionnaire items were carefully translated and administered in three foreign
countries: Japan, Canada and Argentina. A total sample of 342 subjects in two
occupational groups – sales representatives and service (repair) personnel –
completed the questionnaire. Certain item responses were combined to yield two
scale scores – intrinsic and extrinsic – based on the Herzberg dual-factor theory.
The results indicated that both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors appear
necessary for overall job satisfaction in Japan, while in the other two countries
the intrinsic factor was twice as important as the extrinsic factor for job satisfaction. Also, it appears that there were substantial differences between occupations on the importance of the intrinsic factor. The researchers concluded that different environmental conditions, as well as different nationalities and occupations could have significant effects on the relationships that exist between intrinsic and extrinsic job factors and job satisfaction.

Atchison and Lefferts (1972:53-64) conducted a study to investigate the usefulness of Herzberg's method of measuring job satisfaction and the factors developed in predicting turnover among a group of air force pilots. Their study was a follow-up of an earlier one in which the Herzberg interview schedule had been completed with a group of air force officers. The 1972 study took these results and reanalysed the data by dividing the officers who stayed in the service, a total of 52, and those who had terminated their commissions, a total of 72, since the original study. The analysis was performed using non-parametric statistics, primarily the Mann-Whitney U Test, and chi-square. The results indicated that a quantitative measure, in which Herzberg's motivator factors were put into a Likert scale form, proved to distinguish very well between those officers who stayed and those who left. No differences of any significance were noted between officers who stayed and those who left in terms of the order of factors in the high and low sequences in the interview. The researchers concluded that the positive events were related to positive feelings of performance and the negative events related to career intentions of leaving the air force. This was verified by examining the actual career decisions of the study participants.

Despite the valuable contributions made by Herzberg, his theories have been criticised on a number of premises. One major criticism concerns the methodology used to develop the theory – the "critical incident method". This method, while requiring people to look at themselves retrospectively, does not adequately provide a vehicle for the expression of other factors that should be mentioned. There is the tendency for the most recent events in a person's work experience to influence the outcome of a study using such a methodology. This tends to ignore or diminish the impact of past and possibly equal important events (Invance et al. 1977:109).
Related to the methodological problem is the fact that Herzberg’s sample of accountants and engineers was inadequate for effective generalisation across professions. The selection of only two professional groups can be said to be grossly unrepresentative and bias-inclined. According to Donnelly et al (1987:300), Herzberg’s subjects in his original study consisted of professionals whose station in life indicated that they had the motivation to seek advanced education and expected to be rewarded. According to these scholars, the same may not hold true for non-professional employees.

Critics have also pointed out that little attention has been directed towards testing the motivation and performance implications of Herzberg’s theory. As Armstrong (2000:115) put it, “[t]he research method has been criticised because no attempt was made to measure the relationship between satisfaction and performance.” Another problem with Herzberg’s work is that he allowed his methodology to determine his results, since people usually attribute good result to their own efforts and blame others for bad results. In this regard, Vroom (1964:128-129) pointed out that Herzberg’s findings might have been due to the tendency of people to attribute the cause of satisfaction to their own achievements while attributing dissatisfaction more to obstacles presented by organisational policies or superiors than their own deficiencies.

After a review of Herzberg, House and Wigdor (1967:367-389) highlighted the influence of individual differences and therefore concluded that the dual-factor theory is an oversimplification of the true relationship between the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Furthermore, there is controversy concerning the job factors that Herzberg classified as satisfiers/motivators and hygiene/dissatisfiers. Malinovsky and Barry (1965:446-451) conducted a study among blue-collar employees based on Herzberg’s model. They showed that some of the factors considered as maintenance factors by Herzberg (such as pay and job security) are regarded as motivational factors by blue-collar employees, thus indicating that, while one factor can cause dissatisfaction to one person, the same factor will result in job satisfaction for another person. Similarly, Lahiri and Srivastva (1966:254-265) – in a study of Indian middle managers – found that both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors caused feelings of satisfaction and
dissatisfaction towards the job. They concluded that the respondents in their study endorsed job factors differently from what the motivator-hygiene theory would have predicted.

Much the same conclusions have been reached by Jibowo (1977:45-54) who has studied the effects on job performance of motivators and hygiene factors among a group of 75 agricultural extension employees in Nigeria. Adopting basically the same methodology used by Herzberg, Jibowo found some support for the influence of motivators on job performance. From Jibowo's study, there was also evidence to suggest that hygiene factors such as poor working conditions, low levels of pay and poor supervision impair productivity and performance in general, thereby contradicting Herzberg's theory. In other words, the hygiene factors – pay, supervision and working conditions – acted as motivators among the Nigerian employees studied by Jibowo.

On their part, Schwab, Devitt and Cummings (1971:293-303) conducted their research in the same environment as Herzberg, among managerial and professional groups, using Herzberg's criteria. They discovered that Herzberg's hygiene factors were equally useful in motivating these employees as were his motivating factors of achievement, recognition and advancement. Uduehi (1985:194) found from her study that employee remuneration and job security were given priority rating as factors that produce rather than lead to motivation in the then Bendel state of the Nigerian civil service. In his study, Imhanlahimhin (1995:89-90) has noted that an analysis of the incessant labour crisis in Nigeria would reveal that most of the agitations by employees have to do with pay. These submissions simply indicate that one person's dissatisfier or hygiene factor may be another person's satisfier or motivator.

From his study, King (1970:18-31) argues that there are at least five different theoretical interpretations of Herzberg's model that have been tested in different studies, with each interpretation placing a different slant on the model. According to him, this suggests doubts about the clarity of statement of the theory. Despite these criticisms, there is still evidence of support for the continuing relevance of Herzberg's theory. Phillipchuk (1996:15-20) replicated Herzberg's study based
on a small sample of engineers within the same organisation in Canada, and concluded that Herzberg's methods still yield useful results as respondents did not offer any new event factors from the original study though some of the former factors were excluded.

3.9 Summary

This chapter set out to fulfil the objective to provide a historical overview of Herzberg's dual-factor theory and to examine the concept "job satisfaction" as a determinant of motivation by studying the available literature in order to provide an exposition of the rationale of Herzberg's dual-factor theory.

To begin with, definitions of the concept "job satisfaction" were explored. Because of the difficulties in arriving at a definition that is commonly accepted, some scholars refrained from even trying to define the concept. Linkages were shown between job satisfaction and other terms, such as "morale", "job attitudes" and "motivation". Although no satisfactory definition could be arrived at in this study, the one proposed by Blum and Taylor (1967:369) seems to suit the purposes of this thesis best:

"an individual's attitude or feeling about some aspect of his job where satisfaction is indicated by high scores, or a high frequency of endorsements of statements pertaining to that aspect of the job. Dissatisfaction is indicated by low scores on statements pertaining to that aspect of the job."

The focus of this chapter then turned to a historical perspective of job satisfaction. The concept was formally recognised in 1932 by Kornhauser and Sharp as a legitimate study area in its own right. Scholars such as Hoppock (1935), Watson (1939), and Seidman and Watson (1940) undertook several studies of job satisfaction. Many of the findings of these studies fed into the groundbreaking work undertaken by Herzberg and his colleagues in the late 1950s.
More generalised approaches to job satisfaction were subsequently discussed. Studies that were referred to included those of Kerr (1948), Van Zelst (1951), Katz, Maccoby and Morse (1951), Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor (1951), Weitz (1952), Katz and Kahn (1952), Baehr (1953), Morse (1953), Schaffer (1967), Blum and Naylor (1967) and Vroom (1967). The major relationship between the findings of these studies and the studies by Herzberg et al. is in the common conclusion that job satisfaction consists of a number of both intrinsic and extrinsic variables. One of the major problems with these studies is the general disagreement over the identification of the appropriate job variables with which to measure job satisfaction. Many scholars felt that this was mainly as a result of the fact that individual scholars all developed their own unique survey and test instruments, which made comparison and further testing extremely difficult, if not impossible.

Following from these studies, several determinants of job satisfaction were identified that scholars thought might influence employees. For the purposes of this thesis, three main variables were discussed in the next section of the chapter: job content, supervision and promotional opportunities.

Several studies were undertaken in the 1950s and 1960s to establish the effect of job content on the satisfaction levels of employees. Those studies used in this thesis included that by Walker and Guest (1952), Walker (1954), Mann and Hoffman (1960), and Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960). These studies resulted mainly from the greater automation in the middle of the 20th century and the effects this had on employee frustration. Findings suggested that the less variety in a job, the more likely an employee is to become dissatisfied. Mechanistic work patterns also played a part, while rotation among different kinds of tasks in the same area of a workplace lead to higher levels of satisfaction. Job status also seemed to contribute towards job satisfaction: in one study, people in different occupational categories showed significant differences in their levels of job satisfaction.

Supervision was then considered as a determinant of job satisfaction. The studies that were consulted, included Katz, Maccoby and Morse (1951), Jackson
(1953), Fleishman and Harris (1962), Blake and Mouton (1964), and Halpin and Winer (1967). Most of these scholars saw the quality and nature of supervision as important in the level of satisfaction employees experience in their jobs. A study by Herzberg et al. in 1959, however, found that the influence of supervision was somewhat overrated. Despite this, persuasive arguments were put forward by scholars in these and other studies for a more participative management style among the leadership of organisations.

Promotional opportunities were also examined as a determinant of job satisfaction. Studies by Morse (1953), Brayfield and Crockett (1955), Patchen (1960) and Vroom (1967) were consulted for the purpose of this thesis. In general, the findings seemed to suggest that the availability of promotional opportunities as such does not lead to satisfaction; rather, the expectations of individuals about these promotional opportunities were crucial in the levels of job satisfaction experienced by those whose expectations were not met.

Another important aspect of the study of job satisfaction is the relationship between levels of satisfaction and people's behaviour while at work. The next section considered two of these relationships: that between job satisfaction and productivity, and between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover.

With regard to the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, findings were mixed. Some scholars found little correlation between these two aspects, while others found a correlation, particularly among employees who did routine, repetitive tasks. In the latter case, the correlation was mostly neutral, with people continuing to do their work at an acceptable level. In studying the linkage between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover, scholars found only insignificant evidence of any relationship between these three aspects. These findings are particularly important in any further studies of job satisfaction and productivity. The studies found, by implication, that a satisfied employee is not necessarily a productive or motivated employee. But, as mentioned earlier, Herzberg implicitly defined job satisfaction and motivation as the same thing. Although he did not specifically examine this relationship, it seems likely that a satisfied or motivated employee would also be productive. If the Herzberg theory
is accepted as a point of departure, a complete re-examination of all the relationships between job satisfaction and job behaviour should be undertaken.

The second half of this chapter was devoted to an examination and analysis of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory. Herzberg’s theory incorporated much of what Maslow had proposed in his hierarchy of needs theory. Herzberg specifically adopted the notions of motivators and hygiene factors and proposed that the latter would satisfy lower-order needs, while the former would address higher-level needs. He suggested that Maslow’s physiological, safety, social and some esteem needs could be fulfilled by hygiene factors, while motivators would address the remainder of esteem and self-actualisation needs.

Herzberg’s motivators included needs related to job content and job context (the conditions and environment in which the work is done). Although the latter may prevent dissatisfaction, they cannot in themselves lead to satisfaction. Herzberg thus effectively divided satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and his theory seemed to suggest that these are not bi-polar opposites, but two separate and independent outcomes.

Herzberg and his colleagues proposed a list of 10 job factors that influence job satisfaction: intrinsic aspects of the job; supervision, working conditions, wages, opportunity for advancement, security, company and management, social aspects of the job, communication and benefits. In testing this list of factors, the authors further identified 14 first-level factors with an impact on levels of satisfaction among employees: recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, salary, interpersonal relations, supervision-technical, responsibility, company policy and administration, working conditions, work itself, factors in personal life, status and job security. In addition, five specific effects were also reported by the sample in their surveys: performance effects, staff turnover, mental health effects, effects on interpersonal relationships and attitudinal effects. Their conclusions were that recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility and work itself were motivators, while company policy and administration, technical aspects of supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions were hygiene factors.
Herzberg's theory triggered lively debate and challenged scholars to test it. It continues to thrive because it is easy to understand and seems to be based on "real life" rather than academic abstractions. This work significantly influenced the job enrichment movement, which sought to design jobs in order to maximise the opportunities to obtain satisfaction from work and to improve the quality of working life. Herzberg at least started a more empirical approach to the study of motivation at work. Indeed, Herzberg clearly drew the attention to the value of job-centred factors in work motivation previously given little attention by motivation theorists.

The next section of this chapter devoted the attention to follow-up studies to test and explore the dual-factor theory. Many scholars supported his findings, and just as many criticised them on a number of grounds. The "critical incident method" – the methodology used to develop the theory – was criticised by several scholars in subsequent studies. Although it requires people to look at themselves retrospectively, this does not draw out other factors that should be mentioned. If was felt that the most recent events in people's work experience would influence the outcome of a study using this methodology, as it tends to ignore or diminish the impact of past and possibly equal important events. If was also felt that Herzberg's choice of professional accountants and engineers made effective generalisations across professions impossible. Critics argued that these professionals had already shown that they were motivated to seek advanced education and expected to be rewarded. This may not hold true for non-professional employees. Criticism was levelled at Herzberg's failure to address the relationship between satisfaction and performance. It was also felt that people often attribute the cause of satisfaction to their own achievements while attributing dissatisfaction more to obstacles presented by organisational policies or superiors than their own deficiencies. Individual differences were not adequately taken into account in Herzberg's survey and job factors could not be applied among blue-collar employees. Different findings were also reported among other cultures, for example, in studies undertaken in India and Nigeria. As a result of the different settings in which the theory has been applied, some scholars felt that it lacked theoretical clarity.
The Nigerian federal government is the largest employer in the country with approximately 2.5 million civilian employees. In 2003, President Olusegun Obasanjo committed the government to ensure that its public services are professional, efficient and appropriate to the needs of the people. One way of achieving this commitment is to ensure that people are motivated to do the best when at work. Against the exploration of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory presented in this chapter, therefore, the next chapter will focus on the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, from which the sample population was drawn for the survey used in this theses. It will also focus on the service’s composition, and the role of the Federal Civil Service Commission within the wider context of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. It will also identify those factors that are already in place that may serve to motivate public sector employees in the country.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE NIGERIAN FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE
AND THE FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION:
THE RESEARCH STUDY POPULATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to fulfil the study objective to provide:

- A historical background to and the rationale of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission as the study population for this thesis, as well as an explanation of the structure and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and an overview of the Federal Civil Service Commission in order to provide the context of the African environment of the public sector and to justify the sampling population.

In chapters two and three, the concepts “motivation” and “job satisfaction” were explained and selected theories of motivation and job satisfaction were explored. These explorations provide the backdrop against which Herzberg’s dual-factor theory could be applied or tested among a sample group of civil service employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria.

The sample size of 420 respondents was selected from the population of 726 career civil servants. It was felt that the sample is adequate and large enough to provide reliable data for this survey. Although 420 respondents were targeted, only 362 questionnaires were returned in such a condition that responses could be used. The effective sample size was therefore slightly below 50% of the survey population.
In order to address the study objectives of this thesis as identified in chapter one, it was necessary for the sample population to meet certain criteria:

- The sample population must consist of professional (senior) and non-professional (junior) employees.

- The sample must reflect and clearly identify the different skill groups in some manner.

- In order to minimise the environmental impact of the study, the sample population should be located in one institution where the environmental conditions are essentially representative of all areas within the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

- A final consideration, after identifying a sample population that meets the first three criteria, would be the willingness of the institution's senior and junior employees to participate in the study.

The population that fulfilled these requirements was employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission located in Abuja. The employees are classified into the appropriate skill groups based on defined structure classes related to job experience and job description. The selected professional employees were senior and junior commission employees.

This study differs from Herzberg's in terms of research design methodology. Rather than adopt the original free recall type of critical incident method used for data collection by Herzberg, this study simply applied the theoretical framework that is derived from Herzberg's dual-factor theory. The intrinsic and extrinsic job factors identified in Herzberg's study were used to develop and construct a work motivation questionnaire with a forced-choice scoring technique (see chapter five). This chapter provides a background to the issue of motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service in order to explain its relevance to the sample population used for the purposes of this thesis. This will assist in gaining a better
understanding of the determinants of motivation among employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission. The aim of this section is not to provide an in-depth analysis of every aspect of motivation, but merely to provide an interpretation of certain theoretical foundations that were provided in chapters two and three.

The selection of an appropriate method to research the role of motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service is also subject to problems of a cultural and interpretive nature. To facilitate understanding of these issues, background is required on the environment, nature and role of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, which is achieved by surveying its historical evolution. The importance of environment and circumstances cannot be ignored if valid research results are to be obtained.

In addition, the chapter also explains the concept and application of representative bureaucracy in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. This is viewed as an indirect outcome of the historical evolution that has an indirect influence as a variable that may influence job satisfaction and motivation. An overview of the structure, categories of staff and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service is also provided. Moreover, the membership and structure as well as the powers and functions of the Federal Civil Service Commission are identified.

With regard to the above background and rationale for motivation in the Nigerian public sector, this chapter also discusses current motivational strategies employed in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

4.2 Background and rationale for motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service

As already mentioned, this thesis focuses on the determinants of motivation among civil service employees in Nigeria, with particular reference to the employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission. In a developing country like Nigeria, the motivation of public employees should be given serious attention by the government in view of the fact that it is the public sector that is expected to play the leading role in bringing about the rapid social, economic and political
development of society. The need for the government to pay adequate attention to the motivation of its employees is underscored by the popularly held view that the public services in Nigeria are performing poorly. Some of the labels used to describe public services in the country are that it is a bureaucracy characterised by gross inefficiency, laziness, corruption, waste, lack of motivation, absenteeism, nepotism, neglect of duties and generally poor performance. However, it is also generally agreed that the public services contribute to such development goals as resource utilisation, employment generation, as well as acting as a catalyst for gradual social change (Okere 1999:1-25).

Likewise, employees employed in the public services are also associated with poor commitment, low productivity, irresponsiveness, truancy, lateness, idleness and laxity (Khan 1981:7-11). Indeed, the average public employee in Nigeria is generally perceived as a non-performer or, at best, a poor performer. The contention is that the poor performance of the Nigerian public services is due partly to the inadequate motivation of employees. As Sanda (1993:4-16) put it: "largely because of the low level of motivation among workers, there has been little or no production efforts in Nigeria’s public sector."

According to Jakande (1993:1-3), it is common knowledge that the morale among Nigerian civil servants is at its lowest ebb. He stated that there is little or no motivation at all in the civil services. More recently, Okoh (2000:102) identified low morale and a lack of motivation, among others, as contributory factors to the poor performance of the Nigerian civil services.

But as Sanda (1993:4-16) acknowledged, only a highly motivated workforce can rejuvenate public bureaucracies, enhance performance, improve productivity and efficiency at all levels, and restore the trust and confidence of the people in government. As such, the subject of motivation is pertinent to civil service employees.

To discharge its task effectively, the public service must make efforts to improve performance to the fullest extent possible. Since the civil service, like any other organisation, depends on people for accomplishing its objectives, the
performance of the civil service is therefore partially dependent upon the performance of the civil servants it employs. In this regard, Kast and Rosenzweig (1985:642) rightly noted that "organizational performance results from the need to derive optimal performance from civil service employees." In the words of Phillips (1992:7-21):

"the performance of the civil service can be ignored only at the peril of the country and the government of the day. In fact, there is a strong sense in which a country is a close reflection of the effectiveness, efficiency and sensitivity of its civil service."

This implies that the civil services are supposed to reflect the quality of the human resource capacity of the government. Employee performance is considered to be a function not only of ability and effort but also of motivation. Hence, it is necessary to focus on identifying the determinants of motivation among Nigerian Federal Civil Service employees, as proper motivation can invigorate and propel them to greater heights in their work accomplishment.

Given the unique and vital role of the civil service in Nigeria, the appropriate measures to motivate civil servants in the country in order to bring about improved performance have become an issue of concern and interest to scholars, the government and the general populace alike. According to Ikelegbe (1995:200-214):

"The public (Civil) service generally, and particularly in developing societies like Nigeria, are [sic] critical to development and play such important roles that their performance is of concern to all. They design and plan most of the public programmes and implement them."

It is instructive in this regard that the President Olusegun Obasanjo promised that, in 2003, his government "will seek to create a civil service that is smaller, highly skilled, motivated and more productive" (Obasanjo 2002:14).
Public Administration and management literature, in general (see chapters two and three), is replete with reviews of what does and does not motivate people at work. For a scientific management scholar like Frederick Taylor, money was the great motivator, whereas for a human relations scholar like Elton Mayo, interpersonal relations with colleagues at work predominantly determine motivation. Similarly, behavioural scientists such as Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg also attempted to identify the factors that motivate people in the workplace. As indicated in chapter two, Maslow believed that both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors could motivate employees. As explained in chapter three, Herzberg submitted that only intrinsic job factors can motivate employees and that extrinsic job factors are merely hygiene factors as their absence cause dissatisfaction, but their presence does not lead to satisfaction. The extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic job factors influence the motivation of employees remains the subject of controversy among scholars to this day.

This study differs from Herzberg’s in a number of ways. A major point of departure in this investigation from Herzberg’s study is found in the research location or environment. Whereas Herzberg carried out his research in the United States, which is an affluent (developed) society with a Western culture, this present study was conducted in Nigeria, which is a relatively less affluent (developing) society with an African culture. Also, while Herzberg’s study was conducted across selected private sector organisations, this investigation is carried out in the public sector. Moreover, although Herzberg’s sample consisted only of highly educated, skilled professionals (engineers and accountants), the sample for this study cuts across civil servants representing all salary grade levels, as well as junior and senior cadres in the service with varied educational and skills levels. By implication, unlike Herzberg’s respondents, the sample of this study is not restricted only to highly educated professionals.

Herzberg’s dual-factor theory has not been adequately utilised in research and practice with regard to its potential application in the Nigerian work environment. This may be due to the tendency to see Herzberg’s theory more as a theory about job satisfaction than about motivation. This study seeks to close this gap by applying Herzberg’s theories to the Federal Civil Service Commission, which
epitomises the inadequate or low motivation levels that are prevalent in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

In applying existing motivation theories in a work environment, Amana (1992:16-19) noted that "the level of well-being and sophistication of the workforce determines what it perceives as important." This implies that the job factors that influence the work motivation of individuals may differ from place to place, from person to person, and from culture to culture.

This therefore negates attempts to evolve a single unifying theory of motivation. Moreover, motivational factors are difficult to determine because of the perpetual nature of individual wants, since for the average person, once one need is satisfied, another emerges. It is in this regard that this research set out to determine the actual job factors that motivate civil servants in Nigeria with particular reference to the Federal Civil Service Commission in order to be able to advance appropriate suggestions towards enhancing their levels of motivation. The study intends to apply Herzberg's dual-factor motivation theory to the Federal Civil Service Commission in an attempt to determine the relevance of this theory within the Nigerian work environment. The research thus seeks to confirm Herzberg's motivation theories through additional corroboration of the findings, albeit within a significantly different environment.

Appropriate, relevant and high quality information on the subject of motivation is widely available in literature (see chapter two). However, the review of relevant literature indicates that studies of motivation were mainly approached from a foreign or international perspective. Leading motivation theorists such as Maslow, Herzberg, Vroom, Porter and Lawler, McClelland, Alderfer, Skinner, Adams and Locke are all foreigners and non-Nigerians. Herzberg himself, the main author of the dual-factor theory, was an American.

The studies of motivation by these foreign scholars are culture-bound. Therefore, these literature sources do not adequately reflect the Nigerian work situation. To overcome this perceived deficiency in the literature, the researcher also had to
source local literature that dealt with work and motivation-related issues in the Nigerian context.

Ajayi (1980:98-109) carried out a study of job satisfaction among a selected group of secondary school teachers in Nigeria. The study revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic work factors are significant in enhancing job satisfaction among these teachers.

Fatoba (1995) conducted an investigation into work motivation and management in a depressed economy using a mass transportation company in Nigeria as a case study. The study used a random sample of 114 employees and found that salary, opportunity for advancement, job security, medical facilities, training and development, and fringe benefits, in this order, were ranked the highest as factors affecting the motivation of employees.

Oliodi (1997) examined the role of motivation in improving job performance in a chemical company in Nigeria. Data was collected from 304 employees and the research results indicated that competitive salary, promotion and participation, in this order, were ranked the most important motivating factors.

In another study, Yomere (1998:38-51) examined the relative influence of external and internal variables of jobs on the level of job satisfaction of employees in selected brewery and bottling companies in the Kaduna metropolis of Nigeria. Data was gathered from 135 employees of these companies. In respect of the total sample, the findings were that the job satisfaction of employees is significantly influenced by external variables, while the influence of internal variables on the levels of joy satisfaction was low. The study also established a preference dichotomy between junior staff and managerial staff with respect to the influence of external and internal variables on the levels of job satisfaction. Junior staff expressed a preference for external variables as satisfiers. In contrast, managerial (senior) staff rejected the external variables as factors determining their levels of job satisfaction.
Similarly, the statistical test for internal variables yielded contrasting results. While junior staff attached little importance to the power of internal variables to influence their levels of job satisfaction, managerial (senior) staff rated them as highly significant.

Bello (2000) undertook a study to carry out an appraisal of the major motivational factors in the Nigerian public service. He concluded in his research findings that there was mixed evidence concerning the perceived importance of the intrinsic and extrinsic variables of jobs. Respondents were as influenced by motivation factors as by hygiene factors, contrary to Herzberg’s position that hygiene factors do not motivate.

Adigun (2000:372-378) tested the applicability of the assumption made by the dual-factor theory to the motivation and job satisfaction of employees in Turkey, Cyprus, Nigeria and Britain in a study that used content analyses of critical incident stories. It was found that factors associated with the work attitude of employees from these nations could be separated into two relatively independent sets of variables comparable to the motivator-hygiene duality. Both sets of variables, however, showed a positive and negative impact on work motivation. Comparisons between the four samples indicated that the Nigerian sample was less motivated by job content factors than the other three samples. Thus, these results only partially supported the assumption of the dual-factor theory.

Machungwa (1983:1-12) conducted a study in Zambia in order to determine the factors affecting work motivation in developing countries. A large group of Zambian subjects from a variety of organisations and occupational categories were interviewed about the types of incidents that would affect their motivation to work hard. Content analyses of the interviews revealed that the primary factors influencing work motivation were advancement opportunities, task characteristics, salary and work conditions, co-employee relationships, organisational practices and personal problems. These factors were used to develop a work motivation questionnaire, which was completed by 80 respondents. The validity of the work motivation factors was confirmed. The determinants of work motivation in developing countries do not appear to be significantly different from those in

Chapter 4
industrialised nations, although the importance of some determinants may differ across cultures.

Miller (1980:337), in her study on individual and occupational satisfaction, found that job satisfaction was greater among employees in jobs that were more secure and highly paid.

The National Capacity Assessment Report (Nigeria/World Bank 2000) revealed, among others, that as a result of a lack of job satisfaction, a significant proportion more of the respondents in a survey based on selected public employees in Nigeria indicated their willingness to quit the public service for better job opportunities elsewhere.

In the face of challenging economic conditions, particularly in developing countries such as Nigeria, researchers and academics have continued to show a keen interest in finding out which of the job factors are responsible for stimulating the "will" to work.

4.3 The historical evolution of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service

The Nigerian Federal Civil Service is an offspring of the British Colonial Civil Service. In 1900, Britain formally established political control over erstwhile sovereign indigenous communities that, together, had come to be known as Nigeria (see Coleman 1958:41-50). For the purposes of administration, Nigeria was divided into three administrative units: the colony of Lagos and the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria. In 1906, the colony of Lagos was merged with the protectorate of Southern Nigeria. By 1914, the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria were amalgamated.

Although a single civil service was not established for the whole country immediately after amalgamation, lieutenant-governors were appointed to head the Northern and Southern administrations, respectively. They reported to a single governor-general who was at the head of the Nigerian secretariat. The
Nigerian secretariat was in full control of the colonial secretariats, which were headed by the two lieutenant-governors. The secretariats in each of these areas were not autonomous but took directives from the Nigerian secretariat. The Home Office in Britain only related directly with the Nigerian secretariat.

The head of the colonial civil service was the governor-general, who was accountable to the colonial secretary in London. The colonial secretary, in turn, was accountable to the British cabinet and the parliament. The governor-general delegated his authority to the chief secretary, who was the effective head of the service. The chief secretary coordinated the entire service, which was divided into two major parts – the departmental administration and the political administration. The departmental administration covered the technical and professional functions of the colonial regime. It was organised along functional lines such as education, health, agriculture, treasury, forestry, public works and audit. Departmental heads assisted the chief secretary. The political or field administration consisted of the lieutenant-governor, the residents and the district officers. Indeed, field officers constituted the pillars of colonial administration as, apart from maintaining law and order, they also supervised the activities of the departmental administration located within their areas of jurisdiction (Nwosu 1977:42-44).

Thus, the provincial secretariats were merely grassroots offices of the Nigerian secretariat. This unitary administrative set-up remained unchanged until the regionalisation of the country in 1946 as a result of the Richards Constitution. It was effectively in 1954, following the Lyttleton Federal Constitution, that the unitary Nigerian colonial civil service was replaced by a federal and three regional civil services – one each for the Northern, Eastern and Western regions, respectively. Each of the civil services was autonomous within its own sphere of competence.

The Federal Public Service Commission, which metamorphosed into the present Federal Civil Service Commission, was established on 1 April 1954 through a resolution made in the Nigerian Constitution of 1954. The order provided that the commission shall advise the government generally on any matter regarding the
appointment of any person to an office in the public service, or any other matter that in the opinion of the government affects the public service.

Also as a result of this order, the Federal Public Service Commission embraced all posts in respect of which funds were provided in the federal annual estimates. The commission initially only functioned as an advisory body but was later empowered to appoint, promote, transfer, second, dismiss and discipline all career public servants.

Nigeria became an independent country on 1 October 1960 with the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and regional civil services and their respective civil service commissions already in place. When the Midwest region was carved out of the Western region in August 1963, a new civil service was established for the newly created region. The creation of 12 states in 1967, 19 states in 1976, 21 states in 1987 and 30 states in 1991 led to the growth from 12, 19, 21 to 30 state civil services in addition to the Nigerian Federal Civil Service at the centre. The last state creation exercise carried out in 1996 gave rise to the current 36 state structures within the federation. The implication of the existence of 36 states in the Nigerian federation is that 36 state civil services, as well as the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, and respective civil service commissions now exist alongside one another in Nigeria.

Since Nigeria’s political independence in 1960, ways to improve the productivity of the civil service have continuously engaged the attention of the government. Invariably, the issue of motivating civil service employees for optimum performance is usually considered only as part of larger reform efforts. The genesis of the post-independence administrative reform exercises began with the Morgan Commission in 1963. This commission recommended a general review of salaries and wages and the division of the country into national economic zones in terms of geographical areas for the purpose of determining salaries and wages. The report eventually led to the introduction of minimum wages in the country, although these were geographically based.
The Elwood review panel of 1964 then followed. The review panel was essentially a grading team, although it also addressed the disparity in remuneration between the top and bottom levels of the public service. The Adebo commission was set up on 14 July 1970 with the main task to review wages and salaries. The commission confined itself to an interim salary award in 1971 to ease the erosion of real incomes in the civil service. The commission defined the tasks of top management and expected officers serving at this level to possess the capacity to "plan, appraise, motivate and direct" (Nigeria 1971). It therefore also recommended a revision of the ethos of the civil service.

The Udoji public service review commission was set up on 13 September 1972, on the recommendation of the Adebo commission. The Udoji commission was to examine, among others, the organisation, structure and management of the public service. Unlike earlier reviews that were mainly concerned with salaries and wages, the Udoji commission's recommendations were far-reaching. The commission sought to create a linkage between performance and motivation by proposing equitable pay and other benefits to civil servants. The main report of the Udoji commission is replete with many recommendations on areas such as the organisation and structure of the civil service, modern management techniques — management by objectives, project management and programme and performance budgeting — systematic training programmes and positive attitudinal change (Nigeria 1974). Apart from the monetary reward aspects of the report, most of its other recommendations were not implemented at all, or were only partially or haphazardly implemented.

The Phillips report of 1985 as well as the Koshoni task force of 1985 gave rise to the civil service (reorganisation) Decree no 43 of 1988. The aim of the 1988 reform was to make the civil service results-oriented and efficient. The reform exercise led to a major structural reorganisation of the civil service. The major thrusts of this review were the professionalisation and politicisation of appointments to the top echelon of the civil service. There were two sides to professionalisation under the reforms: professionalisation through departmentalisation and through training (Nigeria 1988). Although largely
implemented, the 1988 reforms were strongly resisted by the civil servants themselves.

The intense criticisms that trailed the 1988 reforms informed the appointment of the civil service review panel headed by Allison Ayida in 1994. In its recommendations, the Ayida panel reversed most of the changes introduced by the 1988 reforms. The review panel recommended, among others, the following:

- The civil service (reorganisation) Decree no 43 of 1988 and its Amendment Decree no 80 of 1993 should be abrogated and the civil service should revert to the system in which it is guided by the relevant provisions of the constitution, the civil service rules, financial regulations and circulars.

- Personnel management functions in the civil service should be left to the Federal Civil Service Commission with delegated powers to the ministries.

- The retirement age in the civil service should be 60 years irrespective of the length of service.

- The government should harmonise the pension rates of those who retired before 1991 and those who retired since 1991.

- Salaries, allowances and welfare packages of civil servants should be substantially reviewed upwards and should be adjusted annually to ameliorate the effect of inflation, and discourage corruption (Nigeria 1997).

The Nigerian public service is currently undergoing yet another administrative reform exercise. The main objective of the current public service reform is to produce a better skilled and motivated workforce across the entire public service, to use resources productively and to become more responsive to citizen needs and more effective in service delivery. The programme therefore seeks to ensure that the public service is revitalised, and its role redefined and refocused for effective service delivery. Major thrusts of the reform include re-
professionalisation of the public service through massive retraining of existing employees, effective expenditure management, including the monetisation of fringe benefits, as well as the due process mechanism to promote transparency and accountability in government business. It is too early to assess the impact of the ongoing Obasanjo public sector reforms on the motivation of civil servants in Nigeria. But it is clear that the shoddy implementation of the monetization of fringe benefits as part of the reform exercise leaves much to be desired and can actually demotivate rather than motivate civil service employees.

Generally, administrative reforms in independent Nigeria have failed to produce and sustain motivating conditions in the civil service. This is because most of these reform programmes have paid only scant attention to employee motivation and tended to seek to promote the welfare of civil servants mainly through the provision of economic or monetary incentives to the exclusion of other potent motivation factors. The use of commissions for wage and salary determination has been a feature and bane of the public service pay system in Nigeria. Besides the specific recommendations of the different public service review commissions, there has been some efforts to motivate civil servants through the introduction of welfare schemes like pensions and gratuities, housing and transport allowances, meal subsidies, fringe benefits and vehicle-refurbishing loans. The effectiveness of staff welfare schemes in the civil service is doubtful, because whatever salutary effects are derived from these schemes, these are often eroded by the general rising costs within the Nigerian economy.

4.4 The application of representative bureaucracy in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service through the federal character policy

Kingsley developed the concept of representative bureaucracy in 1944. Every social group in a given society, according to Kingsley (1944), has a right to participate in their governing institutions. Consequently, he viewed a representative bureaucracy as a bureaucracy that, in terms of its personnel, reflects the interests of the varying social units that exist in the society. To Riper (1958:552), representative bureaucracy is "a body of officials which is broadly
representative of the society in which it functions, and which in social ideals are as close as possible to the grassroots of the nations."

The underlying principle of representative bureaucracy is that the personnel of a public bureaucracy should reflect the social composition of the population residing within the society it is set up to serve. Over the years, a normative approach to the concept of representative bureaucracy has developed – that all social groups should occupy bureaucratic positions in direct proportion to their numerical strength in the general population (see Krislov & Rosenbloom 1981).

Representative bureaucracy therefore emphasises representative recruitment rather than merit recruitment as it favours recruitment into the public bureaucracy on the basis of identifiable social cleavages in the society. These social cleavages may be ethnic, class, race, sex, religion, or even geography (i.e. region or state). Obviously, based on its peculiar needs and unique problems, every society would emphasise one or more of these criteria more than the others. To Rae and Taylor (1970:1), cleavages are the criteria that divide the members of a community or sub-community into groups with important political differences at specific times and places. In the words of Flanagan (1973:64), cleavages are "potential lines of division within any society."

As a participatory concept, representative bureaucracy is perhaps more crucial in a federal system of government than in any other form of political arrangement precisely because it is considered essential for all component political units in the federation to be involved in its decision-making and executing process. This implies therefore that to facilitate the success of a federal system, the federating units or political communities must be made to feel "part and parcel of the whole" by ensuring that some of their members are involved in the decision-making and executing institutions of the central government. As such, it is perhaps in the context of the demand for an equitable representation in federal institutions by the federating units in the Nigerian federal system that the federal character policy should be examined.
The instrument for achieving representative bureaucracy in Nigeria is the so-called “federal character policy”. Afigbo (1989:3-18) submitted that the phrase “federal character of Nigeria” must be taken to mean simply the character of the Nigerian federation. Afigbo (1989:3-18) further asserted that it is perhaps only in the light of history that the meaning of the concept can be fully grasped. According to him, although it was only given this name in 1977 by the constitutional drafting committee, the problem now known as the “federal character” has existed in Nigeria in different forms, and with varying degrees of urgency since about 1898 when the British made the administrative amalgamation of what later came to be known as Nigeria one of their distant goals.

Olagunju (1987:33-38) maintained that the nature of Nigerian politics and the form it took in the past gave rise to the need for a concept that would ensure the fair distribution of resources in an association of unequal partners. Following this, he put forward that one way of viewing the concept of “federal character” is as a participatory concept. In his own words: “[i]t is a system, deliberately designed, to accommodate less dominant but forcibly expressed interest.” These demands, according to Olagunju, arose out of the nature of Nigeria’s political practice as well as the nature of public policy” (Olagunju 1987:33-38). According to Olangunju (1987:17-18), the concept of “federal character” should be seen as a deliberate design to construct and devise a means of ensuring the proper distribution of amenities and government projects in the country (Nigeria), as well as an attempt to devise a formula for fair representation – it is a recognition and affirmation of the principle that recruitment to public institutions must recognise the diversity of the country.

The term “federal character” may also be seen simply in terms of the principle that was first introduced and entrenched in the 1979 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. It stressed that the composition of the federal government and its agencies must be carried out in such a manner that it reflects the plurality of Nigeria, as well as ensures that there shall be no preponderance of persons from a few ethnic or other sectional groups to the exclusion of others in the government. This would support the government and its agencies in promoting
national unity and commanding national loyalty (see Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1979). It is important to note that this constitutional requirement has been retained in the 1999 constitution (see Nigeria 1999: Section 14(3) and 14(4)).

For the purpose of implementing the federal character policy in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, two specific strategies are applied: representative recruitment and transfer of services. These strategies are briefly discussed below.

4.4.1 Representative recruitment

Representation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service is achieved through the recruitment of an equal number of persons from each state in the federation at the entry points (grade levels 07-10) for the higher civil service. In respect of the junior service (grade level 06 and below), local people from the state or catchment areas (as the case may be) where the federal establishment is located, are recruited to fill available vacancies in the institution concerned. Even in the professional cadre, where possible, adequate attention is also paid to the requirements of federal character in filling vacancies. In applying the federal character policy, persons are not appointed to posts for which they do not have the basic qualifications or meet the basic requirements.

4.4.2 Transfer of services

Persons from states that are underrepresented in the different grades (especially in respect of the higher civil service) in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service may be recruited through lateral entry – that is, through transfers from other scheduled or government establishments (predominantly state or local government) in order to achieve state or ethnic balance in the civil service. The procedure is for the individual candidate wishing to transfer to the Nigerian Federal Civil Service from other government organisations to apply formally through his/her head of department to the Federal Civil Service Commission for consideration.
Also, state governments that feel that their local citizens are underrepresented in the civil service on federal level may recommend suitable candidates who are originally from their states to the Federal Civil Service Commission for transfer to the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. Although transfers usually occur on a lateral basis — that is, from one grade level to a corresponding grade level — transfers may also be offered with a promotion. Transfer of service to all grade levels is possible, but the optimum levels are the entry grades 07 to 10 and the training grades for senior management, specifically grade levels 12 to 13. For the highest career post — the post of permanent secretary — care is taken to ensure that no one or group of states is allowed a monopoly of all the positions available at that level. At least one permanent secretary is usually appointed from each state of the federation.

According to the 1988 civil service reforms document, applications for transfer of service must be made to the ministry in accordance with advertised posts, supported by the following:

- Evidence of qualifications;

- Satisfactory annual performance review (APER) forms for the two years immediately preceding the date of the application;

- The officer's record of service showing clearly the career progression of the applicant; and

- A recommendation from the applicant's employer, including statement that the officer will be released if the application is successful.

Officers may only be considered for transfer if they have been confirmed and their qualifications, experience and career progression are:

- Comparable to those of officers already in the grade to which they are seeking transfer;
• Superior to those officers in the grade just below that to which they seek to be transferred.

Although caution is exercised not to jeopardise the careers of competent and hardworking officers, it does appear that persons from so-called underrepresented states in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service tend to be at an advantage in progressing through the rank-and-file of the service. This obviously contradicts the 1988 civil service reforms stipulation that, apart from faithfully adhering to the principle of federal character at the point of entry, the criteria for promotion should thereafter be based on the principle of experience, performance on the job, length of service, good conduct, relevant qualifications, training, performance during a competitive interview and success in the relevant examination.

4.5 The structure and the categories of staff in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service

In 1999, the consolidated number of employees in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service stood at 238,372 (Nigeria/World Bank 2002:42-43) and, in 2002, at about 200,000 strong (Otobo 2002:298). According to Ujo (2000:1), employees of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service are those who work in the following organisations:

• Nigerian Federal Civil Service
• State civil services
• Local government
• Federal and state public corporations
• Commissions, councils and government authorities
• Educational Institutions established or financed by government
• Nigeria Police Force
• Armed forces
• Judiciary.
The Nigerian Federal Civil Service consists of ministries and extra-ministerial departments. The head of the service is the most senior civil servant in the career civil service. A minister who is the political head heads a typical ministry. Next to the minister is the permanent secretary who is the most senior career civil servant in a ministry. Each ministry has three common services departments – personnel management, finance and supplies, and planning, research and statistics – as well as five operational departments. A director on grade level 17 heads each department. Also, each ministry has three units directly responsible to the ministry — internal audit, legal and public relations. Next to the rank of director, are deputy directors on grade level 16 who head divisions. Assistant directors on grade level 15 head each branch, while a chief administrative officer on grade level 14 heads each section. Below these grades are other officers from grade level 13 to 01 who perform various functions in the ministry.

As far back as 1945, the Harragin Commission had recommended the creation of a dichotomous class structure — the senior service and the junior service. However, by 1954, it became obvious that the structure was in need of review as the absence of an intermediate class between the senior and junior class meant that the essential middle-level supervisory functions were either carried out by senior officers or were totally neglected.

The Gorsuch commission of 1954 sought to correct this anomaly by proposing the classification of the civil service into five broad classes to replace the junior and senior services that existed prior to 1954. These classes were each divided into several cadres. Despite the fact that it has undergone some modifications over time, the Nigerian Federal Civil Service remains essentially a British class-oriented system. The integrated structure that exists in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service today is pyramidal in shape based on a hierarchy with each class given responsibility according to its importance and status. From top to bottom, this pyramid has the following classes of personnel:

- Administrative, professional and scientific/research (officers) classes
- Executive and technical classes
• Secretarial class
• Clerical/junior technical and sub-technical classes and
• Miscellaneous and unestablished grades (Nigeria 1997:19-21).

4.5.1 The administrative class

This class of officers is principally responsible for policy advice, as well as the supervision of the implementation of government policies under the direction of their respective ministers. To be recruited directly into the administrative class, an individual must hold a university degree with at least a 2nd class honours, but graduates with a 3rd class honours degree plus a postgraduate diploma in Public Administration may also be admitted into this class. New entrants into the class must be successful in a competitive interview.

Figure 4.1: Posts in the administrative class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Super scale</td>
<td>Head of the civil service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super scale</td>
<td>Permanent secretary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Deputy director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Assistant director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Chief administrative officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Assistant chief administrative officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Principal administrative officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Senior administrative officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Administrative officer, grade I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Administrative officer, grade II</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.2 Professional/scientific/research class

This class is comparable to the British specialist class and includes the scientific civil service and the works group. Examples of professional personnel are medical doctors, lawyers, educationists, architects, agricultural officers, surveyors, as well as those in scientific or research posts such as geologists, chemists, physicists, meteorologists and research officers. Persons in this class usually possess university degrees or professional and scientific qualifications comparable to a university degree. The salary structure of this class is at a par
with that of the administrative class, but it is usual to set a premium on these professional/scientific/research posts and give them enhanced salaries or higher points of entry. Promotion from a lower class to the professional class is most unusual unless the required professional qualification is obtained. Each officer in this class bears a functional title reflecting his/her profession or specialisation.

Figure 4.2: Posts in the professional/scientific/research class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Functional title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Director of X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Deputy director of X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Assistant director of X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Chief X officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Assistant chief X officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Principal X officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Senior X officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>X officer, grade I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>X officer, grade II</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3 Executive and technical classes

The primary function of officials in the executive class is policy implementation as directed by their superior officers. Their duties are of a general nature, including routine accounting work. Executive class officers who perform non-technical duties discharge considerable supervisory work. To gain direct entry into this class, a person has to possess a General Certificate of Education (GCE) Advanced Level, or Higher School Certificate (HSC) in at least two subjects, or an Ordinary National Diploma (OND) in addition to successfully going through a competitive interview. The executive class falls into two groups – executive officers (general duties) and executive officers (accounts).

Deserving members of the executive class may be converted to the administrative class or, if they are engaged in accounting work, to the cadre of accountants.
Figure 4.3: Posts in the executive officer class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Chief executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Assistant chief executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Principal executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Senior executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Higher executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Assistant executive officer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The technical class corresponds to the executive class. Officers in this class perform sub-professional work. They are expected to relieve professional or scientific officers of all routine work and to be able to supervise field operations. Although there is no uniform method for entry into this class, direct entry candidates are usually drawn from secondary school leavers with post-secondary school technical training of various durations. Officers who perform technical duties, for which technical or technological rather than professional qualifications are necessary, are graded in grade level 06 upwards.

Figure 4.4: Posts in the technical officer class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Chief technical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Assistant chief technical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Principal technical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Senior technical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Higher technical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Technical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Assistant technical officer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.4 The secretarial class

The secretarial class consists of a pool of stenographic officers for posting to any ministry or extra-ministerial department as required. It is controlled by the permanent secretary, public service office, and the office of the head of service of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service (Nigeria 2000b:01003). This class is responsible for all typing, stenography, reporting and other secretarial duties of the civil service. The two main cadres in this class are the typist and secretarial
cadres. Appropriate post-secondary school training in typing, shorthand and secretarial studies is required for recruitment into this class.

**Figure 4.5: Posts in the typist cadre**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Chief typist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Senior typist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Typist, grade I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Typist, grade II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Typist, grade III</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.6: Posts in the secretarial cadre**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Chief confidential secretary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Principal confidential secretary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Senior confidential secretary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Confidential secretary, grade I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Confidential secretary, grade II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Confidential secretary, grade III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Confidential secretary, grade IV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.5 Clerical/junior technical and sub-clerical/sub-technical classes

Persons belonging to the clerical class undertake the routine clerical duties of their respective departments by receiving instructions or directives from their superior officers. The work of the sub-clerical class has been described as comprising all the simpler clerical duties not assigned to the clerical class. The minimum educational qualification of direct entrants to the clerical class is the West African School Certificate with two credits plus three passes at one sitting (including English language), or three credits plus two passes at one sitting (including English language), or six passes at one sitting (including English language), or the General Certificate of Education (Ordinary Level) with passes in at least four subjects including English language. Promising members of the clerical class may be promoted to the executive class from the grade of senior clerical officer and above.
Figure 4.7: Posts in the clerical class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade level</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Chief clerical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Senior clerical officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Clerical officer, grade I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Clerical officer, grade II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Clerical assistant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sub-clerical class consists of clerical assistants. The minimum educational qualification for a clerical assistant is certificate S.75 or secondary IV. Clerical assistants with five years' service may be promoted to the standard clerical grade if they pass the combined confirmation/promotion test at promotional level.

The qualifications of civil service employees in junior technical and sub-technical classes are the same as those of clerical and sub-clerical grades, although a pass in science subjects such as physics, chemistry, mathematics and biology is essential for appointment. The members of this class are usually found in the professional ministries and extra-ministerial departments. They either work in the field or in laboratories in support of technical, as well as scientific and professional officers. Their functions and remuneration correspond to those of the clerical and sub-clerical classes. Deserving officers in the junior technical class are usually recruited as technical officers because their duties give them some knowledge of the basic scientific principles that are prerequisites for technical training.

After having explored the different classes of civil servants in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, the next section will briefly consider the most important functions the service fulfils.

4.6 Functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service

Broadly speaking, there are seven vital functions that the Nigerian Federal Civil Service performs (see Damle 1979:9-30; Longe 1982:68-69; Nigeria 1997:17; Abdulsalami 1990). These functions are policy advice, policy implementation,
policy formulation, continuity of government, feedback mechanism and change agent. They are briefly explained below.

4.6.1 Policy advice

One main role of the civil service is to advise the legitimate political leadership on matters of policy. In this regard, the civil service plays an indispensable advisory role in studying and identifying problems, articulating various policy options, predicting consequences for society, and recommending the most viable course of action to the government. The civil service renders professional and technical advice to those who are constitutionally empowered to formulate state policy based on the totality of knowledge, experience and expertise available within its various ministries and departments. Civil servants are duty-bound to advise on the implications of a policy or action and to give honest and impartial advice on matters of public interest.

4.6.2 Policy implementation

Once the political leadership decides and commits itself to a specific policy, the onus then falls on the civil service to ensure the faithful implementation and attainment of the policy objectives. The civil service contributes to the effective and realistic implementation of the declared objectives and programmes of the government through careful analysis of the issues, identification of the constraints, and suggestions of the most appropriate strategies for implementation, having regarded the available human, financial and material resources necessary to carry out approved programmes faithfully. According to Self (1977:24), public administration is ultimately concerned with the identification of goals, the analysis of policies and their efficient implementation.

4.6.3 Policy formulation

The civil service is required to assist the legitimate political leadership in formulating public policy. Part of the task of the civil service is also to make direct input into policy formulation and to participate in the decision-making processes.
The higher civil service invariably participates in policy formulation particularly in developing countries like Nigeria that desires rapid development. The high level of (skilled and trained) manpower, as well as the volume and quality of information available to the civil service make them critical factors in policy formulation.

4.6.4 Continuity of government business

The civil service ensures continuity in government business irrespective of the government in power and the type of regime, whether military or civilian. Indeed, in the event of a sudden change of government or if it comes under military rule, it is even more incumbent on the civil service to continue its traditional role as a means of ensuring that the orderly administration of the country is continuous.

4.6.5 Custodian of the government's reputation

The civil service has acquired another added responsibility – that of custodian of the government's reputation. In this respect, the civil service has become so inextricably intertwined with the government that the failure of the civil service to carry out government policies faithfully and efficiently could undermine the government's credibility and the stability of its tenure. Paradoxically also, any grievance against the civil service is usually expressed as a sign of discontent against a policy of the government, or the way in which it is being implemented.

4.6.6 Feedback mechanism

The civil service, through its feedback channels, provides the government with one of its (government's) most credible assessments of the public pulse thereby helping to bridge the gulf between the people (governed) and their political leaders (governors).
4.6.7 Change agent

The civil service is supposed to operate as an agent of innovation and change. Indeed, the bureaucracy, according to Damle (1979:9-30), also has to facilitate change in attitudes and approaches.

4.7 Membership and structure of the Federal Civil Service Commission

A report in 2001 of the Federal Civil Service Commission put the staff strength of the commission at 726 (excluding the permanent secretary and commissioners whose appointments are largely political) (Nigeria 2001:6). Thus, the 726 career civil servants who are currently working in the Federal Civil Service Commission constitute the population or universe of this thesis. Of these 726 career civil servants, 305 are senior officers on salary grade levels 07 to 17 while the remaining 421 personnel are junior officers on salary grade level 01 to 06.

The choice of the Federal Civil Service Commission (see chapter five) as sampling population was driven by the following considerations:

- The Federal Civil Service Commission is officially classified as an extra-ministerial department of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. It is therefore part and parcel of the federal civil service in the country and subject to the same representation requirements that apply throughout the service.

- The Federal Civil Service Commission is mainly staffed by career civil servants from all segments of Nigerian society, making it even more representative of civil servants in Nigeria.

- Its population in terms of staff strength (726 as of 31 December 2000) is manageable for research purposes.
The geographical location of the Federal Civil Service Commission is convenient as the organisation is located in the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja, with only one liaison office in Lagos.

The composition of the Federal Civil Service Commission is specified in part 1(D) paragraph 101 of the third schedule of the 1999 Constitution. According to this provision, the Federal Civil Service Commission shall comprise the following members:

- a chairman; and
- not more than 15 other members, who shall be, in the opinion of the president, persons of unquestionable integrity and sound political judgment (Nigeria 1999).

The members of the commission – who hold office for a period of five years beginning from the date of their first appointment – are chosen from the different geopolitical zones of the country (Nigeria) and are of vast and varied administrative experiences. Each member (designated commissioner) is assigned to oversee a number of state and federal ministries, and extra-ministerial departments. Members of the commission meet regularly to consider briefs on recommendations from ministries and extra-ministerial departments on appointments, secondments, transfers, promotions, disciplinary matters and other matters arising. They also attend meetings of senior staff committees of ministries and extra-ministerial departments as observers. The recommendations of such meetings are submitted to the Federal Civil Service Commission not later than six weeks from the date of the meetings of the committees for consideration (Nigeria 2000a:3).

In terms of structure, the Federal Civil Service Commission has a chairman, fifteen commissioners, a permanent secretary, six directors and a host of other supporting staff (Nigeria 2000a:3). In order to achieve its objectives and perform effectively, the commission operates a secretariat with a permanent secretary in charge, assisted by six directors. The secretariat consists of three operations
departments, three common services departments, three units and a liaison office in Lagos. The operations departments focus on recruitment and appointments, promotions, and discipline and appeals. The departments of personnel management; planning, research and statistics; and finance and supplies take care of common services. The commission also has a public relations unit; legal unit; and internal audit unit (Nigeria 2000a:5-25).

4.7.1 Recruitment and appointment department

This department is charged with the responsibility of processing applications for employment into the Nigerian Federal Civil Service on salary grade levels 07 to 10 posts in accordance with the extant rules and regulations. It is also responsible for processing all applications for transfer and secondment of officers into and out of the federal civil service.

4.7.2 Promotion department

The promotion department is charged with the statutory responsibility of processing promotions, acting appointments, upgradings, advancements and conversions of officers in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. It directly handles the promotion and related matters of deserving officers on salary grade levels 07 to 16. The junior staff committees of the various extra-ministerial departments process the promotion of officers on salary grade levels 01 to 06.

4.7.3 Discipline and appeals department

This department handles disciplinary matters and considers appeals from affected officers. In addition, the department provides support to the legal unit as the appropriate schedule officers of the department always accompany the legal officers to court to serve as witnesses to the commission during proceedings.
4.7.4 Personnel management department

The personnel management department is responsible for all staff matters in the commission, which includes appointments, promotions and disciplinary matters, as well as staff welfare and training. This department caters only for the civil servants working in the commission rather than for those working in the entire Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

4.7.5 Planning, research and statistics department

The department is divided into two divisions: planning, and research and statistics. The planning division handles all planning activities of the commission while the research and statistics division is responsible for the research and statistical activities of the commission. The statistics branch is charged, specifically, with the responsibility of data production encompassing a whole range of activities such as collection, processing, storage, retrieval, basic analysis and dissemination of information relating to the constitutional responsibilities of the Federal Civil Service Commission. The branch also generates data on manpower statistics of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service in order to provide qualitative input into the formulation of policies that concern the entire civil service.

4.7.6 Finance and supplies department

The finance and supplies department is in charge of matters concerning the accounts, supplies, budget, stores and transport needs of the Federal Civil Service Commission.

4.7.7 Public relations unit

This unit handles the information and image-making function for the Federal Civil Service Commission.
4.7.8 Legal unit

The unit offers legal opinion and interprets the law and the Constitution on matters relating to employment, promotion and discipline of public officers. These duties are constitutionally vested in the commission. The unit also carries out legal drafting and litigation work, which involves, where appropriate, representing the commission in all court cases.

4.7.9 Internal audit unit

This unit carries out a continuous auditing of the accounts and records of revenue and expenditure of the commission, as well as the examination and review of the systems and procedures to ensure compliance with the provisions of the public service rules, financial regulations and financial accounting circulars issued by the ministry of finance, the treasury and the secretary to the government of the federation, respectively. The unit also ensures adequate assessment of the means for verification of all cash and stores held by the commission.

4.7.10 Liaison office, Lagos

The liaison office in Lagos serves primarily as the link between the commission’s headquarters in Abuja and other government offices and parastatal organisations still located in Lagos. This office also provides protocol services to members of the commission travelling in and out of Lagos.

4.8 Powers and functions of the Federal Civil Service Commission

The Federal Civil Service Commission is a constitutional body, established under section 153(i)d of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Part 1(D) paragraph II of the third schedule of the 1999 Constitution stated that the commission should, without prejudice to the powers vested in the president, the National Judicial Council, the Federal Judicial Service Commission, the National Population Commission and the Police Service Commission, have power:

- to appoint persons to offices in the Federal Civil Service; and
• to dismiss and exercise disciplinary control over persons holding such offices.

However, the commission shall not exercise any of its powers in respect of such offices of heads of divisions of ministries or of departments of the government of the Federation as may, from time to time, be designated by an order made by the president except after consultation with the head of the civil service of the federation (Nigeria 1999). Furthermore, the Federal Civil Service Commission has no power over those appointments that are the exclusive responsibility of the head of state or other arms or functionaries of the government such as:

• A judge of the supreme court of Nigeria
• Any officer in the Nigeria Police Force
• Principal representatives of the Republic of Nigeria overseas such as ambassadors and high commissioners or
• A justice of the peace (Nigeria 1997:18).

Section 170 of the 1999 Constitution empowers the Federal Civil Service Commission to delegate any of its powers and functions as it deems fit. In line with this constitutional provision, the commission therefore delegated some of its powers of appointment, promotion and discipline of officers on salary grade levels 01 to 06 and the discipline of officers on salary grade levels 07 to 13 to ministries and extra-ministerial departments. This is to guard against possible delays and to allow for the devolution of administrative powers in view of the crucial role it is expected to play as the regulatory authority of the federal civil service. It is mandatory, however, for the ministries and extra-ministerial departments to render regular returns on all delegated powers to the commission in order to enable the commission to monitor and ascertain the extent of their compliance with laid-down procedure (Nigeria 2000a:1). Section 158(i) of the 1999 Constitution provides for the independence of the commission, along with some other federal executive bodies, in the exercise of their constitutional powers and functions from direction or control of any other authority or person.
Current motivational strategies in the Nigerian Civil Service

Civil service Decree no 43 of 1988, the Federal Government Public Service Rules and Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/371 of 27 June 2003 have all provided details of operational measures to enhance employee motivation and hopefully performance in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. The current motivational measures can be categorised into two groups. The first concerns those that are directly tied to job performance. These are rewards that are awarded on merit following satisfactory performance by employees, with the hope that such rewards will further motivate beneficiaries while making hard work attractive to officers with records of unsatisfactory performance. These measures include promotions, salary increments, confirmation of appointments, training and rewards for outstanding work.

The second category of measures applied to motivate civil service employees perform better are those fringe benefits that are automatically awarded to all staff irrespective of their performance in order to create an enabling environment for peak performance. The application does not necessarily depend on the level of performance as these are considered to be the entitlement of each public employee. However, these fringe benefits are usually scaled on the basis of seniority or status in the service. These include residential accommodation allowances, furniture allowances, utility allowances, domestic servant allowances, motor vehicle loans, fuelling, maintenance and transport allowances, support for medical treatment, meal subsidies and entertainment allowances, as well as pensions and gratuities. Each of these motivational measures and strategies will be briefly examined below.

4.9.1 Promotions

Public service Rule 02702 states that promotions shall be made strictly on the basis of competitive merit from among all eligible candidates and that, in assessing the merit of officers, a clear distinction shall be made between their records of performance or efficiency in lower grades and their potential for promotion – ability and competence to perform efficiently the duties and
responsibilities of the higher post. According to Rule 02702, seniority and previous records of performance will be taken into account in choosing between candidates with equal potential for promotion, although in all cases, a generally satisfactory record of conduct shall also be considered. Rule 02703 (IV) provides that at the end of each promotion exercise within six months of the announcement of the promotion, an officer shall be allowed the right of appeal against non-selection, and a reconsideration of his/her case.

Civil Service Decree no 43 of 1988 indicated that “all promotions shall be based on relative merit.” This implies that that selection of officers for advancement shall be tied principally to certified performance as reflected in the annual performance evaluation reports (APER). Decree no 43 of 1988 specified 50% as the score for performance out of four factors that are considered. The others are seniority (5%), additional qualifications (15%) and conduct during the interview (30%).

In a way, promotion is used as a means of rewarding deserving officers and encouraging them to improve their performance. The importance of promotion as a motivational tool is underscored by the fact that, with each advancement in an officer’s status, his/her corresponding fringe benefits, including salaries and allowances, are also enhanced.

4.9.2 Salary increments

Salary increments are usually paid annually. It is a grant of increase in an officer’s salary based on satisfactory conduct and performance. It is not a promotion since the officer’s rank and status remain the same, but his/her gross salary is increased slightly through an incremental award. In accordance with Public Service Rule 05201, “[a]n officer on an incremental scale shall normally be granted an increment unless he (or she) is on interdiction/suspension or has a disciplinary action pending against him (or her).” This means that satisfactory performance and conduct are the bases for qualifying to receive a salary increase. As such, the measure is also a form of motivational strategy.
4.9.3 Confirmation of appointment

Public Service Rule 02303 states that, to be eligible for confirmation in the permanent establishment, an officer appointed on probation is required to pass the prescribed examination, if any, during his/her probationary period and to complete his/her probationary period to the satisfaction of the authority empowered to appoint him/her. This implies that confirmation of appointments is used as a motivational measure to reward employees for satisfactory performance and conduct.

4.9.4 Training

An employee's need for self-fulfilment or self-actualisation depends principally on personal growth and development. As such, the availability of training opportunities is motivational to employees. Section IV(7) of Civil Service (reorganisation) Decree no 43 of 1988 therefore stated: "[t]o boost the morale of civil services each ministry shall evolve appropriate staff welfare and training schemes."

4.9.5 Rewards for outstanding work

This motivational strategy is used in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service to give rewards to officers who have exhibited superior performance and delivered outstanding work. Public Service Rule 23001 specifies that the recipient of an award must have been considered as the best on the basis of outstanding performance of duties and exemplary conduct during the year. The award, according to Rule 23001, may be in the form of certificates, medals, or gifts of cash or kind. Furthermore the Rule states that an officer who has served continuously for a minimum of 15, 25 and 35 years with a good record of services shall be eligible for a certificate of merit and an award in kind commensurate with his/her length of service.
4.9.6 Residential accommodation allowances

The provision of staff accommodation or rent subsidy in lieu of such accommodation is aimed at making employees comfortable, so that they can perform at their best at work. Public service Rule 17604 (a) states that officers who are not living in government quarters are entitled to a monthly rent subsidy at the rate of 40% of monthly basic salary. Public service Rule 17604(b) specifies that officers who are provided with residential accommodation at the government's expense are not entitled to such a subsidy. However, the applicable rent subsidy will be used in calculating their retirement benefits. A current development is that the provision of residential accommodation for public officers has been monetised at 100% of annual basic salary to be paid once annually to enable the officers to rent houses of their choice (see Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003).

4.9.7 Furniture allowances

A furniture allowance of 300% of annual basic salary is paid to public servants once every four years. In practice, this allowance is paid annually at the rate of 75% of annual basic salary (see Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003).

4.9.8 Utility allowances

Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003 stipulates that a utility allowance shall be paid to all categories of officers at the following rates:

- Grade level 01 to 06: =N=3,600 per annum
- Grade level 07 to 10: =N=6,000 per annum
- Grade level 12 to 14: =N=7,800 per annum
- Grade level 15 to 17: =N=9,600 per annum.
4.9.9 Domestic servant allowances

Public service Rule 17611 states that the salaries of domestic servants shall be paid as personal allowance to entitled officers. In accordance with Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003, the domestic servant allowance has already been monetised for public servants and the rates apply as follows:

- Grade level 15 – one domestic servant: =N=119,586 per annum
- Grade level 16 – two domestic servants: =N=239,172 per annum
- Grade level 17 – three domestic servants: =N=358,758 per annum.

4.9.10 Motor vehicle loan and transport allowances

To assist with the transport of civil servants to and from work, as well as in the course of carrying out their duties, a motor vehicle loan scheme has been put in place. According to Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003, the provision of motor vehicles to public officers is now monetised. This circular further states that the government will no longer provide chauffeur-driven vehicles to officers who used to be entitled to such a service. Instead, such officers will be granted a motor vehicle loan at the rate of 350% of their annual basic salary repayable within six years at a 4% rate of interest. In addition, this circular stated that service-wide staff buses would be pooled under the management of the office of the head of the civil service to convey staff to and from office at an approved rate.

4.9.11 Fuel, maintenance and transport allowances

An allowance of 10% of annual basic salary is paid to public servants towards fuel, vehicle maintenance and transport costs (see Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003).
4.9.12 Medical treatment

Currently, civil servants and members of their immediate families (defined as a spouse and four children) are generally entitled to free medical services in government designated hospitals particularly in the form of a reimbursement for medical expenses paid. Since good health is a vital requirement for optimal job performance, free medical care ensures that civil service employees are in a good state of health or medically fit to carry out their work assignments.

4.9.13 Leave and leave grants

Public service Rule 13102 specified that:

“Annual vacation leave is compulsory. No officer shall be required or allowed to take working leave, whereby the officer reports for duty during his/her approved leave period. All officers must therefore, take their vacation leave within the calendar year in which such leave is due. Where it is not possible for the officer to exhaust his/her leave before the 31st of December, of that year, he or she shall be allowed to exhaust his or her leave entitlement before the 1st of February, of the following calendar year.”

Public service Rule 13206 states that an officer may be granted vacation leave, which may be taken in instalments at any time in a leave year at the following rates:

- Grade level 08 and above: 30 working days
- Grade level 04 to 07: 21 working days
- Grade level 01 to 03: 14 working days.

According to public service Rule 13213, “leave allowance shall be 10% of annual basic salary.” Paid vacations are thus provided to officers as an opportunity for them to rest and refresh themselves (“recharge their batteries”) away from work for specified periods.
4.9.14 Meal subsidies

This allowance, which is already monetised, is paid at the following rates to officers (see Circular no SGF 19/547/C.I/11/371 of 27 June 2003):

- Grade level 01 to 06: =N=6,000 per annum
- Grade level 07 to 10: =N=8,400 per annum
- Grade level 12 to 14: =N=9,600 per annum
- Grade level 15 to 17: =N=10,800 per annum.

4.9.15 Entertainment allowances

Entertainment allowances are also monetised and paid to entitled officers at the following rates (see Circular no SGF 19/5.47/C.I/11/3711 of 27 June 2003):

- Grade level 15: =N=8,400 per annum
- Grade level 16 to 17: =N=10,800 per annum.

4.9.16 Pensions and gratuities

Public service Rule 02807 provides details about the granting of pensions and gratuities to holders of pension carrying posts in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. Pensions and gratuities are instituted or provided to employees in order to insulate them against lack and want after they have retired from the service. Apart from a monthly pension, the retired officer also receives a lump sum of money as gratuity upon leaving the service. According to Ajileye (1992:152-162), "[t]his represents an effective post-service welfare device, and is, therefore, motivational." Such retirement benefits are usually adjusted periodically along with salary reviews or changing living costs.
4.10 Summary

The study objective of this chapter was to provide a historical background to and the rationale of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission as the study population for this thesis was drawn from employees of the commission. It also aimed to explain the structure and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and to provide an overview of the Federal Civil Service Commission. All this served to contextualise the African environment of the public sector and to justify the sampling population.

The introduction to the chapter set out the criteria used by the researcher to choose the sample population for the survey undertaken as part of this study (see chapter five). The exploration of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, in general, and the Federal Civil Service Commission, in particular, provided the justification for this choice, as well as a background to the specific issues that were tested in the survey.

The next section explored motivation as an issue of concern in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. Particular attention was paid to studies that touched upon motivation, which were undertaken in the Nigerian context. The literature that was explored included Ajayi (1980), Machungwa (1983), Amana (1992), Jakande (1993), Sanda (1993), Ikelegbe (1995), Fatoba (1995), Oliodi (1997), Yomere (1998), Okoh (2000), Bello (2000), Adigun (2000), and Nigeria and the World Bank (2000). One of the major issues that were identified as a reason for the poor performance of public servants in the country, is the lack of motivation. In the light of the commitment made by President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2003 to create a smaller, skilled productive and motivated workforce in the civil service, this study is particularly salient as it attempted to identify those factors that motivate civil servants in the country to improve their performance.

The historical evolution of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service was then explored. The complexity of a service that stretches across 36 states cannot be denied. This section illustrated, by implication, the enormous challenge in a country like
Nigeria to improve motivation and performance across the board of the large number of public sector institutions.

One of the characteristics of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service is the so-called federal character policy in which the principle of representative bureaucracy is enshrined. The policy is implemented through representative recruitment and the transfer of employees to other parts of the public administration in the country. Clearly, this policy was meant to avoid nepotism and unfair service provision, as it aims to ensure that the public bureaucracy in Nigeria is representative of all people in the country. One of the drawbacks, however, is that this results in representative recruitment instead of recruitment on merit. This undoubtedly may have a negative effect on the levels of job satisfaction demonstrated by public service employees, as well as on their productivity, performance and motivation.

In the next section, the structure and categories of staff in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service were explored. The different classes that were briefly explained, included the administrative, professional and scientific/research classes, the executive and technical classes, the secretarial class, as well as the clerical/junior technical and sub-technical classes.

Seven vital functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service were also examined. These functions are policy advice, policy implementation, policy formulation, providing continuity of government business, acting as a feedback mechanism and as a change agent.

The focus of the next section was on the membership and structure of the Federal Civil Service Commission, the population from which the sample for this study was drawn. The criteria that were identified for the choice of sample were tested against the commission’s structure, thus providing justification for the choice of this particular sample. The specific structure of the commission was briefly explored and attention was paid to the three operations departments – recruitment and appointment; promotions; and discipline and appeals. The three common services departments in the commission were also explored: personnel management; planning, research and statistics; and finance and supplies. Finally,
short descriptions were provided of the three units in the commission – public relations, legal, and internal audit – as well as the liaison office in Lagos. This was followed by the section dealing with the powers and functions of the Federal Civil Service Commission.

The last section of the chapter focused on motivational strategies currently in place in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. These measures and strategies were categorised into two groups. The first group of measures is tied to job performance and include promotions, salary increments, confirmation of appointments, training and rewards for outstanding work. The second category of measures includes fringe benefits that are automatically awarded to all staff irrespective of their performance in order to create an enabling work environment. These measures include residential accommodation allowances, furniture allowances, utility allowances, domestic servant allowances, motor vehicle loans, fuelling, maintenance and transport allowances, support for medical treatment, meal subsidies and entertainment allowances, as well as pensions and gratuities.

Based on Herzberg’s dual-factor theory, the current motivational measures and strategies in place in Nigeria will be tested in chapter five to ascertain whether they are factors with a positive effect on the motivation of public service employees. Although the majority of these measures have a monetary value, many of them aim to fulfil a variety of other needs, such as general well-being, quality of life and many others. The aim of the next chapter is not only to test whether these measures actually motivate public service employees, but also to identify those factors that do motivate them that are not in place in the service.
CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGICAL CONDUCT OF THE SURVEY:
DATA COLLECTION, PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the following objective will be addressed:

- A description of the methodology and the data collection process utilised in this study and to make a factual analysis and evaluation of the data and findings of the study in order to answer the research question(s) and to fulfil the study objectives.

In chapters two and three, an extensive review was provided of the vast volumes of literature available on motivation theories and the dimensions of job satisfaction, with specific focus on Herzberg's dual-factor theory. The theoretical perspectives on motivation and Hertzberg's dual-factor theory on job satisfaction were used as the basis for conducting the empirical research in this thesis. In order to stimulate an understanding of the environment of developing countries in the African context it was also necessary to provide an introductory overview of the sample population. This involved an examination of the historical evolution, composition, structure, functions, role and class categories of posts in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service in chapter four. An overview was also provided of the Federal Civil Service Commission, in order to contextualise the specific sample used in this thesis. In addition, the concept of the representative bureaucracy and its application in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, as well as some current motivational practices to enhance job satisfaction were briefly explained.

The review of the literature referred to above was conducted to determine the nature and extent to which previous research dealt with and defined job
satisfaction theory. The literature review indicated that research undertaken prior to the publication of the Herzberg theory considered job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction to be two extremes on a single continuum model. Within this concept of job satisfaction theory, any increase in job satisfaction resulted in a decrease in job dissatisfaction, and any increase in job dissatisfaction resulted in a decrease in job satisfaction. However, Herzberg's dual-factor theory separated job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as two distinct outcomes linked to motivators and hygiene factors. According to the theory, motivators would lead to an increase in job satisfaction, while the presence of hygiene factors would only lead to a decrease in job dissatisfaction, but would not be able to motivate employees to perform better. Herzberg's dual-factor theory was extensively used in the design of the survey instrument used in this thesis. The literature that examined the writings of both supporters and critics of the Herzberg et al. theory was also used as one of the basic touchstones for the development of the questionnaire.

Herzberg et al. made wide claims for the applicability of their findings. Their studies were undertaken in the United States and only included specific professional occupations in the environment of an industrialised country with relative wealth and a Western culture. Different environments, for example, developing African countries, and other occupations were considered as separate variables and could therefore have affected the results of their studies.

This chapter will explain the methodology utilised in the survey with specific reference data collection and survey procedure. The aim of this chapter is to define the method for collecting data for research purposes and to provide details of the procedures that were used to test the data for applicability to the suggested dual-factor theory of job satisfaction. The data generated by the survey is also presented and analysed. The data required for the study was collected by means of an open-ended structured questionnaire survey. The design and development of the questionnaire are also discussed in this chapter.

This chapter therefore addresses the method of data collection, the application of the questionnaire method, prerequisites for a successfully designed questionnaire, the development of the questionnaire, questionnaire
confidentiality, research design, the study population, the sampling design and procedures, the data collection instrument, the construction and administration of the data collection instrument, the method of data presentation and analysis, reliability analysis and validity, limitations of the study, the presentation and analysis of data as a test of the hypothesis, a list of research findings and a discussion of the findings.

5.2 Method of data collection

For the purposes of this study, both a literature study of secondary sources and empirical research to create a primary source were used for data collection. When following this method of data collecting, it is essential to distinguish between primary and secondary data. According to Kothari (1985:11) primary data is original information collected for the first time. On the other hand, secondary data is information that was collected prior to a current study and that, depending on the nature of the information, might have been subjected to statistical processes and testing. Secondary data is often data that was obtained by means of literature studies, for example, those reflected in chapters two and three of this thesis.

The secondary data for this thesis was obtained by studying manuals, magazines, journals, dissertations and theses, official documentation, research reports, books and others (see chapter one). These sources all addressed aspects of motivation theories, especially with regard to job satisfaction.

As far as primary data is concerned, Drew (1980:11) distinguished between experimental and non-experimental research. As this study is clearly of a non-experimental nature, the focus will be on methods of data collection chosen to fulfil the specific study objectives identified in chapter one. Both Drew (1980:12) and Kothari (1985:12) regarded questionnaires, interviews and direct observations as the most important means of data collecting. The measuring instrument used in this thesis is in the form of a questionnaire. Although more than one type of questionnaire exists, Mulder (1989:39) regarded the
questionnaire, as a method of collecting data, as "a purposeful, structured set of questions that can be used to obtain the opinions of a large number of respondents in writing, without necessarily making contact with the target group." The reason why the questionnaire was chosen as the primary data collection method in this study is discussed in more detail below.

5.3 Application of the questionnaire method

The questionnaire method was selected as the research method for this thesis as it enables the quantification of information. Another reason for using a questionnaire is that the opinions of respondents can be obtained in a structured manner. According to Van Dyk (1991:278), questionnaires are the most common method applied to diagnose the functioning of institutions. Although questionnaire construction may seem to be quite simple, it is a complex and taxing process. Information (items/questions) must be formulated and selected carefully and the aim of the research must continuously be borne in mind.

Oppenheimer (1978:3) pointed out that research is often conducted without the necessary planning and the scientific design of measuring instruments. However, by its very nature, a questionnaire as a measuring instrument implicitly requires planning and a scientific approach.

Oppenheimer (1978:4) explained the importance of the research design as follows:

"Survey design attempts to answer such questions as: Which variables should be measured? What kind of sample will be drawn? Are control groups needed? Who will be questioned, and how often? What scales may have to be built or adapted?"

Van Dyk (1991:273) stated that a questionnaire is designed with a specific aim in mind, containing relevant items (questions) to determine the connection, cause or consequence between various aspects or variables in order to determine the current or potential state of affairs in respect of the uniqueness of the subject
being researched. Good and Hatt (1962:133) defined a questionnaire as follows:
"In general the word questionnaire refers to a device for securing answers to
questions by using a form which the respondent fills in himself." This general
definition of a questionnaire concurs with most opinions in this regard.

For the purposes of this study, structured questions were used as they simplify
the statistical process. The degree to which a questionnaire is structured may
vary from questionnaire to questionnaire. However, structured questions force
respondents to choose from a list of alternatives. The potential advantages of
structured questions are, among others, that they are relatively time and cost-
effective, that they facilitate wider geographical coverage and that respondents
can complete them at their own pace. These factors simplify the collection of
relatively more information on a condensed basis. Furthermore, most
respondents are familiar with questionnaires. If all respondents are confronted
with exactly the same questionnaire items generalisation becomes feasible as the
questionnaire information can be processed relatively easy based on a specified
choice of uniform responses. Computer processing, if appropriate, is therefore
also simplified. Questionnaires can also ensure anonymity and, as a result,
respondents are more inclined to be honest, which usually assists in obtaining
more accurate and valid research information. The chances of the researcher
creating a bias in the results are reduced as a result of the impersonal nature of
questionnaires. It is also more probable that respondents will be willing to
complete this type of questionnaire rather than open-ended questions, owing to
the time and mental exhaustion involved in providing long elaborate answers.
Computer processing of the information obtained through structured
questionnaires can also be undertaken more quickly and accurately.

The potential disadvantages of a questionnaire with structured questions are the
restrictions it places on respondents. Respondents do not have the freedom to
move outside the boundaries set by the choices. A further disadvantage is that
questionnaires are often too frequently used resulting in low response rates due
to the existence of a degree of "resistance" to questionnaires. Poorly designed
questionnaires may also lead to them being unsatisfactorily completed.
There is no control over the external circumstances under which the questionnaires are being completed. For this reason, the design and administration of a questionnaire survey require thoroughness, patience and competence from the researcher. Another potential disadvantage is that a too strongly structured questionnaire can make in-depth analysis very difficult at times. All information obtained by means of questionnaires is also based clearly on verbal conduct; therefore certain scientists regard it as a relatively rigid method with little space for personal interaction. A further problem is that there is hardly any control over the date on which or time within which the responses should be obtained. Respondents’ levels of literacy also restrict questionnaires. Questionnaires, as such, can do very little to motivate respondents to participate in research. However, these potential disadvantages can largely be overcome by a well-founded design and administration process. Questionnaires are therefore widely accepted as a valid research method (Leedy 1974:82).

5.3.1 Prerequisites for a successfully designed questionnaire

According to Berdie and Anderson (1974:48), Kothari (1985:21), Drew (1980:9) and Smit (1991:72), the following are of importance when designing a questionnaire for research purposes:

- Always bear the aim of the research in mind and structure questions accordingly, in other words, only include questions that support the research.

- Provide clear directions and instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and provide examples for each section, if necessary.

- Keep the format of the questionnaire neat and clear and include a brief covering letter containing clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire.

- Keep all instructions simple and easy to understand.
• Questions that could possibly be asked by the respondents should be anticipated and dealt with in the instruction phase.

• The use of unfamiliar abbreviations in questions must be avoided.

• Within the boundaries set by the research problem, the questionnaire should be kept short in order to avoid respondent exhaustion.

• Respondents should be given enough time to complete the questionnaire.

• A pre-test of some or other nature, or a pilot study should be used to determine problems and to improve the quality of the questionnaire.

• Questionnaires should be logically structured and designed and the pages of the questionnaire should be clearly numbered.

If these guidelines are followed as far as possible, it should increase the value and success of questionnaire research. When designing questionnaires, it is essential not only to keep to the requirements as set out above, but also to follow a systematic approach. A questionnaire must be designed in such a way that it directly supports the research problem being investigated. All questionnaire items must be directly related to the set problem. Once this has been decided on, the type of information should be identified that has to be collected in order to find solutions to the research problem. It then has to be decided what type of questionnaire will be appropriate for collecting the kind of information required. A decision also has to be made in respect of the scaling of the questionnaire. On the basis of this decision, the specific questionnaire items can be developed. Each item has to show sensitivity for the respondents' frames of reference. Once questionnaire items have been construed, scaled and set in a logical structured questionnaire format, some type of pre-test, or pilot study has to be conducted. Based on the resulting recommendations, the required corrections or adaptations have to be made in order to improve the quality of the final questionnaire.
These practical guidelines were followed when compiling the questionnaire in this study (see Appendix 1). The information that was finally gathered in respect of the dual-factor theory was quite vast. It would have been difficult to formulate this information in any other way than a questionnaire for assessment purposes. Conducting interviews on the identified dimensions, as discussed in chapter three, for example, would have been time consuming and external variables would not have been easy to control. Another reason for choosing the questionnaire as a survey instrument is that questionnaires are scaled so that each respondent can provide his or her personal view. In this way, information is obtained in an orderly manner, which facilitates processing.

5.3.2 Development of the questionnaire

In the first instance, questionnaires must be developed in such a manner that they directly support the specific research problem. All questionnaire items should be directly linked to the set problem. As no appropriate questionnaire was already available that would fit the purposes of this study, a questionnaire had to be constructed that could be used to test those factors that support employee motivation. On studying the literature, it became clear that a number of factors should be taken into consideration when designing a questionnaire. According to Bailey (1987:107) attention should be paid to:

- The relevance of the objectives of the study to practice;
- The relevance of the questions to the objectives of the study; and
- The relevance of the questions to the individual respondent.

In chapter one, it was already established that the study is relevant to practice. The items (questions) contained in the evaluating questionnaire are all relevant to the objectives of the study, as the contents have been deduced from those requirements that are uniform in theory and practice. Although a large number of items could have been included in the questionnaire, only those items were included that came to the fore while undertaking research for the two literature
study chapters, for the sake of conciseness and relevance. Items applicable to job satisfaction were selected.

The aim of the questionnaire was to determine how individuals experienced job satisfaction at the time of the survey. This was done to determine how the determinants of job satisfaction are applied in the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria. The researcher designed and compiled the questionnaire, based on the theoretical study. An industrial psychometrist also worked through the questionnaire to ensure that the questions form an integral part of the study, as well as test the right perceptual aspects. As a pre-test control measure, the questionnaire was distributed among some of the sample population in order to determine whether the questionnaire would be able to measure those characteristics that it is supposed to measure. The questionnaires were also given to a number of experts to check for clearness and correctness. The final sample group, who were to be asked to complete the questionnaire, would consist of a representative part of the civil servants working in the Federal Civil Service Commission. This group would further consist of personnel employed at all levels in the organisational structure of the institution.

No time limit was attached to the completion of the questionnaire. Respondents could answer at their own pace, as quickly or as slowly as they desired. The confidentiality with which information would be dealt with was also continuously emphasised. According to Van Dyk (1991:282), one of the main disadvantages of using a questionnaire is the fact that the target group often does not return a representative percentage of questionnaires.

The questionnaire was carefully structured and standardised. All respondents who participated in the survey received the same questionnaire, in the same format and with the same instructions, whether at senior or junior level.

On completion of the questionnaire, each respondent were asked to complete a comments page. No negative comments were received on the accessibility and clarity of the questionnaire.
5.3.3 Questionnaire confidentiality

Owing to the nature of the research, it was important to ensure respondents that answers would be treated confidentially as this could drastically influence the accuracy of results. This aspect enjoyed a high priority during the instruction phase. On completion of the questionnaire session, a large number of respondents expressed their satisfaction with this fact, as it eradicated fears that section heads would have access to completed questionnaires. This approach increased the level of confidence in the accuracy of the results obtained from completed questionnaires.

5.4 Research design

The survey research design is adopted for this study. The investigation is a cross-sectional study, as the subjects and variables are investigated at one point in time; this means that data relating to the subjects and variables is collected at about the same time or period.

5.4.1 The study population

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a report of the Federal Civil Service Commission put the staff strength of the commission at 726 (see Nigeria 2001:6). Thus, the 726 career civil servants who are currently working in the Federal Civil Service Commission constitute the population or universe of the study. Of these 726 career civil servants, 305 are senior officers on salary grade levels 07 to 17, while the remaining 421 personnel are junior officers on salary grade level 01 to 06.

5.4.2 Sampling design and procedures

The sample size is the proportion of the subset of a population that is considered to be representative of the total chosen population. The sample size issue in studies is contentious because sample sizes usually vary from one study to
another and may influence the comparability of findings across different studies. However, in many studies, samples of at least 25% of the total population are usually regarded as fair and adequate. One major advantage of larger samples is that the extent of the sampling error diminishes in comparison to size of the sample (Oyesiku 2000:53).

On 31 December 2000 (see Nigeria 2001:6), the total number of employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission was put at 726 (excluding the permanent secretary and commissioners whose appointments are largely political) comprising 305 senior officers on salary grade levels 07 to 17 and 421 junior staff on salary grade levels 01 to 06. A sample size of 420 was drawn from the total population of 726 constituting 57.85% percent of the total sample population. It is believed that the sample size of 420 coupled with probability sampling procedure will make the findings of the study generalisable to the study population.

A sampling frame based on the staff payroll list was obtained and categorised into departments and units, as well as job status (senior and junior staff). Thus, the study population was stratified on the basis of department, units and job status. The simple random sampling technique (with replacement) was applied (using the table of a random number to give a random start) to select 420 respondents – 60 persons consisting of 30 senior and 30 junior employees from each department, as well as from the commission’s units. These respondents thus constituted the sample for this investigation. The disproportionate or optimal allocation stratified sampling technique was used to ensure that the status groups – senior and junior staff – were more or less equally represented in the sample drawn from the population.

The sample size of 420 respondents selected from the population of 726 career civil servants working in the Federal Civil Service Commission is adequate and large enough to provide reliable data for this survey. Although 420 respondents were targeted, only 362 questionnaires were returned in such a condition that responses could be used. The return rate was therefore an impressive 86.19%. The effective sample size was 49.86%, thus only slightly less than half of the survey population.
5.4.3 Data collection instrument

To collect the basic data, the main instrument was the close-ended structured questionnaire. For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was constructed to elicit information from the respondents about their biographical data, as well as their perceptions of various job variables. Specifically, questions were designed to provide information on the impact of internal and external job variables on employee motivation. Therefore, the questionnaire consisted of questions relating to factors involved in intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

5.4.4 Construction and administration of the data collection instrument

The questionnaire was constructed in such a way that easy aggregation, tabulation and analysis of responses could be achieved. Moreover, the structured type of questionnaire was used to reduce variability in the meaning of questions to ensure that responses were comparable. The questions were simple, standard and unambiguous. They were also subjected to a test of validity and reliability through a pilot study and by consulting experts in social science methodology.

The questionnaire was scaled on the Renesis Likert scale (see Babbie 1973:269-270). A four-point scale is used to rank “very important”, “important”, “unimportant” and “very unimportant”. These four categories are assigned numerical values from four to one, with four being very important and one being very unimportant. A respondent is requested to circle the option that best describes his/her feelings towards various factors of motivation. The option chosen reflects the respondent’s attitudes towards the intrinsic and extrinsic variables of his/her job. It was found that a four-point scale without the “neutral” or “undecided” choice was better than the five-point scale with these choices; hence, it was eliminated from the scale used for this study (Nuc 2004:5).

In comparing the Likert scale to others, Osuala (1982: 151-155) said that the Likert scale is equally and more reliable than the Thurstone scale, faster and equally valid.
The Likert scale as also found favour among social researchers, as it seems to be less time consuming and laborious than the Thurstone scale. Moreover, the Likert scale normally yields a high reliability co-efficient with fewer items (Ojo 2003).

The approach adopted in determining the motivation factors among employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission is to isolate and consider each of the job variables (both intrinsic and extrinsic) derived from the Herzberg study in order to determine their motivational effects on employees who participated in the survey. Therefore, the approach was to obtain responses from the research sample to a set of questions (contained in the questionnaire designed for the study) based on the job factors or variables drawn from Herzberg’s study. The administration of the questionnaires and their collection or retrieval from respondents covered a period of one month from 1 February to 29 February 2004. Out of 420 questionnaires administered, 362 were returned in usable condition.

5.5 Method of data presentation and analysis

The frequency distribution of the generated data according to responses was first tabulated and then followed by observation and analysis, and finally tested against the hypothesis. The simple percentage and chi-square ($\chi^2$) statistical techniques were applied for data analysis and testing of the hypothesis formulated for the study. For a meaningful analysis and interpretation of the collected data, the information is presented below in simple tables and the percentage method is applied to interpret the data. To test the hypothesis, the chi-square ($\chi^2$) method is used. The principle guiding this method is to accept the hypothesis if the chi-square ($\chi^2$) calculated is greater than the table value of the chi-square ($\chi^2$). The chi-square ($\chi^2$) is employed basically to test whether or not a relationship exists between the dependent and independent variables of the hypothesis. The hypothesis is tested at 0.1 level of significance. The chi-square ($\chi^2$) test forms the basis for accepting or rejecting the hypothesis and hence leads to a scientific conclusion and recommendations. Data processing was simply done by manual calculation (using the hand-held calculator) of frequency counts.
or percentages and chi-square. A personal computer was not used in calculations as a more elaborate analysis of the data was not considered necessary.

**Figure 5.1: Distribution and retrieval rate of survey questionnaires**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments/units</th>
<th>Questionnaires distributed (n)</th>
<th>Questionnaires retrieved (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior staff</td>
<td>Senior staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment and appointment</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline and appeals</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel management</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning, research and statistics</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance and supplies</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-departmental units</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Public relations</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Internal audit</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Liaison office</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>210</strong></td>
<td><strong>210</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand total</strong></td>
<td><strong>(420)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(362)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 5.6 Reliability analysis and validity

Questions that often arise during questionnaire design are the following: Will the set questions provide the required information? Will the answers given by respondents on a specific day, correlate with answers provided by the same respondents at a later date? These questions are linked to the aspects of reliability and validity, as well as representivity that are often justifiably criticised by people. A well-designed questionnaire in a well-defined research design will limit negative criticism in this regard to a large extent. However, in the personal experience of the researcher, questionnaire design, application and results always elicit criticism irrespective of the scientific approach followed (Van Dyk 1991:276).

To be scientifically accountable, a questionnaire has to comply with two basic requirements, namely it has to be reliable and it has to be valid. These two requirements are discussed below.
5.6.1 Reliability

According to Smit (1991:104), the issue of what can be regarded as a reliable questionnaire will always arise when a reliability analysis is at stake. Berdie and Anderson (1974:13) were of the opinion that reliability is linked to stability over the cause of time. A reliable questionnaire item is an item that will constantly convey the same meaning. Dressler (1981:156) stated that reliability refers to consistency and describes a reliable questionnaire as a questionnaire that consists of reliable items. He regarded a reliable item as one that consistently conveys the same meaning to the persons involved in the survey. The internal consistency of a questionnaire is especially applicable in questionnaire context. With this Dressler (1981:156) meant the correlation between responses on the same type of dimension that is asked by means of a question. As an example, in order to test reliability, two or more questions can be asked in respect of the same aspect (dimension) and the similarity of answering (positive or negative correlation) can be determined (Van Dyk 1991:277).

Van Dyk (1991:277) stated that the reliability of an instrument refers to the degree to which the repeated application of the instrument on the same object will continuously deliver the same results. Smit (1991:104) stated that, if a questionnaire is reliable, a person can rely on it. He further stated that various approaches exist to the defining and determination of questionnaire reliability. The most practical and extensive approach to reliability is the approach that defines reliability in terms of the relative absence of measuring errors in a measuring instrument. Reliability is therefore the relation of error variation to the total variation as obtained by the measuring instrument deducted from 1,00. The index 1,00 indicates perfect reliability (Smit 1991:105).

As it can be accepted that it is probably humanly impossible to develop a measuring instrument with perfect reliability, a further question arises: What then can be regarded as an acceptable reliability coefficient for items in a test? In this regard, Smit (1978:42) pointed out that test reliability is not based on an all-or-nothing principle, but that it is a degree phenomenon and that arbitrary principles cannot be determined according to which the reliability of a measuring instrument
can be evaluated as being impractical, low or satisfactory for use. However, he did indicate that one method according to which reliability indexes can be interpreted is in terms of the aim of the test.

For the purposes of this study, a computer reliability analysis (Alpha Cronbach) was conducted for the test as a whole, as well as for the various sections of the test.

5.6.2 Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which a test measures that which it is suppose to measure. Berdie and Andersen (1974:13) stated the following in respect of validity:

"The validity of a questionnaire item is concerned with whether or not the item actually elicits the intended information. Questionnaire items are valid if they are successful in eliciting true responses relevant to the information desired."

In other words, it is essential that respondents attach the same meaning to the set questions than the compilers. According to Mouton and Marais (1989:79), the central validity consideration in the process of data collection is linked to reliability, in other words, whether applying a (valid) measuring instrument on various survey group in various circumstances will lead to the same observations. Dressler (1981:155), and Downie and Heath (1983:45) distinguished between four types of validity, namely empirical validity, content validity, face validity and construct validity:

- **Empirical validity** refers to the accuracy with which a test forecasts a certain degree of performance.
- **Content validity**, which is especially applicable to questionnaire design, refers to the degree to which items are unbiased versions of the characteristics that are measured.

- **Face validity** is closely linked to content validity and refers to the question whether a test appears to measure that which it is suppose to measure.

- **Construct validity** is the most difficult to understand, to measure and to determine and refers to the degree in which a measuring instrument succeeds in measuring the psychological or abstract aspects that it is suppose to measure.

In this study, content validity was regarded as the best criterion for validity, as the questionnaire is focused on the attitude of certain individuals in respect of the determinants of motivation for job satisfaction. This implies that the test has content validity for a specific aim with a specific group (Smith 1981:49). According to research done in the process of compiling this thesis, similar questionnaires with which a comparison can be made was not found to exist and the test can therefore be regarded as valid based on the test for reliability.

### 5.6.3 Test of validity and reliability of the study instrument

After the first draft of the study instrument was completed, it was subjected to validation and reliability examinations. Comments from the validation process were used to revise the structure of and items in the instrument. The resulting revised draft was pilot tested on a small sample of the population for which the instrument was designed. Further refinement of the instrument was made on the basis of the pilot test data. Specifically, the pilot study involved a small sample of 60 respondents drawn from the target population. The questionnaire was administered to this small sample of respondents, after which they were interviewed to get their impression and to confirm that the questions accurately captured their opinions. Adjustments were made to the questionnaire based on the feedback from these respondents.
In order to ensure that the study instrument is valid and reliable, a panel of experts in social science methodology was also asked to review the question items in terms of rating how well each of the items measured the theoretical construct – Herzberg’s dual-factor theory – on which the instrument was based. Hence the subjective agreement of experts that the scale accurately and logically appears to reflect what it is supposed to measure, was secured.

5.7 Limitations of the study

In carrying out an investigation of this nature, certain challenges were bound to pose limitations to the study. The un-cooperative attitude of many respondents in filling out and returning the questionnaire was one of the problems encountered in conducting this study. But after due persuasion, most of the respondents cooperated and adequately completed 362 out of the 420 questionnaires administered.

Inadequate funding also posed a problem. This is due mainly to the harsh economic situation in Nigeria. To reduce the cost of the study, use was made of a sample rather than the entire population of study and the researcher also administered the questionnaire personally rather than to involve research assistants who would need to be remunerated. Following on limited finance, there is also time constraints as the research had to be completed within a reasonably period of time, while fitting in with other work responsibilities.

In the next sections, the results of the survey will be provided, including biographical data, respondents’ perceptions of job satisfaction in specific groups, and composite data that ranks job satisfaction factors in order of preference.
5.8 Biographical data of respondents

Figure 5.2: Classification of sample by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>62.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>37.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


- Interpretation

The sample comprises 227 males and 135 females, constituting 62.71% and 37.29% of the sample, respectively.

Figure 5.3: Classification of sample by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 25 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years to 44 years</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>57.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 years and above</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>39.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


- Interpretation

Eleven respondents (3.04% of the sample) are less than 25 years old. A further 207 (57.18%) of the sample are in the age bracket of 25 to 44 years old, while 144 (39.78%) are 45 years and older.

Figure 5.4: Classification of sample by marital status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>39.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>54.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Interpretation

The sample consists of 144 (39.78%) single persons, 198 (54.7%) married persons and 20 (5.52%) persons in the others category in respect of marital status.

**Figure 5.5: Classification of sample by religion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>64.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>32.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>362</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


• Interpretation

Of the respondents participating in the survey, 234 (64.64%) are Christians and 117 (32.32%) are Muslims. Eleven (3.04%) of the respondents are practitioners of other religious beliefs.

**Figure 5.6: Level of education of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education and below</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>35.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary education</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>64.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>362</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


• Interpretation

Of the survey sample, 127 (35.08%) have had a secondary school education or below, while 235 (64.92%) of the sample have had post-secondary education.

**Figure 5.7: Classification of sample by job status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>45.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>54.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>362</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey 2004
• Interpretation

The sample consisted of 164 junior staff, constituting 45.3% of the sample, and 198 senior staff, accounting for 54.7% of the sample.

Figure 5.8: Classification of sample by years of service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of service</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 years</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>35.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years and more</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>64.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>362</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey 2004

• Interpretation

Of the sample, 129 (53.64%) of the respondents (53.64% of the sample) have had less than 10 years of service, whereas 233 (64.36% of the sample) have had more than 10 years of service.

5.9 Presentation and analysis of data according to test of hypothesis

Figure 5.9: Perceptions of internal job variables as motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal job variables</th>
<th>Perception/rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth and career development</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased responsibility</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>289</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


• Test statistics

Degree of freedom (df) = 12
Calculated value of $x^2$ = 9.98
Critical value of $\chi^2$ = 32.91
Alpha = .001

- **Interpretation**

The calculated value of $\chi^2$ (9.98) is smaller than the critical value of $\chi^2$ (32.91) at 1% errors. This denotes that there is not sufficient evidence to prove that employee motivation among respondents in the sample is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables.

- **Research decision**

Since critical $\chi^2$ is greater than calculated $\chi^2$ at 1% errors, the decision is to reject the HR (which states that the level of motivation among employees in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission is dependent only on intrinsic job variables) and accept the Ho (which states that the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables).

- **Research results and findings**

The level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is not dependent only on intrinsic or internal job variables. The hypothesis that the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is dependent only on intrinsic or internal job variables is therefore not corroborated, supported or confirmed and, as such, is hereby refuted.
Figure 5.10: Junior staff perceptions of internal job variables as motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal job variables</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Very unimportant</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth and career development</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased responsibility</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>106</strong></td>
<td><strong>149</strong></td>
<td><strong>412</strong></td>
<td><strong>153</strong></td>
<td><strong>820</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


- **Test statistics**

  Degree of freedom (df) = 12
  Calculated value of $x^2$ = 3.17
  Critical value of $x^2$ = 32.91
  Alpha = .001

- **Interpretation**

  The calculated value of $x^2$ (3.17) is less than the critical value of $x^2$ (32.91) at .001% errors, therefore indicating that the motivation of junior employees is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables.

- **Research decision**

  The calculated $x^2$ is less than the critical $x^2$ at .001% errors; hence the decision is to reject the HR (which states that the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is dependent only on intrinsic job variables) and accept the Ho (which states that the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables).
• **Research results and findings**

The level of motivation among junior employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is not dependent only on intrinsic or internal job variables.

**Figure 5.11: Senior staff perceptions of internal job variables as motivators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal job variables</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Very unimportant</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth and career development</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased responsibility</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>194</strong></td>
<td><strong>358</strong></td>
<td><strong>261</strong></td>
<td><strong>177</strong></td>
<td><strong>990</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


• **Test statistics**

Degree of freedom (df) = 12
Calculated value of $x^2$ = 24.07
Critical value of $x^2$ = 32.91
Alpha = .001

• **Interpretation**

The calculated $x^2$ value for the rating of the internal variables of jobs by senior staff is 24.07. Tested against critical $x^2$ value of 32.91 at .001 level of significance the research hypothesis is rejected as calculated $x^2$ of 24.07 is less than critical $x^2$ of 32.91 at 0.1% errors; thus indicating that the level of motivation among senior employees in the sample is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables.
• Research decision

Since the observed value of \( x^2 \) (24.07) is less than the tabled value of \( x^2 \) (32.91) at alpha .001, the decision is to reject the HR (which states that the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is dependent only on intrinsic job variables) and accept the Ho (which states that the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables).

• Research results and findings

The level of motivation among senior staff in the Federal Civil Service Commission is not dependent only on intrinsic or internal job variables.

Figure 5.12: Perceptions of extrinsic job variables as motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic job variables</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Very unimportant</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational policies and administration</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good relations with supervisors</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cordial relations with co-employees</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>826</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>2,534</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


• Test statistics

Degree of freedom (df) = 18
Calculated value of \( x^2 \) = 194.51
Critical value of \( x^2 \) = 42.31
Alpha = .001
• Interpretation

The calculated value of $x^2$ of 194.51 is greater than the critical or table value of $x^2$ of 42.31 at .01% errors. This means that extrinsic or external variables of the job are significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission.

• Research decision

Since the observed value of $x^2$ (194.51) is greater than the tabled value of $x^2$ (42.31) at 0.1% errors, the decision is to reject the Ho (which states that the extrinsic or external variables of the job are not significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission) and accept the HR (which states that the extrinsic or external variables of the job are significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission).

• Research results and findings

Extrinsic or external variables of the job such as pay, working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, job security, as well as organisational policy and administration are significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission. The hypothesis that extrinsic or external variables of the job such as pay, working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, job security, and organisational policy and administration are significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is therefore confirmed and corroborated.
### Figure 5.13: Perceptions of junior staff of extrinsic job variables as motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic job variables</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Very unimportant</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational policies and administration</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good relations with supervisors</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cordial relations with co-employees</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>252</strong></td>
<td><strong>553</strong></td>
<td><strong>210</strong></td>
<td><strong>133</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,148</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


- **Test statistics**

Degree of freedom (df) = 18
Calculated value of $\chi^2$ = 102.11
Critical value of $\chi^2$ = 42.31
Alpha = .001

- **Interpretation**

The calculated value of $\chi^2$ of 102.11 is greater than the critical value of $\chi^2$ (42.31) at alpha .001. This implies that junior employees are significantly influenced by extrinsic job variables. The calculated chi-square value for the influence of extrinsic variables on the level of motivation for the junior staff is 102.11 compared against a chi-square value of 42.31 at .001 level of significance. This means that the research hypothesis is accepted and Ho rejected. Thus the external variables of a job have a significant influence on the level of motivation of this group of employees. The research hypothesis is therefore refuted or rejected.
- Research decision

Since the calculated $x^2$ (102.11) is greater than the critical $x^2$ (42.31), the decision is to accept the HR (which states that the extrinsic job variables are significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission) and reject the Ho (which states that the extrinsic job variables are not significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission).

- Research results and findings

Extrinsic variables of the job are significant in determining the level of motivation among junior employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission.

**Figure 5.14: Perceptions of senior staff of extrinsic job variables as motivators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic job variables</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Very unimportant</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational policies and administration</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good relations with supervisors</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cordial relations with co-employees</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>168</strong></td>
<td><strong>357</strong></td>
<td><strong>616</strong></td>
<td><strong>245</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,386</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


- Test statistics

Degree of difference (df) = 18
Calculated value of $x^2$ = 263.4
Critical value of $x^2$ = 42.31
Alpha = .001
• Interpretation

The calculated value of $x^2 (263.4)$ is greater than the critical value of $x^2 (42.31)$ at 0.1% errors. When the calculated $x^2 (263.4)$ is matched against a critical chi-square value (42.81) at .001 level of significance, it was established that senior staff, like junior staff, are also significantly influenced by the presence of external variables of the job. Thus, the research hypothesis is also accepted for this group of employees.

• Research decision

Since the calculated $x^2 (263.4)$ is greater than the critical value of $x^2 (42.31)$ at 0.1% errors, the decision is to accept the HR (which states that the extrinsic job variables are significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission) and reject the Ho (which states that the extrinsic job variables are not significant in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission).

• Research results and findings

Extrinsic variables of the job are significant in influencing the work of motivation of senior civil servants in the Federal Civil Service Commission.
Figure 5:17: Perceptions of senior staff of intrinsic and extrinsic job variables as motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Job variables</th>
<th>Motivational N (%)</th>
<th>Non-motivational N (%)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>100 (50.51)</td>
<td>98 (49.49)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>124 (62.63)</td>
<td>74 (37.37)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>100 (50.51)</td>
<td>98 (49.49)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal growth and career development</td>
<td>124 (62.63)</td>
<td>75 (37.88)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>105 (53.03)</td>
<td>93 (46.97)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Organisational policy and administration</td>
<td>57 (28.79)</td>
<td>141 (71.21)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>54 (27.27)</td>
<td>144 (72.73)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good relations with supervisors</td>
<td>47 (23.74)</td>
<td>151 (76.26)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cordial relations with co-employees</td>
<td>46 (23.23)</td>
<td>152 (76.77)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>125 (63.13)</td>
<td>73 (36.87)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>143 (72.22)</td>
<td>55 (27.78)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>53 (26.77)</td>
<td>145 (73.23)</td>
<td>198 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey 2004

- **Interpretation**

The intrinsic job factors of achievement (50.51%), recognition (62.63%), advancement (50.51%), personal growth and career development (62.63%), and responsibility (53.03%) are perceived by majority of the senior staff respondents as motivators. Conversely, the majority of senior officers gave a low rating to the extrinsic job factors of organisational policy and administration (28.79%), supervision (27.27%), good relations with supervisors (23.74%), cordial relations with co-employees (23.23%) and working conditions (26.77%) as motivators. However, the majority of senior staff respondents consider the extrinsic job factors of pay (63.13%) and job security (72.22%) to be motivational.
Figure 5.18: Relationship between job status and perceptions of job variables as motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic and extrinsic job variables</th>
<th>Job status</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>Senior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational</td>
<td>954</td>
<td>1,075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-motivational</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>1,301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,804</td>
<td>2,376</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey 2004

- **Test statistics**

  Degree of difference Df = 2
  
  Calculated value of $x^2$ = 24.35
  
  Critical value of $x^2$ = 10.827
  
  Alpha = .001
  
  Yule’s Q = 0.15

- **Interpretation**

  The calculated $x^2$ is 24.35 and 17 is greater than the critical $x^2$ of 10.827 at less than 1% errors. This means therefore that a relationship exists between job status and perceptions of job variables. The Yule’s Q is 0.15, denoting a weak positive relationship between job status and the perception of job variables.
### Figure 5.19: Ranking of job variables by respondents (n)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/n</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job variables</td>
<td>Work environment</td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>Relations with co-employees</td>
<td>Relations with superiors</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Organisational policies</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Career development</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Figure 5.20: Ranking of job variables by respondents (composite numbers)

| Sn | Job variables            | 1\textsuperscript{st} | 2\textsuperscript{nd} | 3\textsuperscript{rd} | 4\textsuperscript{th} | 5\textsuperscript{th} | 6\textsuperscript{th} | 7\textsuperscript{th} | 8\textsuperscript{th} | 9\textsuperscript{th} | 10\textsuperscript{th} | 11\textsuperscript{th} | 12\textsuperscript{th} | Total |
|----|--------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|---------|
| 1  | Work environment         | 24                     | 55                     | 220                    | -                      | 328                    | 707                    | 510                    | 200                    | 88                     | 72                     | 40                     | -        | 2,244  |
| 2  | Job security             | 1,224                  | 1,342                  | 580                    | 324                    | 176                    | 154                    | 1,800                  |                        |                        |                        |                        | 3,800    |        |
| 3  | Pay                      | 1,728                  | 1,518                  | 360                    | -                      | 160                    | 168                    | 3,934                  |                        |                        |                        |                        |          |
| 4  | Relations with co-employees | -                     | 198                    | 370                    | 333                    | 432                    | 126                    | 188                    | 300                    | 88                     | 114                    | 20                     | 40       | 2,189  |
| 5  | Relations with superiors | 216                    | 440                    | 180                    | 324                    | 296                    | 133                    | 108                    | -                      | 352                    | -                      | 116                    | 30       | 2,195  |
| 6  | Supervision              | 216                    | 132                    | 20                     | -                      | -                      | -                      | 480                    | 280                    | 160                    | 330                    | 12                     | 38       | 1,668  |
| 7  | Organisational policies  | 24                     | 44                     | 220                    | -                      | 48                     | 56                     | 108                    | 570                    | 280                    | 30                     | 176                    | 20       | 1,576  |
| 8  | Responsibility            | -                      | -                      | 180                    | 162                    | 48                     | 140                    | 264                    | 110                    | 400                    | 54                     | 56                     | 88       | 1,502  |
| 9  | Career development       | 264                    | 66                     | 440                    | 396                    | 176                    | 126                    | 132                    | 30                     | 56                     | 276                    | 72                     | 36       | 2,070  |
| 10 | Promotion                | 216                    | 264                    | 1,210                  | 729                    | 608                    | 154                    | 24                     | 20                     | 8                      | 6                      | 6                      | 5        | 3,250  |
| 11 | Recognition              | 60                     | 55                     | 220                    | 504                    | 352                    | 308                    | 132                    | 90                     | 48                     | 54                     | 186                    | 54       | 2,063  |
| 12 | Achievement              | 264                    | 198                    | 40                     | 360                    | 352                    | 154                    | 240                    | 310                    | 16                     | 48                     | 40                     | 70       | 2,092  |


Figure 5.21: Ranking of job variables by respondents in descending order

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</table>

Figure 5.22: Ranking of job variables by senior staff (composite numbers)

| S/N | Job variables       | 1<sup>st</sup> | 2<sup>nd</sup> | 3<sup>rd</sup> | 4<sup>th</sup> | 5<sup>th</sup> | 6<sup>th</sup> | 7<sup>th</sup> | 8<sup>th</sup> | 9<sup>th</sup> | 10<sup>th</sup> | 11<sup>th</sup> | 12<sup>th</sup> | Total |
|-----|---------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------|
| 1   | Work environment    | 220            | -            | 176          | -            | 396          | 110          | 88           | 72           | 40           | -            | -            | 1,102  |
| 2   | Job security        | 792            | 726          | 220          | -            | 176          | 154          | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 2,068  |
| 3   | Pay                 | 1,056          | 726          | -            | -            | 16           | 168          | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 2,110  |
| 4   | Relations with co-employees | - | - | - | - | - | - | 168 | 300 | 88 | 114 | 20 | 40 | 730 |
| 5   | Relations with superiors | - | 242 | - | - | - | - | 110 | 160 | - | 176 | 20 | - | 754 |
| 6   | Supervision         | 20             | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 100          | 88           | 330          | 12           | 38           | 588    |
| 7   | Organisational policies | 24      | 44           | 220          | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 110          | -            | -            | 584    |
| 8   | Responsibility      | -              | -            | -            | 162          | 48           | 140          | -            | -            | 264          | 110          | -            | 880    |
| 9   | Career development  | 264            | 66           | 440          | 396          | 176          | 126          | 132          | 30           | 56           | -            | -            | 1,686  |
| 10  | Promotion           | -              | 264          | 660          | 396          | 176          | 154          | 24           | 20           | 8            | 6            | 6            | 1,779  |
| 11  | Recognition         | 60             | 55           | 220          | 504          | 352          | 308          | 132          | -            | -            | -            | -            | 1,631  |
| 12  | Achievement         | 264            | 198          | 40           | 198          | 352          | 154          | 132          | 220          | -            | -            | -            | 1,558  |


Figure 5.23: Ranking of job variables by junior staff (composite numbers)

| S/N | Job variables       | 1<sup>st</sup> | 2<sup>nd</sup> | 3<sup>rd</sup> | 4<sup>th</sup> | 5<sup>th</sup> | 6<sup>th</sup> | 7<sup>th</sup> | 8<sup>th</sup> | 9<sup>th</sup> | 10<sup>th</sup> | 11<sup>th</sup> | 12<sup>th</sup> | Total |
|-----|---------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------|
| 1   | Work environment    | 24             | 55           | -            | -            | 152          | 707          | 114          | 90           | -            | -            | -            | 1,142  |
| 2   | Job security        | 432            | 616          | 360          | 324          | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 1,732  |
| 3   | Pay                 | 672            | 792          | 360          | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 1,824  |
| 4   | Relations with co-employees | - | - | 198 | 370 | 333 | 432 | 126 | - | - | - | - | 1,459 |
| 5   | Relations with superiors | 216        | 198          | 180          | 324          | 296          | 133          | 108          | -            | -            | -            | -            | 1,455  |
| 6   | Supervision         | 216            | 132          | 48           | 56           | 108          | 460          | 120          | 30           | -            | -            | -            | 1,080  |
| 7   | Organisational policies | -       | -            | -            | 48           | 56           | 108          | 460          | 120          | 30           | -            | -            | 822    |
| 8   | Responsibility      | -              | -            | 180          | -            | -            | -            | 400          | 54           | 56           | -            | -            | 690    |
| 9   | Career development  | -              | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 76           | 72           | 36           | -            | -            | 384    |
| 10  | Promotion           | 216            | -            | 550          | 333          | 432          | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | -            | 1,531  |
| 11  | Recognition         | -              | -            | -            | -            | -            | 90           | 48           | 54           | 186          | 54           | -            | 432    |
| 12  | Achievement         | -              | -            | 162          | -            | 108          | 90           | 16           | 48           | 40           | 70           | -            | 534    |

Figure 5.24: Ranking of job variables by senior staff in descending order

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<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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Figure 5.25: Ranking of job variables by senior staff in descending order

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5.11 Research findings

Based on a critical analysis of the above data generated from the questionnaire used in this study, the following findings emerged:

- Employee motivation is not dependent only on intrinsic job variables as sources of motivation can reside in both job content and job context factors alike.
• Employee motivation is significantly influenced by extrinsic job variables particularly job security and pay.

• There is a generally high priority rating by employees for job security and pay as the primary factors influencing work motivation.

• There is a relationship between job status and the perception of job variables as motivators; hence employees perceive job variables somewhat differently based on their job status.

• Generally, senior employees appear more concerned about intrinsic job variables (work content) than junior employees who tend to emphasise extrinsic job variables (work context).

• Both categories of employees – junior and senior civil servants – rank pay, job security and promotion (advancement) as first, second and third, respectively, in order of the importance they attach to these job variables as far as their motivation is concerned.

5.11.1 Discussion of findings

The relative influence of intrinsic and extrinsic job variables on work motivation is still shrouded in controversy. Hence, this investigation sought to ascertain the determinants of employee motivation in the Federal Civil Service Commission. For this purpose, a hypothesis was formulated, with the aim to corroborate or refute it through the data collection and statistical test undertaken in this study. The hypothesis read:

The level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is only dependent upon intrinsic or internal variables of the job, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and personal development.
For the purposes of this study, the converse of the above hypothesis was used to test whether the data corroborated or refuted the hypothesis. This focused the attention on extrinsic or external variables of the job and their significance in determining the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission.

The statistical test on the effect of internal variables of the job on the level of employee motivation in the Federal Civil Service Commission produces a calculated chi-square value of 9.99 against a critical chi-square value of 32.11 at .001 level of significance (see figure 5.9). It thus goes to confirm that the hypothesis was refuted at .001 level of significance. This implies that work motivation is not only dependent upon the internal variables of the job. Therefore, Herzberg's dual-factor theory postulation or assumption that only intrinsic job variables are motivators could not be corroborated as the calculated chi-square value of 9.99 for the internal variables of the job is not significant at .001 level of significance.

To provide further insight on the behaviour of the sample (respondents), a statistical test of the hypothesis was carried out for the different groups of employees – junior and senior staff. For junior employees, it was confirmed that their motivation is not only dependent upon intrinsic job variables. This is demonstrated by a calculated chi-square of 3.17 against a critical chi-square value of 32.91 at .001 level of significance (see figure 5.10). It was also shown that the level of motivation among senior employees is not only dependent upon intrinsic job variables. This is indicated by a calculated chi-square of 24.07 against a critical chi-square of 32.91 at .001 level of significance (see figure 5.11).

The converse of the hypothesis was also tested for the sample population, then for each of the subgroups of junior and senior employees. The calculated chi-square value for the influence of external variables of the job on the level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission using the representative sample is 194.51 against a critical chi-square value of 42.81 at .001 level of significance (see figure 5.12). The calculated chi-square value of
194.51 is found to be significant, thereby indicating that the level of motivation among employees in the sample is influenced by extrinsic variables of the job contrary to Herzberg's theory that extrinsic variables of the job do not motivate as they are, to him, merely hygiene or maintenance factors and not motivators.

For the junior staff group, the statistical test of the converse of the hypothesis generates a calculated chi-square value of 102.11 (See table 5.10b) against a critical chi-square of 42.81 at .001 level of significance. This denotes that the hypothesis is significant at .001 level of significance. This means that the work motivation of junior staff is significantly influenced by extrinsic variables of job. The statistical test of the converse of the hypothesis for the senior staff group produces a calculated chi-square value of 263.40 against a critical chi-square value of 42.81 at .001 level of significance (see figure 5.14). This implies that the level of motivation among this group of employees is also significantly influenced by extrinsic job variables.

Data in figure 5.18 shows a calculated chi-square value of 24.35 against a critical chi-square value of 10.82 at alpha = .001. Since the calculated value of chi-square of 23.35 is greater than critical chi-square value of 10.82 at .001 level of significance, it means that a relationship exists between job status and employee perception of job variables as motivators. The analysis of employees' perception of job variables in terms of the importance they attach to the job variables clearly reveals that senior officers attach more importance to intrinsic job variables than junior staff.

It is interesting to note the following observations: junior employees attach relatively little importance to such intrinsic job variables as achievement, recognition, advancement, personal growth and career development and responsibility as depicted by the data in figure table 5.17, which shows that this group of employees (above 60% for each job variable) perceive internal job variables as non-motivators, whereas the majority of them (ranging from 57.35% to 82.32%) indicate intrinsic job variables as motivators, and extrinsic job variables (ranging from 71.21% to 76.77%), excluding pay and job security, as non-motivators (see figure 5.17). This may be partly due to the higher level of
education, training and technical skills their offices demand, as well as the relatively better material and psychological benefits they derive from their jobs.

The three most important job factors to employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission in terms of work motivation are pay, job security and promotion in that order of ranking (see figures 5.20, 5.21, 5.24 and 5.25). Besides promotion or advancement, which Herzberg classified as a motivator, being intrinsic job variables, pay and job security (which are extrinsic job factors) are considered by Herzberg as hygiene or maintenance factors. Yet, pay and job security proved to be motivators among the respondents in this study. This study thus contradicts Herzberg's postulations that pay and job security are not motivators but hygiene factors. This discrepancy between the findings in this study and Herzberg's theory on pay and job security is perhaps largely due to the poor economic environment in Nigeria, where most employees and other people are still battling for the basic needs of life. These are mostly at the lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (see chapter two), which correspond to Herzberg's maintenance or hygiene factors that are related to work context.

Money in Nigeria is an index of social mobility and social status. Money helps to satisfy physiological and material needs as identified by Maslow. The higher the purchasing powers of employees in meeting their basic needs, the better motivated they will be and propelled to work harder, particularly if they are sure that they will be equitably rewarded (cf. Adams 1963:422-436). Above all, the unabating inflational pressures on the purchasing power of employees in Nigeria have made money important as a motivational instrument.

As Self (1977) rightly pointed out: "Civil servants as a whole regard their greatest benefits as being job security and pensions." The 1975 Murtala Mohammed regime's purge of the civil service dealt the first devastating blow on the ethos of job security in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. The Buhari administration undertook a retrenchment exercise in 1984 that further battered the tradition of job security in the civil service. Subsequent retrenchment exercises embarked upon by various governments have further eroded the sense of job security of civil servants in Nigeria. Indeed, the rationalisation of the Nigerian Federal Civil
Service (which will lead to a loss of jobs) is being planned by president Obasanjo’s administration.

In a service characterised by the fear of losing a job, it would be difficult if not impossible to obtain the best performance from employees. In the words of Drucker (1977:245): "[I]iving in fear of losing a job and income is incompatible with taking responsibility for job and work group, for output and performance." Retrenchment exercises within the service create a situation of fear, hopelessness and insecurity, which is counterproductive to the goals of increased work motivation and improved performance in the service.

Advancement or promotion, which was classified as a motivator by Herzberg, is of primary concern to the majority of respondents in this survey perhaps because the federal character policy tends to lead to reverse discrimination in favour of those from relatively underrepresented states and geopolitical zones. This policy negates the criteria of seniority and merit in the promotion exercise and can therefore actually demotivate. This may explain why respondents attach so much importance to promotion. Moreover, promotion brings with it an increase in salary and enhanced status.

5.12 Summary

This chapter provided a description of the methodology and the data collection process utilised in this study and made a factual analysis and evaluation of the data and findings in order to answer the research question, test the stated hypothesis and fulfil the main study objective of this thesis.

In chapters two and three, the findings were provided of an extensive review of the available literature on motivation theories and the dimensions of job satisfaction, with specific focus on Herzberg’s dual-factor theory. Herzberg’s dual-factor theory was used as the basis for conducting the empirical research in this thesis. In order to improve the understanding of the African context, an overview was also provided of the sample population and the environment within which they live and work. Specific attention was thus paid to the Nigerian Federal Civil
Service and the Federal Civil Service Commission from where the sample of respondents was drawn (see chapter four). Current motivational practices in Nigeria to enhance job satisfaction were explained as these, together with Herzberg's theory, provided the background for the construction of the survey questionnaire used in the empirical research for this thesis.

Herzberg et al. claimed that their theory was widely applicable. However, their findings were based on studies undertaken in very specific geographic areas among educated and skilled employees who were relatively affluent. This did not take into account the question whether cultural, material and financial conditions would influence the findings. In this study, an attempt was made to test the theory within a vastly different environment from that of the original Herzberg studies.

This chapter provided details about the survey methodology used in this study, particularly with regard to data collection and the survey procedure. The questionnaire was extensively discussed, and the focus fell on the application of the questionnaire method, prerequisites for a successfully designed questionnaire, the development of the questionnaire, questionnaire confidentiality. Following on from this, the research design was explained. This included a discussion of the study population, the sampling design and procedures, the data collection instrument, the construction and administration of the data collection instrument, the method of data presentation and analysis, reliability analysis and validity, and the limitations of the study. Next the data was presented and analysed, with specific reference to the hypothesis in order to refute or corroborate its claim.

The findings of this study can be summarised as follows:

- Contrary to the findings of Herzberg's studies of the dual-factor theory, employee motivation in Nigeria does not only depend upon intrinsic job variables. Sources of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission were found in both job content and job context factors alike.
• Employee motivation in Nigeria is significantly influenced by extrinsic job variables, particularly job security and pay, with a high priority ranking for these variables as the primary motivating factors.

• There is a relationship between job status and the perception of job variables as motivators, with Nigerian civil service employees perceiving job variables somewhat differently based on their job status.

• In the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission, senior staff appear to be more motivated by intrinsic job variables (work content) than junior staff who tend to emphasise extrinsic job variables (work context).

• There is no difference among the importance attached by employees on different levels of seniority in the ranking of pay (1), job security (2) and promotion (advancement) (3) as the most important variables influencing job motivation.
6.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis was mainly to explain the nature and scope of the determinants of motivation, with particular reference to the Herzberg dual-factor theory. The study was based largely on a survey among a selected group of civil service employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria. In this last chapter of the thesis, specific and appropriate proposals and conclusions are presented, based on the theoretical substructure provided in chapters one to five, as well as the findings and the research results as discussed in chapter five. To facilitate the research, the overall aim of the thesis was divided into four objectives (see chapter one) to provide:

- An integration of variables influencing the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction through the application of a literature study of the concept and theories of motivation and the motivational strategies and techniques employed to ensure employee motivation and job satisfaction;

- A historical overview of Herzberg's dual-factor theory and an explanation of the concept "job satisfaction" as a determinant of motivation through an exploration of available literature in order to provide an exposition of the rationale of Herzberg's dual-factor theory;

- A historical background to and the rationale for the Federal Civil Service Commission as the study population for this thesis, as well as an explanation of the structure and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and an overview of the Federal Civil Service Commission in order to provide context of the African environment of the public sector and to justify the sampling population;
A description of the methodology and the data collection process and to make a factual analyses and evaluation of the data and findings of the study in order to answer the research question(s) and to fulfil the study objectives.

This study should also be seen as an appraisal of a process and not only as a description of findings based on a survey questionnaire with regard to Herzberg's dual-factor theory, as well as the findings made in the literature studies presented in this thesis. The various objectives are therefore summarised in this chapter in order to draw conclusions and make proposals on the nature and scope of the determinants of motivation in relation to the management of the job satisfaction of civil service employees in Nigeria.

6.2 Summary of the objectives of the research

The four objectives of this study were dealt with in four separate chapters. These chapters are briefly summarised below.

6.2.1 Objective one: An integration of variables influencing the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction through the application of a literature study of the concept and theories of motivation and the motivational strategies and techniques employed to ensure employee motivation and job satisfaction

Chapter two aimed to provide an integration of those variables that influence the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction. This was achieved through an in-depth study of the available literature on the concept and theories of motivation and the motivational strategies and techniques that are employed to ensure employee motivation and job satisfaction.

The chapter explored the meaning and rationale for work with work seen as the crucial element in the study of motivation. To understand different performance
levels, it was essential to understand why people work and what benefits they derive from a job and from working. The concept of “a job”, or the formalisation of work within a specific environment was also explored through an examination of meanings attached to the concept.

The major part of this chapter was devoted to an exploration of the concept motivation and of leading theories of motivation. The theories were classified as early ideas on motivation, content theories of motivation and process theories of motivation. Scholars whose works were discussed included Taylor, Mayo, Maslow, Alderfer, Argyris, McClelland, Adams, Vroom, Porter and Lawler, Locke, Skinner and McGregor.

The chapter also reviewed the techniques and strategies used to influence motivation, as well as the relationship between motivation, job satisfaction and performance. The concept of job performance was clarified and a model of job performance was presented.

The findings of this chapter included that motivation is the factor which makes people want rather than forces them to work. It is a necessary part in the process of achieving higher levels of productivity and increased performance. Motivation is driven by individual needs, both positive and negative, which drive individual behaviour towards attaining some identified objective or goal. It is a highly individual characteristic that is difficult to nurture within organisational settings.

Several groups of theories of motivation were considered. The early ideas on motivation included the scientific management approach and the human relations approach to motivation. Taylor (1911) considered money to be the prime motivator of employees, a claim that was refuted by studies showing that employee motivation goes beyond money. His scientific management approach did not pay adequate attention to the role of human factors in productivity improvement. Some of his techniques showed mechanistic approaches, and though they are no longer regarded as appropriate, many of them are still used as control procedures in some organisations. Taylor was a pioneer in developing and analysing work methods in a scientific manner. One of the main
contributions made by the scientific management approach was that it emphasised the importance of planning and the concept of control in management.

The study of the human relations approach to motivation showed certain theoretical drawbacks. The positive attitude of employees is impossible to explain in the simplistic terms of the human relations model. The approach oversimplified motivation by focusing on social relations and de-emphasising the use of material incentives to obtain compliance with organisational goals. The human relations orientation resulted in work becoming more tolerable while subsequently reducing employee dissatisfaction, but it did little to provide motivation or to satisfy needs for challenge and self-actualisation.

The content theories of motivation that were examined in this chapter were Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth theory, Argyris's immaturity-maturity theory and McClelland's achievement motivation theory. The study of Maslow's hierarchy of needs found that research did not bear out the classification of needs in a hierarchy. Maslow was criticised for paying little attention to the impact of culture on the determination of needs. His theory also viewed needs in a static rather than dynamic context, but it did provide a good basis for the study of motivation.

Alderfer's resistance, relatedness and growth theory was more complex than the hierarchy of needs. Needs were seen in a continuum. Chronic needs were identified that defined by a specific situation, which could change when the environment changed. Other scholars failed to find a suitable connection between the three different kinds of needs in subsequent studies.

Argyris's immaturity-maturity theory focused on organisational behaviour, specifically the relationship between the needs of people and those of an organisation. He postulated that employee behaviour was directly linked to the way in which they were treated by the organisation. Although this phenomenon was simplistically described, there is no doubt that some organisations still treat people as if they are extremely immature. Argyris focused the attention on the
need to provide meaningful work whenever possible and to organise and manage in such a way that the uniqueness, maturity and sense of responsibility of employees are respected, preserved and developed.

The achievement motivation theory of McClelland was also examined. McClelland's findings highlighted the importance of an appropriate match between individuals and their jobs. The evidence to support McClelland's achievement motivation theory is fragmented. It is doubtful whether achievement motivation can be taught. It also does not appear to result in a permanent change in behaviour.

The next section of the chapter considered process theories of motivation, including equity theory, expectancy theories, goal-setting theory and reinforcement theories. Equity theory focuses on people's perceptions of fair treatment in comparison with others. This theory showed some defects, among others, that its impact is limited in work situations because most of the research focused on pay as the basic outcome while ignoring other relevant outcomes. Evidence showed that employees might tolerate inequity for some time through the establishment of competitive edges, which occur when two or more individuals outperform the others. However, research on the equity theory generally supported it, for example, the notion that employees who feel underpaid decreased their output, while those who feel overpaid increased their output. One of the strengths of equity theory is its inclusion of interpersonal processes.

The expectancy theories of motivation discussed in this chapter included those of Vroom, and Porter and Lawler. Vroom saw motivation as a function of the value an individual expects to obtain from the performance of an activity or action. Porter and Lawler related performance, satisfaction and rewards and underscored the necessity to match individual skills, abilities and traits to job requirements. Expectancy theories highlighted the importance of a clear link between performance and outcomes, as well as the need to offer rewards that have a positive value for employees. Despite their appeal, it is difficult to research and apply these theories in practice. For example, the theory does not indicate what type of performance is likely to lead to satisfaction; neither does it explain
what expected rewards would energise employees. Critics also expressed concern that the theory is normative because it explains how people should behave, not how they will actually behave.

The goal-setting theory of motivation was considered next. The premise that people’s goals play a significant part in their behaviour is supported in research. It was found that when goals are specific and challenging, they function more effectively as motivators both for individual and group performance. However, goal-setting later reclassified as was more a motivational technique than a theory.

The study of reinforcement theories focused on Skinner’s investigation into the effect of reinforcement on motivated behaviour. The strength of Skinner's postulations lies in the emphasis on the removal of obstructions to performance, careful planning and organising, control through feedback, and the expansion of communication.

Motivational techniques and strategies were explored, including the carrot-and-stick approach, incentives, management by objectives, employee participation, employee empowerment, job enrichment, quality control circles, quality of work life and sabbaticals. The concept job performance was examined and a model of performance was presented. Job performance was found to be characterised by effectiveness, efficiency, economy, productivity and quality. The model of job performance proposed that performance is a function of motivation, ability and environment.

The results of the literature study presented in this chapter lead to the exploration of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory of motivation, which was presented in chapter three. Herzberg’s theory was explored in terms of the variables that are seen to influence job satisfaction. The findings of chapter three formed the basis for the survey that was conducted as part of this study.
6.2.2 Objective two: A historical overview of Herzberg's dual-factor theory and an explanation of the concept "job satisfaction" as a determinant of motivation through an exploration of available literature in order to provide an exposition of the rationale of Herzberg's dual-factor theory

The lack of a uniform terminology is often an obstacle for any person who wishes to study or communicate in the field of motivational concepts. One of the purposes of the conceptual overview of motivational theories in objective one was to find, within the context of this study, an appropriate definition for job satisfaction based on the meanings attached to motivation. It should be mentioned that Herzberg's dual-factor theory is a motivational philosophy that is generally accepted in America as one of the most prominent and widely used strategies to improve the productivity of an institution through the application of job satisfaction strategies. A common definition of job satisfaction was needed in this research to prevent confusion and to help explain the arguments that emerged from the literature within and between different theories about job satisfaction and specifically Herzberg's theory. On analysing the Herzberg dual-factor theory, it was found that different the various authors classified Herzberg's theory under different names. The term dual-factor theory was chosen to be used throughout this thesis.

The purpose of chapter three was to compile a systematic exploration of the conceptual knowledge about the subject of job satisfaction as a determinant of motivation. In the first instance, definitions of the concept job satisfaction were explored. Job satisfaction was seen in historical perspective by referring to the findings of studies undertaken at specific times by different scholars. From this, some generalised approaches to job satisfaction were identified and discussed. Determinants of job satisfaction were subsequently examined, with the focus on job content, supervision and promotional opportunities. The linkages between job satisfaction and job behaviour were identified in relation to productivity, and absenteeism and staff turnover.
Against the background provided by the above, Herzberg's dual-factor theory was explored. Ten distinct factors in job satisfaction were discussed, including intrinsic aspects of the job, supervision, working conditions, wages, opportunity for advancement, security, company and management, social aspects of the job, communication and benefits. The findings of follow-up studies undertaken by Herzberg and other scholars were also recorded.

Some of the most important findings of this chapter are provided below. The concept job satisfaction was formally recognised in 1932 by Kornhauser and Sharp as a legitimate study area in its own right. Many of the findings of studies undertaken in the 1930s and 1940s fed into the groundbreaking work undertaken by Herzberg and his colleagues in the late 1950s. The major relationship between the findings of more general studies of job satisfaction and the studies by Herzberg et al. that job satisfaction consists of both intrinsic and extrinsic variables. One of the problems with these studies was is the identification of the appropriate job variables with which to measure job satisfaction. Those determinants of job satisfaction that were identified by scholars included three main variables that were discussed in the next section of the chapter: job content, supervision and promotional opportunities.

Several studies were also undertaken in the 1950s and 1960s to establish the effect of job content on the satisfaction levels of employees, resulting mainly from the greater automation in the middle of the 20th century and the effects this had on employees. Findings suggested that the less variety in a job, the more likely an employee is to become dissatisfied. Mechanistic work patterns also played a part, while rotation among different kinds of tasks in the same area of a workplace lead to higher levels of satisfaction. Job status also seemed to contribute towards job satisfaction. The quality and nature of supervision were seen as important in the level of satisfaction employees experience in their jobs, although Herzberg et al. found that the influence of supervision was somewhat overrated. Persuasive arguments continue to be put forward to this day for a more participative management style among the leadership of organisations. Promotional opportunities were also examined as a determinant of job satisfaction, but findings seemed to suggest that the availability of promotional
opportunities as such does not lead to satisfaction; rather, the expectations of individuals about these promotional opportunities were crucial in the levels of job satisfaction experienced by those whose expectations were not met.

Another important aspect of the study of job satisfaction is the relationship between levels of satisfaction and people's behaviour while at work. The next section considered two of these relationships: that between job satisfaction and productivity, and between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover.

With regard to the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, findings were mixed. Some scholars found little correlation between these two aspects, while others found a correlation, particularly among employees who did routine, repetitive tasks. In studying the linkage between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover, scholars found only insignificant evidence of any relationship between these three aspects. These findings are particularly important in any further studies of job satisfaction and productivity. The studies found, by implication, that a satisfied employee is not necessarily a productive or motivated employee. But, as mentioned earlier, Herzberg implicitly defined job satisfaction and motivation as the same thing. Although he did not specifically examine this relationship, it seems likely that a satisfied or motivated employee would also be productive. If the Herzberg theory is accepted as a point of departure, a complete re-examination of all the relationships between job satisfaction and job behaviour should be undertaken.

The second half of this chapter examined and analysed Herzberg's dual-factor theory. Herzberg's theory incorporated much of what Maslow had proposed in his hierarchy of needs theory. Herzberg specifically adopted the notions of motivators and hygiene. Motivators included needs related to job content and job context (the conditions and environment in which the work is done). Although the latter may prevent dissatisfaction, they cannot in themselves lead to satisfaction. Herzberg thus effectively divided satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and his theory seemed to suggest that these are not bi-polar opposites, but two separate and independent outcomes. Herzberg and his colleagues proposed a list of 10 job factors that influence job satisfaction. In testing this list of factors, the authors
further identified 14 first-level factors with an impact on levels of satisfaction among employees. In addition, five specific effects were also reported by the sample in their surveys. Their conclusions were that recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility and work itself were motivators, while company policy and administration, technical aspects of supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions were hygiene factors. Herzberg’s theory significantly influenced the job enrichment movement, which sought to design jobs in order to maximise the opportunities to obtain satisfaction from work and to improve the quality of working life. He drew the attention to the value of job-centred factors in work motivation previously given little attention by motivation theorists.

A wide variety of studies followed to test and explore the dual-factor theory. Many scholars supported his findings, and many criticised them on a number of grounds. The "critical incident method" was criticised for not drawing out other factors that should be mentioned. Herzberg choice of professional accountants and engineers made effective generalisation across professions impossible. Critics argued that these professionals had already shown that they were motivated, which may not hold true for non-professional employees. Criticism was levelled at Herzberg’s failure to address the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Individual differences were not adequately taken into account and certain job factors could not be applied among blue-collar employees. Different findings were also reported among other cultures, for example, in studies undertaken in India and Nigeria. As a result of the different settings in which the theory has been applied, some scholars felt that it lacked theoretical clarity.

Against the exploration of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory presented in this chapter, the next chapter focused on the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, from which the sample population was drawn for the survey used in this thesis. It also focused on the service’s composition, and the role of the Federal Civil Service Commission within the wider context of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. It identified those existing factors that may serve to motivate public sector employees in the country.
6.2.3 Objective three: A historical background to and the rationale of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission as the study population for this thesis, as well as an explanation of the structure and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and an overview of the Federal Civil Service Commission in order to provide the context of the African environment of the public sector and to justify the sampling population

In chapters two and three, the concepts "motivation" and "job satisfaction" were explored to provide the backdrop against which Herzberg's dual-factor theory could be applied or tested among a sample group of civil service employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria. The respondents were selected from a population of career civil servants. The sample was large enough to provide reliable data for this survey. The effective sample size was slightly below 50% of the total survey population. The sample population met the stated criteria of this study: professional (senior) and non-professional (junior) employees; different skills groups; located in one institution where the environmental conditions are essentially representative of all areas within the Nigerian Federal Civil Service; and willing to participate in the study. The population that fulfilled these requirements was employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission located in Abuja.

Chapter four provided background for the survey. This study differed from Herzberg's in terms of research design methodology, as it simply applied the theoretical framework that is derived from Herzberg's dual-factor theory. The job factors identified in Herzberg's study were used to construct a questionnaire (see chapter five). This chapter thus provided background to the issue of motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service in order to explain its relevance to the sample population used for the purposes of this thesis. This assisted in improving the understanding of the determinants of motivation among employees of the Federal Civil Service Commission. In addition, the chapter explained the concept and application of representative bureaucracy in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. An overview of the structure, categories of staff and functions of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service was provided. The membership and structure as well as the
powers and functions of the Federal Civil Service Commission were identified. Finally, current motivational strategies in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service were discussed.

Some of the findings of this chapter are set out below. The exploration of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, in general, and the Federal Civil Service Commission, in particular, provided the justification for the choice of sample population, as well as a background to the specific issues that were tested in the survey.

The next section explored motivation as an issue of concern in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. One of the major issues that were identified as a reason for the poor performance of public servants in the country is the lack of motivation. This study is of particular importance as it attempted to identify those factors that motivate civil servants in the country to improve their performance.

The exploration of the historical evolution of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service showed a complex service that stretches across 36 states. This section illustrated the enormous challenge in a country like Nigeria to improve motivation and performance across a large number of public sector institutions.

One of the characteristics of the Nigerian Federal Civil Service is the so-called federal character policy in which the principle of representative bureaucracy is enshrined. This policy was meant to avoid nepotism and unfair service provision, as it aims to ensure that the public bureaucracy in Nigeria is representative of all people in the country. One of the drawbacks is that this results in representative recruitment instead of recruitment on merit. This undoubtedly may have a negative effect on the levels of job satisfaction demonstrated by public service employees, as well as on their productivity, performance and motivation.

The structure and categories of staff in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service showed different classes, including the administrative, professional and scientific/research classes, the executive and technical classes, the secretarial class, as well as the clerical/junior technical and sub-technical classes. The Nigerian Federal Civil
Service fulfils seven vital functions, including policy advice, policy implementation, policy formulation, providing continuity of government business, acting as a feedback mechanism and as a change agent.

The next section focused on the membership and structure of the Federal Civil Service Commission, the population from which the sample for this study was drawn. The structure of the commission includes three operations departments, three common services departments, three units and a liaison office in Lagos. This was followed by discussion of the powers and functions of the Federal Civil Service Commission.

The last section of the chapter focused two groups of motivational strategies currently in place in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. The first group is tied to job performance and the second includes those fringe benefits that are automatically awarded to all staff irrespective of their performance in order to create an enabling work environment. Although the majority of these measures have a monetary value, many of them aim to fulfil a variety of other needs, such as general well-being, quality of life and many others. The aim of the next chapter was thus not only to test whether these measures actually motivate public service employees, but also to identify those factors that do motivate them that are not in place in the service.

6.2.4 Objective four: A description of the methodology and the data collection process utilised in this study and to make a factual analysis and evaluation of the data and findings of the study in order to answer the research question(s) and to fulfil the study objectives

In chapters two and three, an extensive review was provided of motivation theories and the dimensions of job satisfaction, with specific focus on Herzberg’s dual-factor theory. These theoretical perspectives were used as the basis for conducting the empirical research in the thesis. To understand the African context, an introductory overview was provided of the sample population,
specifically focusing on the Nigerian Federal Civil Service and of the Federal Civil Service Commission in chapter four. This contextualised the sample used in the thesis and provided an insight into some current motivational practices to enhance job satisfaction.

Chapter five addressed the empirical part of this study and focused on the method of data collection, the application of the questionnaire method, prerequisites for a successfully designed questionnaire, the development of the questionnaire, questionnaire confidentiality, research design, the study population, the sampling design and procedures, the data collection instrument, the construction and administration of the data collection instrument, the method of data presentation and analysis, reliability analysis and validity, limitations of the study, the presentation and analysis of data as a test of the hypothesis, a list of research findings and a discussion of the findings.

Although Herzberg et al. claimed that their theory was widely applicable, the findings were based on studies undertaken in very specific geographic areas among educated and skilled employees who were relatively affluent. This did not take into account the question whether cultural, material and financial conditions would influence the findings. In this study, an attempt was made to test the theory within a vastly different environment from that of the original Herzberg studies.

The findings of this study can therefore be summarised as follows:

- Contrary to the findings of Herzberg's studies of the dual-factor theory, employee motivation in Nigeria does not only depend upon intrinsic job variables. Sources of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission were found in both job content and job context factors alike.

- Employee motivation in Nigeria is significantly influenced by extrinsic job variables, particularly job security and pay, with a high priority ranking for these variables as the primary motivating factors.
• There is a relationship between job status and the perception of job variables as motivators, with Nigerian civil service employees perceiving job variables somewhat differently based on their job status.

• In the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission, senior staff appear to be more motivated by intrinsic job variables (work content) than junior staff who tend to emphasise extrinsic job variables (work context).

• There is no difference among the importance attached by employees on different levels of seniority in the ranking of pay (1), job security (2) and promotion (advancement) (3) as the most important variables influencing job motivation.

6.3 Hypothetical synopsis

The main research problem formulated in order to fulfil the objectives of this study was:

In applying the dual-factor theory, which job factors determine the level of motivation among employees in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission and how can this knowledge be used to increase their level of motivation and job satisfaction?

It was stated in chapter one that the need for such a reflection is important, because the necessary measures to motivate employees and thus to provide for job satisfaction within government institutions can form a useful benchmark against which the progress of effective and efficient service delivery can be assessed.

The research questions addressed in this study were therefore:
• What are the meaning and rationale for work?

• Do both intrinsic (motivators) and extrinsic (hygiene factors) variables of the job motivate employees?

• What effects, if any, do these motivation and hygiene job factors have on employee motivation and job satisfaction?

• Are the Herzberg et al. findings applicable to other than professional employees?

• Do the same job factors (motivators and hygiene factors) motivate junior and senior civil servants in Nigeria’s Federal Civil Service Commission?

• Is the influence of the motivators and hygiene factors similar for senior and junior civil servants in the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria?

• How can motivation be enhanced among Nigerian public sector employees?

In order to fulfil the above objectives and find answers to the research questions, the hypothesis of the study that was stated in chapter one reads as follows:

The level of motivation among employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission is only dependent upon intrinsic or internal variables of the job, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and personal development.

Contingent on the research problem and hypothesis that were developed and tested by this study, the following assumptions become pertinent:

• A motivated employee is likely to work better.
both sets of job variables showed positive and negative impacts on work motivation. This implies that motivators can reside in both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors, contrary to Herzberg’s contention that only intrinsic variables of the job can induce work motivation.

The respondents in this study identified pay and job security as the primary factors influencing work motivation. This result partially agrees with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory (see chapter two) because lower-order needs like pay (money is needed to purchase items like food, clothing and shelter) and job security were given high priority ratings by the majority of the employees in the sample as factors that produce rather than lead to motivation.

However, the findings of this study reveals that junior employees are more extrinsically motivated than senior employees; and that junior employees are less motivated by job content (intrinsic) factors than their senior counterparts. Thus, these results, at best, only partially support the assumptions of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory.

As earlier stated, this investigation revealed that both job content (intrinsic) factors and job context (extrinsic) factors can influence or produce work motivation depending on the person or group concerned and the situation. Prominent motivators identified in the study are pay and job security, as well as promotion (advancement). As such, pay and job security, which are considered by Herzberg as hygiene factors or demotivators, proved to be motivators in this study.

Therefore, the research disproved the hypothesis that the level of motivation among employees in Nigeria’s Federal Civil Service Commission is only dependent upon intrinsic job variables. The reasons might be that, in Western (developed) countries, lower-order needs are more easily taken for granted because of both the individualism and the level of economic affluence in such countries. This is often as a result of social security systems to cater for the basic needs of the populace. Hence, employees in these advanced Western countries may take the fulfilment of lower-order needs for granted.
In Nigeria, like in most other African countries, there is not a social security system to take care of the fundamental needs of the populace. While lower-order needs may be relatively unimportant to employees in advanced Western countries, these lower-order needs may continue to remain important for some time to come in countries like Nigeria due to the lack of a social security system and relatively less affluence.

This invariably means that extrinsic motivation remains pertinent in Nigeria. It is evident that many employees who migrate to affluent and advanced Western countries from Nigeria do so principally for economic reasons rather than to seek the gratification of higher-order needs or intrinsic motivation.

6.4 Conclusions

The issue of motivation for the performance of Nigerian civil servants in discharging their official duties has assumed an unprecedented dimension in recent times, especially with the growing realisation that personnel are the foundations of a development and outcome-oriented civil service. It is therefore crucial to motivate civil servants significantly so that they will work more effectively and efficiently by giving their best to their functions in the civil service. This study thus attempted to identify the actual sources of work motivation, within the context of Herzberg’s dual-factor theory, in Nigeria’s Federal Civil Service Commission. The study revealed that intrinsic job variables are not after all the only factors that produce work motivation, as there are situations where extrinsic job factors significantly influence the motivation of employees.

Herzberg’s dual-factor theory proposed that only intrinsic job factors can motivate employees and that extrinsic job factors are merely hygiene factors or demotivators. Indeed, pay and job security, which are extrinsic job factors, were indicated as sources of work motivation by respondents in the study. In other words, applying the dual-factor theory to the Federal Civil Service Commission
has shown that there are situations in which the so-called hygiene or maintenance (extrinsic) factors are perceived as motivators.

Although the results of this research do not totally invalidate Herzberg’s concept of two categories of job factors, each with particular motivational effects, the findings that work motivation is not only dependent upon intrinsic job factors has far reaching implications for the authorities of the civil service in the formulation of personnel policies, particularly those relating to employee morale, motivation and welfare.

The inference to draw is that Herzberg’s dual-factor theory – which emphasises the gratification of higher-order (intrinsic) needs and de-emphasises the satisfaction of lower-order (extrinsic) needs – does not accurately reflect or explain the Nigerian work situation. It is evident that it will be detrimental to productivity to ignore the place of extrinsic rewards in the motivation of employees in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service.

The findings of this study also revealed the following observations:

- Civil servants felt that they are not paid decent salaries because their salaries and allowances are poor in relation to the continued rise in the cost of living. They were of the opinion that the salaries, allowances and other fringe benefits of civil servants should be immediately reviewed upwards and adjusted annually. Moreover, salary increases should be tied not only to performance, but also to the inflationary rate in the country in order to ameliorate the effects of inflation on employees’ pay. They also felt that, in order to enhance the purchasing power of civil servants, the government should immediately commence the full implementation of the monetization policy.

- It was also revealed that, to provide civil servants with a sense of job security, their job security should be guaranteed. Civil servants want to feel that they have a cushion against economic insecurity and that their jobs will exist in
future. As such, disciplinary measures – particularly those that may lead to separation such as termination or dismissal – must conform with laid down rules and procedures rather than by arbitrary action. In this respect, it was revealed that Decree no 17 of 1984, which empowers the government to dismiss or retire civil servants arbitrarily, should be abrogated or repealed.

- What also came to light was that opportunities for promotion should be made readily available to deserving employees to boost their morale and enhance their motivation. In addition, the promotion of employees should not be unduly delayed in order to avoid resentful attitudes on the part of employees. Recruitment into the senior civil service can continue to be on a combination of merit and federal character, but further advancement should only be based on the twin criteria of merit and seniority. This is in order not to frustrate and demotivate otherwise hardworking employees who have been passed over for promotion due to the reverse discrimination effects of the federal character policy.

- Civil servants revealed that they should be empowered in terms of allowing them to participate fully in the decision-making process in matters pertaining to their work and welfare.

- It was revealed that regular training and staff development to enhance productivity and promote self-fulfilment should be encouraged by the authorities of the civil service as a matter of deliberate policy.

- Civil servants agreed that the authorities should develop and maintain an effective feedback mechanism to help to feel the pulse of employees at all times.

- Another aspect of concern was that the authorities should strive to understand the workforce and develop policies that will cater for the needs of the different categories of employees in the service whether at lower or higher levels. The authorities must ensure that all personnel policies facilitate rather than impede
work motivation. The leadership of the civil service should understand that different employees require different motivational factors and as such a range of different motivational strategies should be employed.

6.5 Proposals

In view of the findings provided above, some proposals are made to enhance motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service. These refer to top, middle and senior management, motivational strategies with regard to intrinsic motivation factors (motivators, e.g. achievement, recognition, interesting duties, responsibility, opportunity for growth and communication), and extrinsic maintenance factors (hygiene factors, e.g. supervision, security, salary and personal life) as determinants of motivation (see chapter one).

6.5.1 Training

The differences between perceptions of senior and junior staff in the Federal Civil Service Commission of what motivates them could be addressed through training. Ownership and empowerment result when employees have the required skills and abilities to perform their tasks effectively. Employees as learners should be actively involved in decision-making about training activities to enable them to accept responsibility for their development.

Managers should also acquire a wider insight into different functional areas to help unite the functional goals to the goals of the civil service. This cross-functional background will help management to understand the importance and implications of motivation in each functional area in achieving job satisfaction. Employees should be frequently reminded of the importance of satisfying the public's needs and specifications for the civil service to survive.

6.5.2 Culture forming

Institutional culture takes several years to change. In order to implement a new culture of motivation and job satisfaction, strategies and techniques must be
directed at changing the behaviour of both management and employees. Instead of an elite group of executives running an institution, all institutional employees need to be involved to improve productivity. The new culture must promote and support job satisfaction, as it will allow the civil service to survive new challenges. Cultural change must be planned and must occur in a consistent and incremental manner. If the required change is too great and unplanned, the civil service will revert back to its old culture.

The new culture should create commitment to productivity, with job satisfaction initiatives being the responsibility of all employed in the various departments. The new culture should embrace the values that determine group behaviour and support the performance objectives required to achieve the government's policy objectives. The new culture should also address impediments to change, the benefits of change, the risk of failing to change, and the rewards for change.

6.5.3 Change management

Successful institutional change occurs if those in charge lead by example. Management must thus be willing to examine their own behaviour and be capable of personal change themselves. They must create a context for change, articulate a theme, and demand that plans are developed for their own job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction programmes need to be viewed as the means to improve the products or services of the civil service. They should be consistent with existing motivational principles.

6.5.4 Empowerment

Nigerian civil servants indicated that they are not certain that they are empowered to reach their full potential. Responsibilities and operational procedures should be redefined in such a way that employees are empowered.
An orderly relationship between activities is necessary to ensure that employees work together in a coordinated fashion under the directing authority of management to achieve a common goal. Creativity will lead to employees using technical and innovative ideas to search for opportunities, while striving to exceed the needs of clients (both internal and external) in order to establish optimal productivity.

Management should adapt their style in a pragmatic manner to offer employees the opportunity to be innovative and creative and so to empower them to develop to their full potential. Exclusive efforts by top management to cling to organisational authority should be replaced with the desire to involve employees inclusively as full participants at their different sections or service units. Management should develop the optimum potential of each employee in such a manner that a feeling of "belonging to the institution" is established. This approach will not only add value to the life of the employee, but will also be to the advantage of the Federal Civil Service Commission, in particular, and the Nigerian civil service in its entirety. By following this approach, management will create an atmosphere of trust and openness (transparency) throughout the public sector and employees will accept co-ownership, not only of their work, but also of the specific parts of the service where they are employed.

6.5.5 The delegation of decision-making to lower levels

This study also revealed that employees are of the opinion that they are not really recognised during the decision-making processes of their respective sections or departments. It is desirable that employees should be given the opportunity to be involved in the decision-making processes of an institution. Employees are generally more motivated to achieve objectives if they are involved in decisions affecting them. Furthermore, involvement in the decision-making process can contribute to the establishment of ownership to enhance the achievement of objectives. If middle management and even employees do not have the ability to make high quality decisions, the chances are slim that proper empowerment will occur. If subordinates are well qualified, management can use this to their advantage by empowering them.
If participative management is emphasised, creative solutions can be offered to problems experienced in the work environment. All employees will have the opportunity to influence decision-making within their capabilities to the advantage of management and the institution. Management should therefore delegate more decision-making powers and responsibility to middle management and employees. This implies a certain degree of risk management, but the involvement and commitment of middle management and employees to optimise results should overshadow the possibility of losses/risks.

6.5.6 Teamwork

Management should give recognition for the achievements of employees within team context. Sufficient recognition of successful teams results in team empowerment and employee job satisfaction. Greater emphasis should be placed on giving recognition to successful teams in their sections or departments and not only on individual recognition within team context. Employees in teams should be empowered to identify the needs of clients and they should also be able to put in place the standards, processes and procedures required to satisfy internal and external client needs.

It is important that a relationship of trust exists between management and work teams. Without experienced and well-trained leaders, teams easily fade away, deviate from objectives, lose trust, or stagnate. Employees, grouped into teams, should also have the opportunity to participate in deliberations about the arrangement and execution of their work, as it will not only result in more satisfaction among personnel, but will also result in increased efficiency. Effective teamwork leads to greater employee empowerment, ownership and a relationship of trust between management and work teams.

6.5.7 Employee satisfaction

The opportunities offered by the civil service to its employees to develop in their work situation, have an important effect on their levels of job satisfaction.
Optimum work performance and satisfaction can be obtained as employees have the opportunity to develop. Employee satisfaction can be hindered if factors such as interpersonal conflict and inter-organisational conflict exist. As this aspect has many facets and there can be many reasons, the problem is not simple should an investigation be launched in the civil service to determine the reasons why the levels of employee satisfaction are so low. Better employee satisfaction will only occur once it has been properly determined why employee satisfaction is low. If these steps are followed, management should be able to act with greater authority in this regard. This problem has interfaces with all the dimensions of motivation and job satisfaction as indicated in chapters two and three.

6.5.8 Communication

Effective communication in any institution occurs horizontally, vertically, downwards, upwards and diagonally. It is recommended that management ensure that messages, views, expectations and aspirations reach operational levels quickly and correctly by means of vertical communication (downwards communication). At the same time, the responses of the lower levels (communication upwards) should be conveyed quickly and correctly to higher levels. Horizontal communication between persons or sections at the same hierarchical level should also be encouraged. Through horizontal communication better teamwork, coordination and decision-making should be established. This can occur through discussions and exchange of information between sections or between co-workers aspiring as a team to attain the same objectives.

Diagonal communication (combination of horizontal and vertical communication) should be encouraged so that those employees who have the necessary knowledge and those employees who require the knowledge can sometimes communicate directly (diagonal) with one another, irrespective of the fact that the communicator and the receiver of the message are not linked directly to one another hierarchically (e.g. within a matrix organisation).

Proper communication channels should be created as soon as possible, or the existing communication channels should be utilised better. Effective
communication among sections and employees should be stressed, and barriers that limit communication should be broken. Management should communicate even to the floor level and should not always expect a bottom-up approach.

6.5.9 Responsibility of management

It is desirable for management to realise that they have an important role to play in the efforts of the civil service to motivate employees in order to obtain optimal productivity and job satisfaction. The findings of this study indicated that the situation is not what it is supposed to be and that employees have serious doubts in this regard, namely that management do not really accept the responsibility to motivate employees by providing and allocating supportive structures, systems and resources in order to enhance job satisfaction.

It should be emphasised that the participation of leadership in the public sector is essential in the implementation of motivational strategies and techniques to enhance job satisfaction. It is the responsibility of management to achieve the objectives of the civil service in an atmosphere of cooperation and participation with all interested parties and at the highest possible productivity level.

6.6 Suggestions for further research

When considering the above recommendations, the following areas for possible further academic research are identified in respect of the determinants of motivation among Nigerian civil service employees:

- To collect and analyse data and draw conclusions about the factors that influence the implementation of motivational strategies (including leadership theories) in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service;
• To examine the attributes of departments or sections performing below standard to establish whether there are any differences in motivation factors affecting job satisfaction;

• To determine how to establish a leadership culture of job satisfaction that could enhance employee job satisfaction in order to improve the productivity in the civil service;

• To determine the specific training and development programmes that should be available to top and middle managers in the Nigerian civil service to enable them to adapt to the demands set by the lack of motivational job satisfaction incentives.

6.7 Summary

This concluding chapter focused on evaluating the determinants of motivation among a selected group of civil service employees in the Federal Civil Service Commission in Nigeria with the focus on Herzberg's dual-factor theory of job satisfaction. This chapter provided a hypothetical synopsis, drew conclusions and made appropriate proposals for the elimination of deficiencies that were identified in the findings obtained from primary and secondary research literature. It is believed that this research made a contribution to the theory and practice of public administration in Nigeria, which can possibly be used as a point of departure for further research directed at improving job satisfaction and motivation. Further research areas were identified and it is hoped that other students will take these up in the future.

This thesis attempted to make a contribution, in general, to the understanding of motivation and job satisfaction, and more specifically to Herzberg's dual-factor theory of job satisfaction. The thesis is completed in the trust that the findings and the proposals recorded here will be useful.
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Appendix 1
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a university postgraduate student. I am conducting an investigation on the determinants of employee motivation in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service Commission. I shall be grateful if you could spare time to answer the following set of questions in the appropriate space provided for each question. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality. You are kindly requested to give your candid opinion.

SECTION A: BIODATA (Tick as applicable)

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. Age (years): under 21 years [ ] 21 - 40 years [ ] Above 40 years [ ]

3. Marital Status: Single [ ] Married [ ] Others [ ]

4. Religion: Christian [ ] Muslim [ ] Others [ ]

5. Level of Education: Secondary Education (or its equivalent) and below [ ] Post-Secondary Education [ ]

6. Job Status: Junior Staff [ ] Senior Staff [ ]

7. Length of Service: Below 10 years [ ] Above 10 years [ ]

SECTION B: EVALUATION OF JOB FACTORS

Please indicate how important each characteristic is to you. Circle the number on the scale that most closely represents your feeling (-2-very unimportant -1-unimportant 0-undecided 1-important 2-very important). Consider your answers in the context of your current work experience only.
8. The physical working conditions in your place of work.
   -2 -1 0 1 2
9. The feeling of security in the job.
   -2 -1 0 1 2
10. The pay you receive in return for the amount of work you do.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
11. The opportunity to develop cordial relations with co-employees.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
12. Being on good terms with your supervisor/superiors.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
13. The quality of supervision you get in the job.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
14. Fair organisational policies and administration.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
15. The opportunity for independent thought and action in the job.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
16. The opportunity for personal growth and development in the job.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
17. The promotion prospects in the job.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
18. Individual recognition given for work well done.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
19. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in the job.
    -2 -1 0 1 2
**SECTION C (RANKING OF JOB FACTORS)**

Please rank the following job factors in order of importance to you on a scale of 1 - 12. Kindly ensure that no factor is given the same order or rank. (Tick as appropriate).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>JOB FACTOR</th>
<th>RANKING</th>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Work environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Job security</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Pay</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Relations with co-employees</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Relations with superiors</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Organisational policies and administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Career development</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
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*Thank you.*